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FROM THE

Celebrated COLUMBUS, the first Discoverer of America, to the Death of our no leſs celebrated Countryman Captain COOK, &c.

AND CONTAINING A

GENUINE HISTORY AND DESCRIPTION

OF THE

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A NEW, ROYAL AUTHENTIC,

And COMPLETE SYSTEM of

UNIVERSAL GEOGRAPHY.

BOOK IV.

AMERICA,

Including the New Diſcoveries on the Continent and Iſlands off the Coaſt.

INTRODUCTION.

IN treating of thoſe parts of the world which have already come under conſideration, viz. Aſia and Africa, we have, with peculiar care, collected, and, in full diſplay, preſented, both the New Diſcoveries, and the ſtriking deſcriptions of our celebrated countryman *Captain Cook*, and, we truſt, to the ſatisfaction of our numerous readers. America will afford us no leſs ſcope for gratification, nor ſhall we be leſs attentive, or leſs remiſs in our endeavours, to render our account of this part of the world as inſtructive and entertaining as either of the former; to which a deſcription of the different countries therein explored by our eminent Navigator will much conduce, as it will bring to view new countries, new men, and new manners, as well as exhibit novelty in the animal and vegetable ſyſtems. But previous to this, and in conformity to the order of our plan, as well as our deſire to preſerve every important hiſtorical event, it is expedient that we ſhould introduce a circumſtantial narrative of the firſt diſcovery made of America by the great Columbus, together with a general deſcription of the country; to which will ſucceed, with due propriety, the diſcoveries of our no leſs celebrated countryman *Captain Cook*; and tend to hand him down, as well as the former, to future ages, as a character worthy of univerſal admiration.

CHAP. I.

FIRST DISCOVERY OF AMERICA BY COLUMBUS.

AS few or no diſcoveries have diſplayed more human ſagacity and reſolution, or been attended with more important conſequences than that of America, we deem it expedient to preſent our readers with a circumſtantial detail of that intereſting event.

This was made in the fifteenth century, towards the cloſe of which, Venice and Genoa were become, thro' the means of their commerce with the eaſtern world, the greateſt maritime powers in Europe. Frequent voyages, ſome of which were of extent, introduced ſeveral improvements in the practical part of navigation; but the knowledge of mankind was ſtill very imperfect, hardly extending beyond their ſenſible horizon. The true ſyſtem of the world was unknown; and the imperfect notions entertained with regard to the figure and magnitude of the earth, had no other foundation than conjecture.

In this ſtate of things Chriſtopher Columbus, a native of Genoa, a man of aſpiring genius, whoſe knowledge of the mathematics exceeded that of his cotemporaries in general, conceived a plan of ſailing to the Indies by an unknown route, and thereby opening to his country a new ſource of opulence and power. This plan being preſented to his countrymen, and by them rejected as vague and chimerical, Columbus, exaſperated at their ungenerous treatment, laid it before the courts of France, England, and Portugal, who likewiſe ſpurned at it as imaginary, and reprobated the principles on which it was founded as abſurd and illuſive. His laſt reſource was the court of Spain, where, after eight years attendance, he ſucceeded through the ſpecial patronage of Queen Iſabella, conſort of King Ferdinand. This princeſs raiſed money neceſſary for the deſign upon her own jewels; ſo that he ſailed, to his inexpreſſible joy, with three ſhips, in the year 1492, on a voyage, in the event of which the inhabitants of two worlds were concerned.

In this arduous attempt Columbus had many difficulties to encounter. He had no chart to direct him; no lights from former navigators; to which was added the deſpondency of his ſailors, who, on their voyage, threatened to throw him overboard, and inſiſted on their return. At length, however, when his own invention and hopes were nearly exhauſted, they fortunately diſcovered land, after a voyage of 33 days, which put an end to the commotion, ſo that his commands were obeyed with alacrity.

Columbus firſt landed on one of the Bahama Iſles. The people, on the 11th of October, 1492, diſcovered a light upon the Iſland Guanahani, which the admiral called St. Salvador, as it delivered him and his crew from impending deſtruction. Here he erected the royal ſtandard, and took poſſeſſion of the iſland, by the appellation of St. Salvador, in the name of their Catholic

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Ma'eſties. The Indians, ignorant of his intention, made no oppoſition, being amuſed with the novelty and glitter of divers toys and trinkets which Columbus ordered to be diſtributed among them. Theſe people were entirely naked, of the middle ſtature, and an olive complexion. Their features were regular, excepting their foreheads, which were rather out of proportion. Their hair, which, as well as their eyes, was black, was moſtly cropped about their ears. Some painted their whole bodies, others only their faces, with a kind of fainteſh red. Many of them had ornaments pendant from the noſe over the upper lip. They followed the ſtrangers to their ſhips, ſome ſwimming, and others in canoes. The articles of exchange they brought on board were parrots and cotton yarn. They expreſſed the higheſt ſatisfaction with the European commodities; but gazed with peculiar delight at their ſwords and ſhining arms, being at that time ignorant of the uſe of iron.

Having taken a ſurvey of this and ſeveral other iſlands adjacent, and being convinced, from the poverty of the inhabitants, that theſe could not be the Indies he was in queſt of, Columbus ſteered to the ſouthward, and diſcovered the iſland called by him Hiſpaniola, abounding in all the neceſſaries of life, inhabited by a humane and hoſpitable people, and, what was of ſtill greater conſequence, promiſing, from ſome ſamples he had received, conſiderable quantities of gold and precious ſtones. This iſland, therefore, he propoſed to make the center of his future diſcoveries; and having erected a fort, and placed in it a ſmall garriſon, he ſailed for Spain, to procure neceſſary reinforcements for eſtabliſhing his infant colony, and completing his diſcoveries.

The Spaniſh court was then at Barcelona, which he had entered amidſt the acclamations of the people, attended by ſome of the Americans, arrayed in the gold, the arms, and ornaments, of the New World juſt diſcovered. He had the honour of preſenting to the king and queen, in the preſence of the whole court, a particular account of his diſcoveries, and received the univerſal applauſe of the public.

But regardleſs of honours, the proſecution of his main deſign engroſſed the attention of Columbus; and as his late ſucceſs had obviated former prejudices, a fleet of 17 ſail was immediately equipped, with all neceſſaries for conqueſt or diſcovery, and 1500 men embarked, among whom were ſome of the beſt families in Spain. Thus prepared, he ſet ſail a ſecond time, in September 1493, with an ample commiſſion, as governor of all the countries he ſhould diſcover.

On his arrival at Hiſpaniola, he found the fort he had erected demoliſhed, and moſt of the Spaniards murdered. It appeared upon examination, that they had violated the laws of decency and juſtice in their behaviour towards the natives, to whoſe reſentment they had therefore fallen victims. Columbus, however, found means to conciliate the minds of the Indians, which being effected, he choſe a more commodious ſtation for his colony, erected ſtronger fortifications than the former, encouraged agriculture, and exerted every effort for the eſtabliſhment of the colony.

In his firſt voyage he had touched at Cuba; but whether it was an iſland, or part of ſome extenſive continent, could not then be aſcertained; therefore, to determine this was now his grand object. In coaſting along the ſouthern ſhore of Cuba, he found a multitude of ſmall iſlands, moſt of them pleaſant, and well inhabited. This archipelago he called Jardin de la Reyna, the Queen's Garden, in gratitude to his benefactreſs Queen Iſabella. In this voyage he diſcovered the Iſland of Jamaica; and, after a ſeries of the greateſt dangers and diſtreſs, put into Hiſpaniola, without accompliſhing his grand deſign reſpecting Cuba.

But as there is no difficulty in finding ſpecious grounds for accuſation againſt ſuch as are employed in the execution of extenſive and complicated plans, thro' the baſe inſinuation of his enemies, an officer was diſpatched from Spain, whoſe preſence demonſtrated to Columbus the neceſſity of returning to Europe, to obviate the calumnies of his enemies.

Having ſurmounted theſe obſtacles, he ſet out, in 1498, on a third expedition, ſtill more important than the former. In this navigation, after being long buried in a thick fog, and ſuffering numberleſs hardſhips from the exceſſive heats and rains between the tropics, he diſcovered the continent of America. The firſt land he made was the Iſland of Trinidada, on the coaſt of Guiana. After paſſing this iſland, and two others lying at the mouth of the river Oroonoko, the admiral was ſurprized at finding his ſhip agitated by a dreadful conflict of waves, occaſioned between the tide of the ſea, and the rapid current of that immenſe river. Intrepidly purſuing his courſe, he ſoon perceived that they were in freſh water; and judging rightly, that no iſland could ſupply ſo vaſt a river, he began to ſuſpect he had diſcovered the continent; but when he left the river, and found that the land continued on to the weſtward for a great way, he was convinced of it. Satisfied, in ſome meaſure, with this diſcovery, he yielded to the cries of his diſtreſſed crew, and bore away for Hiſpaniola. In the courſe of the paſſage he landed at ſeveral places, and traded with the inhabitants for gold and pearl.

In a ſubſequent voyage, being the fourth, Columbus diſcovered all the coaſt of Terra Firma to the Iſthmus of Darien, where he hoped to have found a paſſage into the South Sea. In this he was diſappointed; but he was not ſo in the other part of his project; for every where, as he advanced, he became more ſenſible of the value of his diſcoveries on the continent. He found a people more civilized, and more abounding in gold, than the Iſlanders with whom he had been acquainted.

The ſucceſs of Columbus rouſed a ſpirit of diſcovery; and adventurers in divers parts of Europe, ſtimulated by a thirſt for gold, equipped ſhips at their own expence. The moſt remarkable of theſe was Americus Veſpucio, a merchant of Florence, who ſailed to the ſouthern continent of America, and being a man of addreſs, found means to acquire the honour of giving his name to half the globe. But no one is now impoſed on by the name, for the glory of the diſcovery is awarded by the whole world to Columbus.

Such, however, were the machinations of malice and envy, and ſuch the effect of the calumny of his enemies at the court of Spain, in depreciating the merits of this great man, that he was ſent for to Europe ignominiouſly loaded with fetters. The court of Spain, however, on his arrival, ordered him to be ſet at liberty, and diſavowed the proceeding. Columbus retired in diſguſt to Vallidolid, where he died in 1506, after having rendered ſuch important ſervices to mankind, as will tranſmit his name with honour to the lateſt poſterity.

Succeeding adventurers purſued no form or plan in their undertakings, gold being their object, to obtain which they followed fortune wherever ſhe led them. They contributed, however, to augment the power and riches of the Spaniſh monarchy, though at the expence of the blood of millions. Thus the kings of Spain, without any exertion of policy, or the leaſt public charge, were, by private adventurers among their ſubjects, put in poſſeſſion of a greater, and more wealthy territory, than ever the moſt renowned heroes had obtained by their valour or their wiſdom. This conqueſt is the more extraordinary for the ſhortneſs of the time in which it was effected; for, from the departure of Columbus in 1492, to the entire reduction of Chili, which happened in 1541, ſeveral conſiderable kingdoms were brought to ſubmit to the Spaniſh yoke. We ſhall point out by whom, and the manner in which theſe exploits were performed, under the heads of each reſpective country, and after having treated of America in general, begin with the diſcoveries, deſcriptions, &c. of our Britiſh Columbus, *Captain Cook*.

CHAP. II.

GENERAL DESCRIPTION OF AMERICA.

THIS vaſt track, frequently denominated the New World, extends from latitude 78 degrees north, to latitude 56 degrees ſouth, that is 134 degrees, which, taken in a ſtrait line, amounts to 8040 miles in length. Its breadth is various, being, in ſome places, 3690 miles, and in others not above 60 or 70. It forms a part of both hemiſpheres, and boaſts all the different climates of the earth. It is bounded on the north by unknown lands, on the ſouth by the Southern Ocean, on the eaſt by the Atlantic Ocean, and on the weſt by the Great Pacific Ocean. By means of theſe ſeas it carries on a direct commerce with the other three parts of the world.

America, generally conſidered, conſiſts of two extenſive continents, joined together by a narrow neck of land, called the Iſthmus of Darien, and diſtinguiſhed by the appellations of North and South. A great variety of iſlands are ſcattered on both ſides of America. Several on the north-weſt coaſt were diſcovered by *Captain Cook*. On a large gulph, formed by the coaſts of the northern and ſouthern continents, and thoſe of the Iſthmus of Darien, lie a multitude of iſlands, many of them large, and moſt of them fertile. They are called the Weſt Indies, and will, as well as all the reſt, be deſcribed in their proper order.

Though America is not, in general, a mountainous country, it has the greateſt mountains in the world. In South America the Andes run from north to ſouth along the coaſt of the Pacific Ocean. They extend from the Iſthmus of Darien to the Straits of Magellan, divide the ſouthern parts of America, and run a length of between 4 and 5000 Engliſh miles. In North America are ſeveral lofty and extenſive chains, the principal of which are called the Algennay or Apalachian mountains.

North America is watered by many rivers, the moſt remarkable of which will be deſcribed in their reſpective provinces. The river Miſſiſſippi, riſing from unknown ſources, runs a prodigious courſe from north to ſouth. There are five great lakes, which, communicating with each other, afford a moſt advantageous inlet for commerce. Many parts are, indeed, ſo interſected with navigable rivers and creeks, that numbers of planters may be ſaid to have each an harbour at his own door.

South America has three of the largeſt rivers in the world, the river of the Amazons, the river Plata, and the river Oroonoko.

A country of ſuch prodigious extent as America on each ſide of the equator, muſt neceſſarily have a variety of ſoils as well as climates.

It is very remarkable that the climates of North America are colder, by many degrees, than any of the countries in the ſame latitude in Europe. Thus New Britain, which is nearly in the ſame latitude with Great Britain, is almoſt inſufferably cold to an European. The greateſt part of the frozen country of Newfoundland, the Bay of St. Laurence, and Cape Breton, lie oppoſite to the coaſt of France. Nova Scotia and New England are in the ſame latitude as the Bay of Biſcay. New York and Pennſylvania lie oppoſite to Spain and Portugal. Hence the coldeſt winds of North America blow from the north and the weſt, as they do here from the north and eaſt.

If we except the moſt northern and ſouthern parts, which are naturally cold and barren, the reſt produce, in abundance, moſt of the metals, minerals, plants, fruits, trees, and woods, to be met with in the other parts of the world, and ſome of them in greater quantities, and higher perfection. America alſo produces diamonds, pearls, emeralds, amethyſts, and other valuable ſtones. To theſe may be added a great number of other commodities, which, though of leſs price, are of much greater uſe.

Sheep, goats, cows, aſſes, and horſes, were not found here upon the firſt landing of the Europeans, but having been brought in plenty, increaſed ſo faſt in fertile paſtures, as to afford an ample ſupply.

Here is a vaſt variety of birds, ſurpaſſing all that are to be found in any other part of the world, for beauty, ſhape, and colour, which will be deſcribed in their proper places.

The ſeas, lakes, and rivers, abound with the greateſt plenty and variety of fiſh.

Before the arrival of the Europeans, the natives of America had arts of their own. They had ſome notion of painting, and alſo formed pictures by the beautiful arrangements of feathers of all colours; and in ſome parts erected ſtately buildings. Though the uſe of iron was unknown, they poliſhed precious ſtones, cut down trees, and made not only ſmall canoes, but boats of conſiderable bulk. Their hatchets were headed with a ſharp flint; and of flints they made knives. Thus at the arrival of the Europeans, they preſented a lively picture of the ſtate of mankind in the earlieſt ages.

America is chiefly divided between the Spaniſh, Engliſh, Portugueſe, and the United States. The French and Dutch have, indeed, ſettlements in South America, called Guiana and Surinam, but theſe are of little importance. They have alſo colonies in North America. The Indians are in quiet poſſeſſion of many large inland tracts. The Spaniards, who diſcovered the New World, ſtill enjoy the largeſt and richeſt portion of it, and thence draw immenſe wealth.

Next to Spain, the moſt conſiderable proprietor of America was Great Britain, which derived a claim to North America from the firſt diſcovery of that continent by Sebaſtian Cabot, in the name of Henry VII. about ſix years after the diſcovery of South America by Columbus, in the name of the king of Spain. This northern country was, in general, called Newfoundland, a name now appropriated ſolely to an iſland upon its coaſt. It was a long time before any attempt was made to ſettle a colony in it. Sir Walter Raleigh, of reſpectable memory, firſt ſhewed the way, by fixing the Engliſh ſtandard in that part which he called Virginia, in honour of his royal miſtreſs Queen Elizabeth.

The Britiſh nation had, at an immenſe expence, and with the loſs of thouſands of gallant ſubjects, preſerved, ſecured, and extended its colonies ſo far, as to render it difficult to aſcertain the preciſe bounds of its empire in North America, to the northern and weſtern ſides: But, alas; theſe flattering proſpects have been annihilated by a moſt unhappy conteſt between the mother country and the colonies, which, after a continuance of eight years, at great expence of blood and treaſure, terminated in the eſtabliſhment of a new republic, ſtiled, "The Thirteen United States of America."

We propoſe to divide the New World into three parts:

I. NORTH AMERICA, prefixing to our account ſuch parts, continental, inſular, &c. as have been diſcovered, viſited, or deſcribed, by *Captain Cook*.

II. WEST INDIAN and AMERICAN ISLANDS.

III. SOUTH AMERICA.

CHAP.

CHAP. III.

NORTH AMERICA.

Particular Parts of North America, continental, inſular, &c. &c. diſcovered, viſited and deſcribed by CAPTAIN COOK, on his third and laſt Voyage.

CAPTAIN COOK, with a perſeverence and intrepidity peculiar to himſelf, explored the coaſt of North America till he reached to the latitude of 70 deg. 44. min. when all further attempts to proceed were fruſtrated by a prodigious maſs of ice, which extended from continent to continent.

The moſt extreme point he mentions is Cape Liſburne. It is ſituated in the latitude of 69 deg. 5 min. north. He ſays it appeared to be tolerably high land, even down to the ſea. In almoſt every other part, as our navigators advanced to the north, they had found a low coaſt, from which the land roſe to a moderate height. The coaſt now before them was free from ſnow, except in one or two places, and had a greeniſh hue, but they could not diſcern any wood upon it.

To the ſouthward of Cape Liſburne is a point, named by *Captain Cook* Point Mulgrave. It is ſituated in lat. 67 deg. 45 min. north. The land ſeemed to be very low near the ſea, but a little farther it roſe into hills of a moderate height: the whole was free from ſnow, and apparently deſtitute of wood.

The weſtern extreme of America, hitherto known, is a point of land, which *Captain Cook* diſtinguiſhed by the name of Cape Prince of Wales. It ſtands in the lat. of 65 deg. 46 min. north.

SLEDGE ISLAND lies in lat. 64 deg. 30 min. north, and is about 12 miles in circumference. The ſurface of the ground principally conſiſts of large looſe ſtones, covered in many places with moſs, and other vegetables, of which 20 or 30 different ſpecies were obſerved, and moſt of them in flower. But not a tree or ſhrub was ſeen, either on the iſland, or upon the neighbouring continent. Near the beach where our people landed was a conſiderable quantity of wild purſlane, long-wort, peaſe, &c. ſome of which they took on board for boiling. They ſaw ſeveral plovers, and other ſmall birds, alſo a fox. They met with ſome decayed huts, built partly under ground. It appeared ſome people had been lately on the iſland, and it was more than probable that they often came thither, there being a beaten path from one end to the other. At a ſmall diſtance from that part of the ſhore where our people landed they found a ſledge, which induced *Captain Cook* to give the iſland the name of Sledge Iſland. It appeared to be ſuch a one as is uſed by the Ruſſians in Kamtſchatka, for the purpoſe of conveying goods from one place to another over the ſnow and ice. Its conſtruction was admirable, and its various parts were put together with great neatneſs, ſome with wooden pins, but for the moſt part with thongs or laſhings of whalebone; in conſequence of which, *Captain Cook* imagined that it was entirely the workmanſhip of the natives.

KING'S ISLAND, ſo called by *Captain Cook*, is a ſmall iſland, which was deſcried at the diſtance of eight or nine leagues from the former.

CLERK'S ISLAND, which alſo received its appellation from *Captain Cook*, lies in lat. 63 deg. 15 min. north. It ſeemed to be an iſland of conſiderable extent, in which were ſeveral hills, all connected by low ground, ſo that it looked at a diſtance like a group of iſlands. Near its eaſtern part is a little iſland, which is remarkable for having on it three elevated rocks. Both the greater iſland, and this ſmaller one, were apparently inhabited.

GORE'S ISLAND lies in nearly the ſame latitude as the former. It is about 30 miles in extent, and particularly narrow at the low necks of land, by which the hills are connected. *Captain Cook* found afterwards that it was entirely unknown to the Ruſſians, and therefore conſidering it as a diſcovery of his own, named it Gore's Iſland. It appeared to be barren, and deſtitute of inhabitants, at leaſt our navigators ſaw none. Near Gore's Iſlands a ſmall iſland, whoſe lofty ſummit terminates in ſeveral pinnacle rocks, for which reaſon it obtained the name of PINNACLE ISLAND.

ANDERSON'S ISLAND, ſo called by *Captain Cook*, to perpetuate the memory of Mr. Anderſon, ſurgeon of the Reſolution, who departed this life juſt before the diſcovery of it, lies in lat. 62 deg. 34 min. north. This is the only circumſtance worthy of mention concerning it.

NORTON'S SOUND.

Situation. Survey of the Country. Interview with the Natives. Articles of Barter. Divers Incidents. Perſons, Dreſs, Habitations, Vegetable Productions, &c.

THIS inlet, to which *Captain Cook* gave the name of Norton's Sound, in honour of Sir Fletcher Norton, afterwards Lord Grantley, lies between the latitudes of 64 and 65 deg. north. The bay wherein the ſhips lay at anchor is ſituated on the ſouth-eaſt ſide of it, and by the natives denominated Chacktoole. It is not a very good ſtation, nor is an harbour to be met with in all this ſound.

Captain Cook, at firſt ſight, imagined this ſpot of land to be two iſlands, but afterwards found that it was a peninſula connected with the continent by a low iſthmus, on each ſide of which a bay is formed by the coaſt.

Having caſt anchor at about a league's diſtance from the point of the peninſula, to which ſpot the appellation of Cape Denbigh was given, they obſerved ſeveral of the natives on the peninſula, and one of them came off in a ſmall canoe. *Captain Cook* gave this man a knife and ſome beads, with which he appeared to be well pleaſed. Our people made ſigns to him to bring them ſome proviſions, upon which he inſtantly quitted them, and paddled towards the ſhore. Happening to meet another man coming off, who had two dried ſalmons, he got them from him; and when he returned to the ſhip, he refuſed to give them to any body except *Capt. Cook*. Some of our people fancied that he aſked for him under the name of *capitaine*, but in this they were perhaps miſtaken. Others of the inhabitants came off ſoon afterwards, and gave them a few dried fiſh, in exchange for ſuch trifles as they had to barter with them. They ſhewed no diſlike to tobacco, but were moſt deſirous of knives.

Mr. Gore was diſpatched to the peninſula, to procure wood and water, of the former of which articles the people obſerved great plenty upon the beach. At the ſame time a boat from each of the ſhips was ſent to ſound round the bay; and at three o'clock, the wind freſhening at north-eaſt they weighed anchor, and endeavoured to work further in: but that was quickly found to be impracticable, by reaſon of the ſhoals, which extended entirely round the bay, to the diſtance of upwards of two miles from the ſhore.

Captain

Engraved for BANKES's *New System of Universal* GEOGRAPHY. *Published by Royal Authority*

A CORRECT MAP of the UNITED STATES of NORTH AMERICA.

Including the British and Spanish Territories carefully laid down agreeable to the Treaty of 1784

by T Bowen, *Geog^r*

NEW SOUTH WALES

JAMES BAY

NEW BRITAIN

LABRADOR

CANADA

NEWFOUNDLAND

GULF of ST LAWRENCE

CASPESIA

NEW BRUNSWICK

NOVA SCOTIA

CAPE BRETON ISLAND

NOVA SCOTIA FISHING BANKS

LOUISIANA

PART of NEW MEXICO

GULF of MEXICO

UNITED STATES

NEW HAMPSHIRE

MASSACHUSETTS

CONNECTICUT

PENNSYLVANIA

NEW YORK

NEW JERSEY

MARYLAND

VIRGINIA

NORTH CAROLINA

SOUTH CAROLINA

GEORGIA

WEST FLORIDA

EAST FLORIDA

BAHAMA or LUCAYOS

ATLANTIC OCEAN

WESTERN OCEAN

Lake Superior

Lake Michigan

Lake Huron

Lake Erie

Lake Ontario

Lake Temiscamings

Lake Nipissing

Lake Winnipeg

Lake of the Woods

Lake Pontchartrain

Lake Maricopa

Lake Tintons

Lake Pepin

Lake Mississagues

Lake Tachoctin

Lake Ouskwego

Lake Ouinipigon

Lake Mistassins

Lake Nekoubaw

Lake Abitibis

Lake Temiscamings

Lake Capeonacaumistick

Lake Mistigoun

Lake Eastern Sioux

Lake Tintons

Lake of Ima

Lake Ouinipigon

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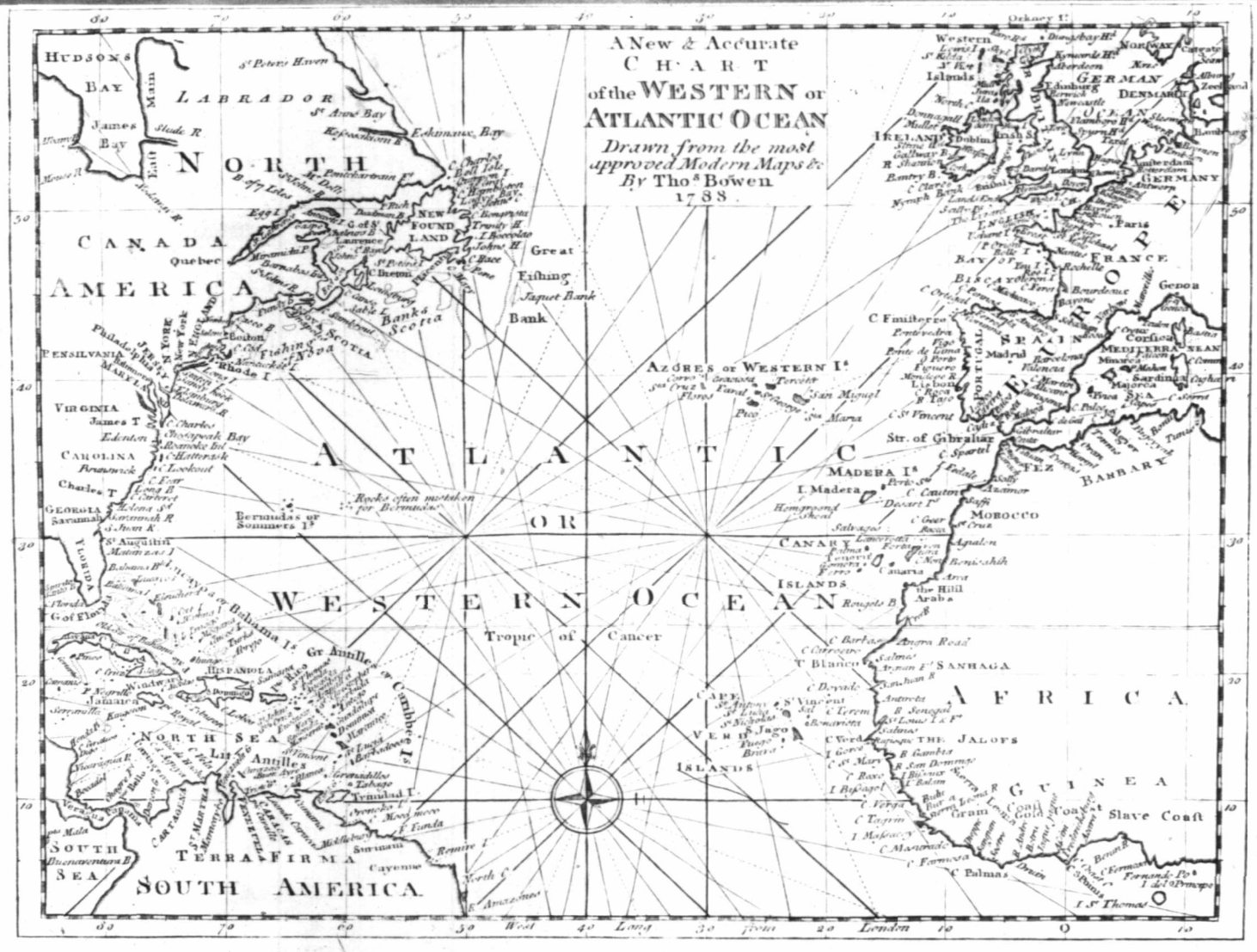
A New & Accurate
CHART
of the WESTERN or
ATLANTIC OCEAN
Drawn from the most approved Modern Maps &c
By Thos Bowen
1788.
HUDSONS BAY
LABRADOR
NORTH AMERICA
CANADA
NEW FOUNDLAND
Great Fishing Bank
Banks Scotia
NEW YORK
PENSILVANIA
VIRGINIA
CAROLINA
GEORGIA
FLORIDA
Gulf of Florida
Bahama Is
Gr Antille
Caribbee Is
NORTH SEA
Little Antilles
SOUTH SEA
TERRA FIRMA
SOUTH AMERICA
ATLANTIC
OR
WESTERN OCEAN
Tropic of Cancer
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MADERA Is
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CAPE VERD ISLANDS
EUROPE
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SPAIN
PORTUGAL
MEDITERRANEAN SEA
BARBARY
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AFRICA
GUINEA
Gold Coast
Slave Coast
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Captain Cook went aſhore, and took a walk into the country, which, in thoſe parts where there was no wood, abounded with heath, and other plants, ſeveral of which had plenty of berries, all ripe. Scarce a ſingle plant was in flower. The underwood, ſuch as birch, alders, and willows, occaſioned walking to be very troubleſome among the trees, which were all ſpruce, and none of which exceeded ſeven or eight inches in diameter; but ſome were obſerved lying on the beach, that were above twice that ſize. All the drift-wood ſeen in theſe northern parts was fir.

A family of the natives came near the ſpot where our people were occupied in taking off wood. The Captain ſaw only the huſband and wife, and their child, beſides a fourth perſon, who was the moſt deformed cripple he had ever ſeen. The huſband was nearly blind; and neither he nor his wife were ſuch well-looking people as many of thoſe whom he had met with on this coaſt. Both of them had their lower lips perforated; and they were in poſſeſſion of ſome glaſs beads, reſembling thoſe that had been ſeen before among their neighbours. Iron was the article that pleaſed them moſt. For four knives, which had been formed out of an old iron hoop, the Captain obtained from them near 400 pounds weight of fiſh, that had been lately caught by them. Some of theſe were trout, and others were, with reſpect to ſize and taſte, ſomewhat between a herring and a mullet. The Captain gave a few beads to the child, who was a female; upon which the mother immediately burſt into tears, then the father, next after him the cripple, and at laſt, to add the finiſhing ſtroke to the concert, the child herſelf. This, however, was not of long duration

Lieutenant King had before been in company with the ſame family. His account of this interview is to the following purport: While he attended the wooding party, a canoe, filled with natives approached, out of which an elderly man and woman (the huſband and wife above-mentioned) came aſhore. Mr. King preſented a ſmall knife to the woman, and promiſed to give her a much larger one in exchange for ſome fiſh. She made ſigns to him to follow her. After he had proceeded with them about a mile, the man fell down as he was croſſing a ſtony beach, and happened to cut his foot very much. This occaſioned Mr. King to ſtop; upon which the woman pointed to her huſband's eyes, which were covered with a thick whitiſh film. He afterwards kept cloſe to his wife, who took care to apprize him of the obſtacles in his way. The woman had a child on her back, wrapped up in the hood of her jacket. After walking about two miles they arrived at an open ſkin-boat, which was turned on one ſide, the convex part towards the wind, and was made to ſerve for the habitation of this family. Mr. King now performed a remarkable operation on the man's eyes. He was firſt deſired to hold his breath, then to breathe on the diſtempered eyes, and afterwards to ſpit on them. The woman then took both the hands of Mr. King, and preſſing them in the man's ſtomach, held them there for ſome time, while ſhe recounted ſome melancholy hiſtory reſpecting her family, ſometimes pointing to her huſband, ſometimes to her child, and at other times to the cripple, who was related to her. Mr. King purchaſed all the fiſh they had, which conſiſted of excellent ſalmon, ſalmon-trout, and mullet. Theſe fiſh were faithfully delivered to the perſon he ſent for them.

The woman was ſhort and ſquat, and her viſage was plump and round. She wore a jacket made of deer-ſkin, with a large hood, and had on a pair of wide boots. She was punctured from the lip to the chin. Her huſband was well made, and about five feet two inches in height. His hair was black and ſhort, and he had but little beard. His complexion was of a light copper caſt. He had two holes in his lower lip, in which, however, he had no ornaments. The teeth of both of them were black, and appeared as if they had been filed down level with the gums.

As doubts were ſtill entertained whether the coaſt upon which they now were belonged to an iſland, or to the continent of America, Lieutenant King was diſpatched by *Captain Cook*, with two boats, well manned and armed, to make ſuch a ſearch as might tend to remove all difference of opinion on the ſubject. He was inſtructed to proceed towards the north as far as the extreme point ſeen before, or a little further, if he ſhould find it neceſſary; to land there, and from the heights endeavour to diſcover whether the land he was then upon, imagined to be the iſland of Alaſchka, was really an iſland, or was connected to the land to the eaſtward, ſuppoſed to be the American continent,

After the departure of Lieutenant King, ſeveral of the natives came off in canoes, and gave the crew ſome dried ſalmon in exchange for trifling articles. Early the next morning nine men, each in a ſeparate canoe, paid them a viſit, with the ſole view of gratifying their curioſity. They approached the ſhip with caution, and drawing up abreaſt of each other, under the ſtern, favoured them with a ſong; while one of their number made many ludicrous motions with his hands and body, and another beat upon a ſort of drum. There was nothing ſavage either in the ſong or the geſtures with which it was accompanied. There ſeemed to be no difference either with reſpect to ſize or features between theſe people, and thoſe on the other northerly parts of the coaſt. Their dreſs, which chiefly conſiſted of the ſkins of deer, was made after the ſame mode; and they had adopted the practice of perforating their lower lips, and affixing ornaments to them.

The habitations of theſe Americans were ſituated cloſe to the beach. They conſiſt merely of a ſloping roof, without any ſide walls, formed of logs, and covered with earth and graſs. The floor is likewiſe laid with logs. The entrance is at one end, and the fire-place juſt within it. A ſmall hole is made near the door of the hut, for the purpoſe of letting out the ſmoak.

The berries found here by the party that went on ſhore for brooms and ſpruce, were hurtle-berries, heath-berries, partridge-berries, and wild currant-berries. *Captain Cook* alſo went aſhore, and took a walk over part of the peninſula. He met with very good graſs in ſeveral places, and ſcarcely obſerved a ſingle ſpot on which ſome vegetable was not growing. The low land, by which this peninſula is united to the continent, abounds with narrow creeks, and likewiſe with ponds of water, ſeveral of which were at this time frozen over. There were numbers of buſtards and geeſe, but they were ſo ſhy, that it was impoſſible to get within muſket-ſhot of them. Some ſnipes were alſo ſeen; and on the higher grounds were partridges of two ſpecies. Where there was wood, muſketos were numerous. Some of the officers, who went further into the country than the Captain did, met with ſome of the natives of both ſexes, who treated them with civility and kindneſs.

It was the opinion of *Captain Cook* that this peninſula had been an iſland in ſome diſtant period; for there were marks of the ſea having formerly flowed over the iſthmus; and even at preſent it appeared to be kept out by a bank of ſand, ſtones, and wood, which the waves had thrown up. It was manifeſt, from this bank, that the land here encroached upon the ſea; and it was not difficult to trace its gradual formation.

Lieutenant King returned from his expedition about four days after he left the ſhip. The crews of the boats rowed without intermiſſion towards the land for the ſpace of a day. They then ſet their ſails, and ſtood acroſs the bay which the coaſt forms to the weſtward of Bald-Head. They afterwards made uſe of their oars, and had got within two miles of Bald-Head, under the lee of the high land. At that time all the men in the boat belonging to the Reſolution, except two, were ſo oppreſſed with fatigue and ſleep, that Mr. King's utmoſt endeavours to make them put on were ineffectual. They were at length ſo far exhauſted as to drop their oars, and fall aſleep at the bottom of the boat. In

conſequence of this Mr. King, and two gentlemen who were with him, were obliged to lay hold of the oars; and they landed, a little after three o'clock, between Bald-Head and a point that projects to the eaſtward.

Mr. King, upon his landing, aſcended the heights, from which he could ſee the two coaſts join, and that the inlet terminated in a ſmall creek or river, before which there were banks of ſand or mud, and in every part ſhoal water. The land, for ſome diſtance towards the north, was low and ſwampy; then it roſe in hills; and the perfect junction of thoſe, on each ſide of the inlet, was traced without the leaſt difficulty.

From the elevated ſituation in which Mr. King took his ſurvey of the ſound, he could diſcern many ſpacious vallies, with rivers flowing through them, well wooded, and bounded by hills of a moderate height. One of the rivers, towards the north-weſt, ſeemed to be conſiderable: and he was inclined to ſuppoſe, from its direction, that it diſcharged itſelf into the ſea at the head of the Bay. Some of his people, penetrating beyond this into the country, found the trees to be of a larger ſize the further they proceeded.

The weather being fine afforded an opportunity of making a great number of lunar obſervations, the reſult of which gave 197 deg. 13 min. eaſt, as the longitude of the anchoring place on the weſtern ſide of the ſound; while its latitude was 64 deg. 31 min. north. With reſpect to the tides, the night flood roſe two or three feet, and the day flood was ſcarcely perceivable.

Captain Cook was now perfectly convinced that Mr. Stæhlin's map was extremely erroneous, and that the continent of America was the very ſpace which that gentleman had imagined to be the Iſland of Alaſchka.

Captain Cook thought it now high time to quit theſe northerly regions, and retire to ſome place for the winter, where he might obtain proviſions and refreſhments. He did not conſider Petropaulowſka, or the harbour of St. Peter and St. Paul, in Kamtſchatſka, as likely to furniſh a ſufficient ſupply. He had likewiſe other reaſons for not going thither at preſent; the principal of which was his great unwillingneſs to remain inactive for ſix or ſeven months, which would have been the conſequence of paſſing the winter in any of theſe northern countries. He at length concluded that no ſituation was ſo convenient as the Sandwich Iſlands. To them, therefore, he formed a reſolution of repairing. But a ſupply of water being neceſſary before he could execute that deſign, he determined with a view of procuring this eſſential article, to ſearch the coaſt of America for a harbour, by proceeding along it to the ſouthward. If he ſhould not meet with ſucceſs in that ſearch, his intention was to reach Samganhoodha, which was appointed for the place of rendezvous in caſe the ſhips ſhould happen to ſeparate.

STUART'S ISLAND lies in the latitude of 63 deg. 35 min. north, and is ſix or ſeven leagues in circumference. Though ſome parts of it are of a moderate height, yet, in general, it is low, with ſome rocks off the weſtern part. Some drift wood was obſerved on the ſhore, but not a ſingle tree was ſeen.

The greateſt part of the coaſt of the continent is low land, but they perceived high land up the country. It forms a point oppoſite this iſland, which was diſtinguiſhed by the name of Cape Stephens, and is ſituated in the latitude of 63 deg. 33 min. north, and in the longitude of 197 deg. 41 min. eaſt.

Before they reached Stuart's Iſland they paſſed two little iſlands, ſituate between them and the main land; and as they ranged along the coaſt, ſeveral of the natives made their appearance upon the ſhore, and, by ſigns, ſeemed to invite them to approach.

ROUND ISLAND, ſo denominated by *Captain Cook* on account of its figure, lies in the latitude of 58 deg. 37 min. north, and is ſeven miles diſtant from the continent.

BARREN ISLES, ſo called from the nakedneſs of their appearance, are ſituated in latitude 59 deg. north. They are a group of high iſlands and rocks, and unconnected with any other land.

Near theſe iſlands was perceived a very lofty promontory, whoſe elevated ſummit appeared above the clouds, forming two very high mountains. *Captain Cook* named this promontory Cape Douglas, in honour of Doctor Douglas, now biſhop of Carliſle.

KAYE'S ISLAND.

THIS iſland, diſcovered by *Captain Cook*, lies in latitude 59 deg. 49 min. north. It does not exceed 12 leagues in length, nor in breadth above a league and a half in any part of it. The ſouth-weſt point is a naked rock, conſiderably elevated above the land within it. There is alſo a high rock lying off it, which, when ſeen in ſome paaticular directions, has the appearance of a ruinous caſtle. This iſland terminates towards the ſea in bare ſloping cliffs, with a beach conſiſting of large pebbles, intermixed in ſome places with a clayey ſand. The cliffs are compoſed of a blueiſh ſtone or rock, and are, except in a few parts, in a ſoft or mouldering ſtate. Some parts of the ſhore are interrupted by ſmall vallies and gullies, in each of which a rivulet or torrent ruſhes down with a conſiderable degree of impetuoſity, though, perhaps, only furniſhed from the ſnow, and laſting no longer than till the whole is diſſolved. Theſe vallies are filled with pine-trees; and they alſo abound in other parts of the iſland, which, indeed, is covered, as it were, with a broad girdle of wood. The trees, however, are far from being of an extraordinary growth, few of them ſeeming to be larger than what a perſon might graſp round with his arms, and their general height being 40 or 50 feet; ſo that they would be of no great ſervice for ſhipping, except as materials for making top-gallant-maſts, and other ſmall things. The pine trees appeared to be all of one ſpecies; and neither the Canadian pine, or cypreſs, was to be ſeen.

Among the trees was ſome currant and hawberry buſhes, a yellow-flowered violet, and the leaves of other plants not then in flower, particularly one which was ſuppoſed by the naturaliſts to be the *heracleum* of Linnæus.

A crow was ſeen flying about the wood: two or three white headed eagles, like thoſe of Nootka, were alſo obſerved; beſides another ſpecies equally large, which had a white breaſt. *Captain Cook* likewiſe ſaw, in his paſſage from the ſhip to the ſhore, a number of fowls ſitting on the water, or flying about, the principal of which were gulls, burres, ſhags, ducks, or large petrels, divers, and quebrantahueſſes. The divers were of two ſorts; one very large, whoſe colour was black, with a white belly and breaſt; the other of a ſmaller ſize, with a longer and more pointed bill. The ducks were alſo of two ſpecies; one browniſh, with a dark blue or blackiſh head or neck; the other ſmaller, and of a dirty black colour. The ſhags were large and black, having a white ſpot behind the wings. The gulls were of the common ſort, flying in flocks. There was alſo a ſingle bird flying about, apparently of the gull kind, whoſe colour was a ſnowy white, with ſome black along part of the upper ſide of the wings. At the place where the party landed, a fox came from the verge of the wood, and eying them with little emotion, walked leiſurely on without manifeſting any ſigns of fear. He was not of a large ſize, and his colour was of a reddiſh yellow. Two or three ſmall ſeals were likewiſe ſeen near the ſhore; but no traces were diſcovered of inhabitants having ever been in the iſland.

On a ſmall eminence near the ſhore, *Captain Cook* left, at the foot of a tree, a bottle, containing a paper, on which the names of the ſhips, and the date of the diſcovery, were inſcribed. He alſo encloſed two ſilver two-penny pieces of Engliſh coin, which, with many others, he had been furniſhed with by Dr. Kaye, dean

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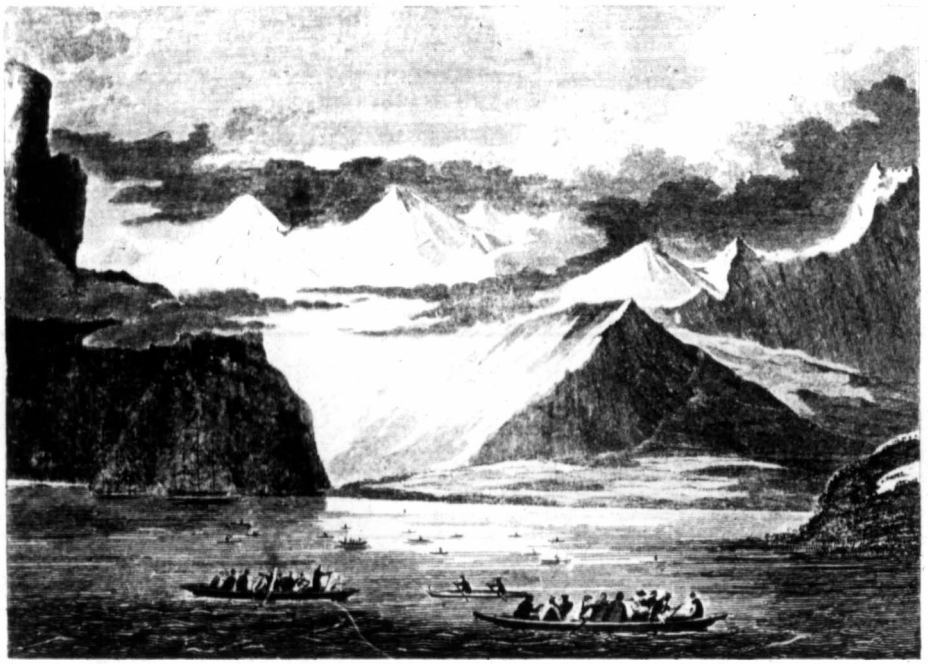

A View of Snug Corner Cove, in Prince William's Sound.

Inhabitants of Norton Sound, and their Habitations.

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He alſo called a ſpacious inlet, about three leagues diſtant from this iſland, Cape Hinchinbroke. Having caſt anchor under this cape, Mr. Gore was diſpatched in a boat, in order to ſhoot ſome birds that might ſerve for food. He had ſcarcely arrived when about 20 of the natives appeared in two large canoes, upon which he returned to the ſhips, and they followed him. They were unwilling however, to venture along-ſide, but kept at a diſtance, ſhouting aloud, and claſping and extending their arms alternately. They then began a kind of ſong. Their heads were ſtrewed with feathers; and one of them held out a white garment, which it was ſuppoſed they intended as a token of friendſhip; while another, for near a quarter of an hour, ſtood up in the canoe, entirely naked, with his arms extended like a croſs, and motionleſs. Their canoes were conſtructed upon a different plan from thoſe our people had hitherto ſeen. The frame conſiſted of ſlender laths, and the outſide was formed of the ſkins of ſeals, or other animals of a ſimilar kind. Though our people returned their ſigns of amity, and endeavoured, by the moſt expreſſive geſtures, to encourage them to come along-ſide, they were unable to prevail upon them. Some of our people alſo repeated ſeveral of the common words that they had heard in the adjacent parts, but they did not appear to underſtand them. After they had received ſome preſents that were thrown to them, they retired towards the ſhore, intimating, by ſigns, that they would return the next morning. They accordingly came off in five or ſix canoes, but as the ſhips were under ſail, they could not reach, though they followed them for ſome time.

PRINCE WILLIAM's SOUND.

SECTION I.

Situation. Reception from the Natives. Their Appearance and Behaviour.

THIS inlet on the coaſt, diſtinguiſhed by *Captain Cook* under the name of Prince William's Sound, is in the latitude of 59 deg. 33 min. north. He alſo gave the place where the ſhips Reſolution and Diſcovery took up their ſtation, the appellation of Snug Corner Bay.

When our people firſt entered the Bay, three of the natives came off in two canoes, two men in one, and one in the other, being the number that each canoe could carry. The men had each a ſtick of the length of about three feet, with the large feathers, or wings of birds, faſtened to it. Theſe they frequently held up, probably as tokens of peace. The treatment theſe three received induced many others to viſit the ſhips, in both great and ſmall canoes. Some of them ventured on board the Reſolution, though not before ſome of our people had ſtepped into their boats. Among thoſe who came on board was a middle-aged man, who was afterwards found to be the chief. His dreſs was made of the ſkin of the ſea-otter, and he had on his head a cap, embelliſhed with ſky-blue glaſs beads. He appeared to value theſe much more than our white glaſs beads. Any kind of beads, however, ſeemed to be in high eſtimation among theſe people, who readily gave in exchange for them whatever they had, even their fine ſea-otter ſkins.

Iron was a great object, but they abſolutely rejected ſmall bits, and wanted pieces nine or ten inches long at leaſt, and of the breadth of three or four fingers. They obtained but little of that article, as, by this time, it was become rather ſcarce. The points of ſome of their ſpears were of this metal, others were of copper, and a few were of bone; of which laſt the points of their arrows, darts, &c. were formed.

The chief could not be prevailed upon to venture below the upper deck, nor did he and his companions continue long on board. While they were on board it was neceſſary to watch them narrowly, as they ſoon manifeſted an inclination for thieving. At length, when they had been three or four hours along-ſide the Reſolution, they all quitted her, and repaired to the Diſcovery, which ſhip none of them had before been on board of, except one man, who came from her at this very time, and immediately returned to her, in company with the others.

The natives, ſoon after quitting the Diſcovery, made their way towards the boat that was employed in ſounding. The officer who was in her obſerving their approach, returned to the ſhip, and all the canoes followed him. The crew of the boat had no ſooner repaired on board, leaving in her, by way of guard, two of their number, than ſeveral of the natives ſtepped into her, ſome of whom preſented their ſpears before the two men, while others loſed the rope by which ſhe was faſtened to the ſhip, and the reſt were ſo daring as to attempt to tow her away. But the moment they ſaw our people were preparing to oppoſe them, they let her go, ſtepped out of her into their own boats, and made ſigns to perſuade them to lay down their arms.

The man already mentioned as having conducted his countrymen from the Reſolution to the Diſcovery, had firſt been on board of the latter, where looking down all the hatchways, and obſerving no one except the officer of the watch, and one or two others, he doubtleſs imagined that ſhe might be plundered with eaſe, parcicularly as ſhe was ſtationed at ſome diſtance from the Reſolution. It was unqueſtionably with this intent that the natives went off to her. Several of them went on board without the leaſt ceremony, and drawing their knives, made ſigns to the officer, and the other people upon deck, to keep off, and began to ſearch for plunder. The firſt thing they laid hold of was the rudder of one of the boats, which they immediately threw overboard to thoſe of their party who had continued in the canoes. But before they had time to find another object that ſtruck their fancy, the ſhip's crew were alarmed, and many of them, armed with cutlaſſes, came upon deck. On obſerving this, the plunderers all ſneaked off into their canoes, with evident marks of indifference.

From the above circumſtances it may reaſonably be inferred, that theſe people were not acquainted with fire-arms; for had they known any thing of their effect, they would by no means have ventured to attempt carrying off a boat from under a ſhip's guns, in the face of upwards of an hundred men; for moſt of the Reſolution's people were looking at them at the very inſtant of their making the attempt. However, they were left as ignorant, in this particular, as they were found; for they neither ſaw or heard a muſket fired, except at birds.

SECTION II.

Perſons, Dreſs, Canoes, Weapons, Utenſils, Food, Language, &c.

THE natives ſeen by our voyagers were, in general of a middling ſtature, though many of them were under it. They were ſquare, or ſtrong-cheſted, with ſhort thick necks, and large broad viſages, which were, for the moſt part, rather flat. The moſt diſproportioned part of their bodies appeared to be their heads, which were of great magnitude. Their teeth were of a tolerable whiteneſs, broad, well ſet, and equal in ſize. Their noſes had full round points, turned up at the tips; and their eyes, though not ſmall, were ſcarcely proportioned to the largeneſs of their faces. They had black hair, which was ſtrong, ſtrait, and thick. Their beards were, in general, thin, or deficient; but the hairs growing about the lips of thoſe who had them,

them, were briſtly or ſtiff, and often of a browniſh colour; and ſome of the elderly men had large, thick, ſtrait beards.

Very few, however, could be ſaid to be handſome, though their countenances, in general indicated frankneſs, vivacity, and good nature; yet ſome of them ſhewed a reſerve and ſullenneſs in their aſpect. The faces of ſome of the women were agreeable; and many of them, but principally the younger ones, might eaſily be diſtinguiſhed from the other ſex, by the ſuperior delicacy of their features. The complexion of ſome of the females, and of the children, was white, without any mixture of red. Many of the men, whom our people ſaw naked, had rather a ſwarthy caſt, which was ſcarcely the effect of any ſtain, as it is not their cuſtom to paint their bodies.

The men, women, and children, of this ſound, are all cloathed in the ſame manner. Their ordinary dreſs is a ſort of cloſe frock, or rather robe, which ſometimes reaches only to the knees, but generally down to the ancles. It has, at the upper part, a hole juſt ſufficiently large to admit the head, with ſleeves reaching to the waiſt. Theſe frocks are compoſed of the ſkins of various animals, ſuch as the grey fox, racoon, pine-martin, ſea-otter, ſeal, &c. and they are commonly worn with the hairy ſide outwards. Some of the natives have their frocks made of the ſkins of fowls, with only the down left on them, which they glue upon other ſubſtances. One or two were ſeen with woollen garments. At the ſeams, where the different ſkins are ſewed together, they are uſually adorned with fringes or taſſals of narrow thongs, cut out of the ſame ſkins. There is a ſort of Cape or collar to a few of them, and ſome have a hood; but the other is the moſt cuſtomary form, and appears to conſtitute their whole dreſs in fair weather. They put over this, when it is rainy, another frock, made with ſome degree of ingenuity from the inteſtines of whales, or of ſome other large animal, prepared with ſuch ſkill, as to reſemble, in a great meaſure, our gold-beaters leaf. It is formed ſo as to be drawn tight round the neck; and its ſleeves extend down to the wriſt, round which they are faſtened with a ſtring. When they are in their canoes, they draw the ſkirts of this frock over the rim of the hole in which they ſit, ſo that the water is prevented from entering. At the ſame time it keeps the men dry upwards; for no water can penetrate through it. It is apt to crack or break, if it is not conſtantly kept moiſt. This frock, as well as the common one made of ſkins, is nearly ſimilar to the dreſs of the natives of Greenland. Some of them wear a kind of ſkin ſtockings, reaching half way up their thighs. Few of them are without mittens for their hands, formed from the ſkins of bears paws. Thoſe who wear any thing on their heads reſemble, in this particular, the people of Nootka, having high truncated, conical caps, compoſed of ſtraw, and ſometimes of wood.

The hair of the men is commonly cropped round the forehead and neck, but the females ſuffer it to grow long. The greateſt part of them tie a lock of it on the crown, while a few club it behind, after our method. Both the men and women perforate their ears with ſeveral holes, about the outer and lower part of the edge, wherein they ſuſpend ſmall bunches of beads. They alſo perforate the *ſeptum* of the noſe, though which they often thruſt the quill feathers of birds, or little bending ornaments, made of a tubulous ſhelly ſubſtance, ſtrung on a ſtiff cord, of the length of three or four inches, which give them a ridiculous and groteſque appearance. But the moſt extraordinary ornamental faſhion, and which is adopted by ſome of the natives of both ſexes, is their having the under lip cut quite thro' lengthways, rather below the ſwelling part. This inciſion frequently exceeds two inches in length, and, either by its natural retraction while the wound is ſtill freſh, or by the repetition of ſome artificial management, aſſumes the appearance and ſhape of lips, and becomes ſufficiently large to admit the tongue through. This happened to be the caſe when a perſon, with his under lip thus ſlit, was firſt ſeen by one of our ſailors, who immediately exclaimed, that the man had two mouths, which, indeed is greatly reſembled. They fix in this artificial mouth a flat, narrow kind of ornament, made principally out of a ſolid ſhell or bone, cut into ſmall narrow pieces, like teeth, almoſt down to the baſe, or thick part, which has, at each end, a projecting bit, that ſerves to ſupport it when put into the divided lip, the cut part then appearing outwards. Some of them only perforate the lower lip into ſeparate holes: on which occaſion the ornament conſiſts of the ſame number of diſtinct ſhelly ſtuds, the points of which are thruſt through theſe holes, and their heads appear within the lip, not unlike another row of teeth under their natural ones.

Beſides the native ornaments of theſe people, were obſerved among them many beads of European manufacture, chiefly of a pale blue colour, which are hung in their ears, or about their caps, or are joined to their lip ornaments, which have a little hole drilled in each of the points to which they are faſtened, and others to them, till they ſometimes even hang as long as the point of the chin. In this laſt caſe, however, they cannot remove them with ſuch facility; for, with reſpect to their own lip-ornaments, they can take them out with their tongue at pleaſure. They likewiſe wear bracelets of beads, made of a ſhelly ſubſtance; or others of a cylindrical form, compoſed of a ſubſtance reſembling amber. They are, in general, ſo fond of ornaments of ſome kind or other, that they fix any thing in their perforated lip; for one of them appeared with two iron nails projecting like prongs from it; and another one attempted to put a large braſs button into it.

The men often paint their faces of a black colour, and of a bright red, and ſometimes of a bluiſh or leaden hue, but not in any regular figure. The woman puncture or ſtain the chin with black, that comes to a point in each of their cheeks; a cuſtom ſimilar to which is in vogue among the Greenland females. Their bodies are not painted, which may probably be owing to the ſcarcity of materials for that purpoſe; all the colours which they brought for ſale being in very ſmall quantities. *Captain Cook* obſerves, upon the whole, that in no country he had ſeen ſavages who take more pains than theſe do to ornament, or rather to diſfigure, their perſons.

Their canoes are of two ſorts, the one large and open, the other ſmall and covered. The larger reſemble, in their conſtruction, the great or woman's boat of Greenland, with no other difference than in the form of the head and ſtern, particularly of the former, which is ſomewhat like that of the head. The framing conſiſts of ſlender pieces of wood; and the outſide is compoſed of the ſkins of ſeals, or rather ſea animals, ſtretched over the wood. The ſmaller canoes are made of the ſame form and materials with thoſe of the Eſquimaux and Greenlanders, and curved on the fore part like the head of a violin.

Many of their ſpears are headed with iron, and their arrows are generally pointed with bone. Their larger darts are thrown by means of a piece of wood about a foot long, with a ſmall groove in the middle, which receives the dart: at the bottom is a hole for the reception of one finger, which enables them to graſp the piece of wood much firmer, and to throw with greater force. For defenſive armour they have a ſort of jacket, or coat of mail, formed of laths, faſtened together with ſinews, which renders it very flexible, though it is ſo cloſe as not to admit a dart or arrow. It ſerves only to cover the trunk of the body, and may not improperly be compared to the ſtays of women.

Our voyagers had not an opportunity of ſeeing any of the habitations of theſe people, as none of them dwelt in the bay where our ſhips anchored, or where any of them landed. With reſpect to their domeſtic utenſils, they brought, in their canoes, ſome round and oval wooden diſhes, rather ſhallow; and others of a

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A MAN OF PRINCE WILLIAM's SOUND.

A WOMAN OF PRINCE WILLIAM's SOUND.

cylindrical form, conſiderably deeper. The ſides conſiſted of one piece, bent round, after the manner of our chip boxes, but thick, and neatly faſtened with thongs; the bottoms being fixed in with ſmall pegs of wood. Others were ſomewhat ſmaller, and of a more elegant figure, not unlike a large oval butter-boat, without any handle, but ſhallower. Theſe were compoſed of a piece of wood, or ſome horny ſubſtance, and were ſometimes neatly carved. They had a number of little ſquare bags, made of the ſame gut with their exterior frocks, curiouſly adorned with very ſmall red feathers interwoven with it, in which were contained ſeveral very fine ſinews, and bundles of ſmall cord, made out of them, plaited with extraordinary ingenuity. They likewiſe brought ſome wooden models of their canoes, chequered baſkets, wrought ſo cloſely as to hold water, and a conſiderable number of ſmall images, of the length of four or five inches, either of wood, or ſtuffed, which were covered with a piece of fur, and embelliſhed with quill feathers, with hair fixed on their heads. Our people could not determine whether theſe were intended merely as children's toys, or were held in veneration, as repreſenting their deceaſed friends and relations, and applied to ſome ſuperſtitious purpoſe. They have many inſtruments formed of two or three hoops, or concentrical pieces of wood, having a croſs-bar fixed in the middle, by which they are held. To theſe they fix a number of dried barnacle-ſhells, with threads, which, when ſhaken, produce a loud noiſe, and thus ſerve the purpoſe of a rattle. This contrivance is probably a ſubſtitute for the rattling bird at King George's Sound.

It is uncertain with what tools their wooden utenſils, frames of canoes, &c. are made, the only one obſerved among them being a kind of ſtone adze, ſomewhat reſembling thoſe of Otaheite, and other iſlands in the Pacific Ocean. They have a great quantity of iron knives, ſome of which are rather curved, others ſtraight, and ſome very ſmall ones, fixed in longiſh handles, with the blades bent upwards. They have alſo knives of another ſort, ſometimes almoſt two feet in length, ſhaped, in a great meaſure, like a dagger, with a ridge towards the middle. They wear theſe in ſheaths of ſkins, hung by a thong round their necks, under their robe or frock. It is probable that they uſe them only as weapons, and that their other knives are applied to different purpoſes.

Upon the whole, conſidering the uncivilized ſtate of the natives of this ſound, their northerly ſituation amidſt a country almoſt continually covered with ſnow, and the comparatively wretched materials they have to work with, it appears that, with reſpect to their ſkill and invention, in all manual operations, they are at leaſt equal to any other people.

The food they were ſeen to eat was the fleſh of ſome animal, either roaſted or broiled, and dried fiſh. Some of the former, that was purchaſed, had the appearance of bear's fleſh. They likewiſe eat a larger ſort of fern-root, either baked, or dreſſed in ſome other method. Some of our people obſerved them eat freely of a ſubſtance which they imagined was the interior part of the pine bark. Their drink, in all probability, is water; for, in their canoes, they brought ſnow in wooden veſſels, which they ſwallowed by mouthfuls. Their manner of eating is decent and cleanly, for they conſtantly took care to remove any dirt that might adhere to their food; and though they would ſometimes eat the raw fat of ſome ſea animal, they did not fail to cut it carefully into mouthfuls. Their perſons were, to appearance, always clean, and their utenſils, in general, were kept in excellent order, as were alſo their boats.

With reſpect to the language of the inhabitants of this ſound, it appeared to our people difficult to be underſtood, perhaps owing to the various ſignifications which their words bear; for they ſeemed frequently to uſe the ſame word on very different occaſions; though it was the opinion of the ſpeculative part of our people, that if they had a longer intercourſe with them, this might probably have proved to be a miſtake on their part.

SECTION III.

Beaſts, Birds, Fiſh, Vegetables, and Metals, of Prince William's Sound. Conjectures whence the Natives procure Beads and Iron.

OUR voyagers could derive no other knowledge of the animals of this part of the world, than what they obtained from the ſkins that were brought by the natives for ſale. Theſe were chiefly of bears, common and pine martins, ſea-otters, ſeals, racoons, ſmall ermines, foxes, and the whitiſh cat or lynx. Among theſe various ſkins the moſt common were thoſe of racoons, martins, and ſea-otters, which conſtituted the ordinary dreſs of theſe people. The ſkins of ſeals and bears were alſo pretty common; and the former were, in general, white, beautifully ſpotted with black, or ſometimes ſimply white; and many of the bears here were of a dark brown hue.

Here is the white bear, of whoſe ſkins the natives brought ſeveral pieces, and ſome complete ſkins of cubs. There is alſo the woolverine, or quickhatch, whoſe ſkin has very bright colours; and a larger ſpecies of ermine than the common one, varied with brown, and having ſcarcely any black on its tail. The ſkin of the head of ſome very large animal was likewiſe brought to our people, but they could not poſitively decide what it was; though, from the colour and ſhagginеſs of the hair, and its not reſembling any land animal, they conjectured that it might be that of the male urſine ſeal, or ſea-bear. One of the moſt beautiful ſkins that came under their obſervation was that of a ſmall animal, near a foot in length, of a brown colour on the back, with a number of obſcure whitiſh ſpecks, the ſides being of a bluiſh aſh colour, with a few of theſe ſpecks. The tail is about a third part of the length of the body, and is covered with whitiſh hair. This animal is the ſame with that called by Mr. Stæhlin, in his account of the New Northern Archipelago, the ſpotted field-mouſe. But whether it was really of the mouſe kind, or the ſquirrel, could not be determined for want of an entire ſkin.

Of birds found here were the halcyon, or king's fiſher, the ſhag, the white headed eagle, and the humming bird, which often flew about the ſhips as they lay at anchor. The water fowl ſeen were black ſea-pies, geeſe, a ſmall ſort of ducks, ſnipes, grouſe, plovers, &c. &c. There is a ſpecies of the diver peculiar to the place, and of the ſize of a partridge.

The chief fiſh brought by the natives for ſale were torſk and halibut; and our people caught ſome ſculpins about the ſhip, with ſtar-fiſh of a purpliſh hue, that had ſixteen or eighteen rays. The rocks were almoſt deſtitute of ſhell-fiſh; and the only other animal of this tribe obſerved, was a reddiſh crab, covered with very large ſpines.

Few vegetables of any kind were ſeen. The trees that chiefly grew about this ſound were the Canadian and ſpruce pine, ſome of which were of a conſiderable ſize.

The metals ſeen here were iron and copper, both of which, but more particularly the former, were in ſuch abundance, as to form the points of numbers of their lances and arrows. The ores which they made uſe of to paint themſelves with, were a brittle, unctuous, red ochre, or iron ore; a pigment of a bright blue, and black lead. Each of theſe ſeemed to be very ſcarce among them. Copper theſe people, perhaps procure by their own means, or, at moſt, it paſſes to them through few hands; for when our people offered any of it by way of barter, they uſed to expreſs its being in ſufficient plenty among them by pointing to their weapons, as if they meant to intimate, that, as they had ſo much for their own, there was no occaſion for increaſing their ſtock.

If, however, the natives of this inlet are furniſhed with European Commodities by means of thein termediate traffic to the eaſtern coaſt, it is rather remarkable that they ſhould never, in return, have ſupplied the more inland Indians with ſome of their ſea-otter ſkins, which would undoubtedly have appeared, at ſome time or other, in the environs of Hudſon's Bay.

The natives of this place muſt doubtleſs have received from ſome more civilized nation the beads and iron found among them. Our voyagers were almoſt certain that they were the firſt Europeans with whom they had ever had a direct communication; and it remained to be determined from what quarter they had procured theſe manufactures by intermediate conveyance. It is more than probable that they had obtained theſe articles through the intervention of the more inland tribes, either from the ſettlements about Hudſon's Bay, or thoſe on the lakes of Canada; unleſs the ſuppoſition can be admitted that the Ruſſians, from Kamſchatka, have already extended their traffic to this diſtance; or that the natives of their moſt eaſterly iſlands carry on an intercourſe along the coaſt with the inhabitants of Prince William's Sound.

There are two paſſages into the inlet that leads to Prince William's Sound, ſeparated from each other by an iſland that extends 18 leagues in the direction of ſouth-weſt and north-eaſt, to which *Captain Cook* gave the appellation of Montague Iſland.

In this channel are ſeveral iſlands. Thoſe ſituate in the entrance next the open ſea are elevated and rocky. Thoſe that are within are low; and as they were totally free from ſnow, and covered with wood and verdure, they were denominated Green Iſlands.

As *Captain Cook* was purſuing his voyage, ſeeing the appearance of a ſhoal, he came to anchor. Two canoes, with a man in each, then came off to the ſhip. It coſt them ſome labour to paddle acroſs the ſtrong tide; and they heſitated a little before they dared venture to approach. One of them was very loquacious, but to no purpoſe, for the Europeans could not underſtand a ſyllable he ſaid. While he was talking, he kept continually pointing to the ſhore, which was ſuppoſed to be an invitation for our people to go thither. *Captain Cook* made them a preſent of a few trifles, which he conveyed to them from the quarter gallery. Theſe people ſtrongly reſembled thoſe ſeen in Prince William's Sound, both in dreſs and perſon. Their canoes were alſo conſtructed in the ſame manner. One of theſe viſitors ſeemed to have no beard, and his face was painted of a jet black: the other, who was older, was not painted, but he had a large beard, and a countenance like the common ſort of people in the ſound. Smoak was ſeen upon the flat weſtern ſhore, whence it was inferred, that thoſe lower ſpots were the only places inhabited.

COOK'S RIVER.

Diſcovery of and Country adjacent; with an Account of the Manners, Cuſtoms, Language, &c. of the Natives.

CAPTAIN COOK obſerved, in his progreſs on this coaſt, that the water, till he arrived at a certain ſpot, in the latitude of 60 deg. 8 min. retained an equal degree of ſaltneſs, both at high and low water, but here the marks of a river evidently appeared. Having anchored under a point of land, the water which was taken up was much more freſh than any our people had taſted, whence they concluded that they were in a large river, and not in a ſtrait, which had a communication with the northern ſeas. Having proceeded thus far, they were anxious to have ſtronger proofs, and therefore weighed with the flood, and drove up with the tide, having but little wind.

The tide is very conſiderable in this river, and greatly aſſiſts to facilitate the navigation of it. In the ſtream it is high water between two and three o'clock, on the days of the new and full moon; and the tide riſes between three and four fathoms. The mouth of the river being in a corner of the coaſt, the ocean forces the flood into it by both ſhores, which ſwells the tide to a greater height than at other parts of this coaſt.

As the ſhips were under ſail, they were attended by many of the natives, in one large canoe, and ſeveral ſmall ones. The latter had only one perſon on board each of them; and ſome of the paddles had a blade at each end. Men, women, and children, were contained in the large canoes. At ſome diſtance from the ſhip they exhibited, on a long pole, a kind of leathern frock, which our people interpreted to be a ſign of their peaceable intentions. They conveyed this frock into the ſhip, as an acknowledgement for ſome trifles which *Caaptain Cook* had given them.

The perſons, dreſs, and canoes of theſe people, reſembled thoſe of Prince William's Sound, except that the ſmall canoes were not ſo large as thoſe of the ſound, and carried only one man.

Our people bartered with them for ſome of their fur dreſſes, made of the ſkins of animals, particularly thoſe of ſea-otters, martins, and hares. They alſo had a few of their darts, and a ſupply of ſalmon and halibut, for which they gave ſome old clothes, beads, and pieces of iron, in exchange.

The natives were already poſſeſſed of large iron knives, and glaſs beads of a ſky-blue colour, ſuch as were ſeen among the inhabitants of Prince William's Sound. The latter, as well as thoſe which they received from our people, they ſeemed to value highly. But they were particularly earneſt in aſking for large pieces of iron, to which they gave the name of *goone*; though with them, as well as with their neighbours in the ſound, one word ſeemed to have many ſignifications. Their language is certainly the ſame. The words *oonaka*, *keeta*, and *nahema*, and a few others, which were frequently uſed in Prince William's Sound, were alſo commonly uſed by this new tribe. After paſſing about two hours between the two ſhips, they retired to the weſtern ſhore.

Our people obſerved that, at the loweſt ebb, the water at and near the ſurface of the river, was perfectly freſh; though it retained a conſiderable degree of ſaltneſs, if taken deeper than a foot below it. There were not only this, but many other convincing proofs of its being a river, ſuch as thick muddy water, low ſhores, trees and rubbiſh of various kinds floating backwards and forwards with the tide. *Captain Cook* finding, from divers obſervations, that all the low land which he at firſt imagined to be an iſland, was one continued track, from the great river to the foot of the mountains, terminating at the ſouth entrance of the eaſtern branch, he denominated that branch the river Turnagain.

Captain Cook obſerves, that the time ſpent in the diſcovery of this great river [called afterwards, by the direction of Lord Sandwich, Cook's River] ought not to be regretted, if it ſhould hereafter prove uſeful to the preſent, or any future age. But the delay thus occaſioned, was an eſſential loſs [illegible]r voyagers, who had an object of greater magnitu[illegible]n view. The ſeaſon was far advanced; and it was now evident that the continent of North America extended much farther to the weſt than they had reaſon to expect from the moſt approved charts. *Captain Cook*, however, had the ſatisfaction to reflect, that if he had not examined this very large river, ſpeculative fabricators of geography would have ventured to aſſert, that it had a communication with the ſea to the north, or with Hudſon's or Baffin's Bay to the eaſt; and it would probably have been marked, on future maps of the world, with much appearance of preciſion.

Lieutenant King was ſent with two armed boats, with orders from *Captain Cook* to land on the ſouth-eaſt ſide of the river, where he was to diſplay the flag, and, in his Majeſty's name, to take poſſeſſion of the country and the river. He was alſo ordered to bury a bottle in the earth, containing ſome Engliſh coin of 1772, and a paper, whereon was written the names of the ſhips, and

and the date of the diſcovery. The point where our people landed was named Point Poſſeſſion.

Lieutenant King having executed his orders returned on board, and gave information to *Captain Cook* of the particular incidents which had occurred on ſhore. He ſaid, that on his approach to the ſhore, he ſaw 18 or 20 of the natives with their arms extended; an attitude, he ſuppoſed, meant to ſignify their peaceable diſpoſition, and to convince him they were without weapons. Seeing the officer and his attendants land, and obſerving muſkets in their hands, they were alarmed, and requeſted (by expreſſive ſigns) that they would lay them down. This was immediately complied with, and then our party were permitted to walk up to them, when they appeared to be very ſociable and chearful.

The natives had ſeveral dogs with them, and a few pieces of freſh ſalmon. A gentleman of our party purchaſed one of the dogs, and, taking it towards the boat, immediately ſhot it dead. At this the natives ſeemed exceedingly ſurprized; and not thinking themſelves ſafe in ſuch company, walked away: but it preſently appeared, that they had concealed their ſpears and other weapons in the buſhes cloſe behind them. The ground, according to Mr. King's account, was ſwampy, and the ſoil poor and light. It, however, produced ſome pines, alders, birch, and willows; ſome roſe and currant buſhes, and a little graſs; but there was not a plant in flower to be ſeen.

The ſhips having weighed, ſtood to the weſtward, and there anchoring, were viſited by ſeveral of the natives, in canoes, who bartered their ſkins, and afterwards parted with their garments, many of them returning perfectly naked. Among others they brought a great quantity of the ſkins of white rabbits and red foxes, but only two or three of thoſe of ſea-otters. Our people alſo purchaſed ſome pieces of halibut and ſalmon. They gave iron the preference to every thing offered them in exchange.

The lip ornaments were leſs in faſhion among them than at Prince William's Sound; but thoſe which paſs through the noſe were more frequent, and, in general, conſiderably longer. They had, likewiſe, more embroidered work on their garments, quiver, knife-caſes, and many other articles.

Plying down the river, and caſting anchor about two miles below a ſpot called by *Captain Cook* the Bluff Point, the ſhips were again viſited by many of the natives, who attended them all the morning; and, indeed, their company was highly exceptable, as they brought with them a quantity of fine ſalmon, which they exchanged for ſome trifles. Several hundred weight of it was procured for the two ſhips, and the greateſt part of it ſplit, and ready for drying.

The mountains now, for the firſt time after the ſhips entered the river, were free from clouds, and a volcano was perceived in one of thoſe on the weſtern ſide. Its latitude is 60 deg. 23 min. and it is the firſt high mountain north of St. Auguſtin. The volcano is near the ſummit, and on that part of the mountain next the river. It emits a white ſmoke, but no fire.

Captain Cook remarks, that all the people ſeen in this river had a ſtriking reſemblance, in every particular, to thoſe who inhabit Prince William's Sound.

The points of their ſpears and knives are made of iron: ſome of the former, indeed, are made of copper. Their ſpears reſemble the Britiſh ſpontoons; and their knives, for which they have ſheaths, are of a conſiderable length. Except theſe, and a few glaſs beads, every thing ſeen amongſt them was of their own manufacture.

Conjectures have been formed from whence they derive their foreign articles. It cannot be ſuppoſed, however, that the Ruſſians have been amongſt them, for they would not then have been ſeen cloathed in ſuch valuable ſkins as thoſe of the ſea-otter.

A very beneficial fur trade might certainly be carried on with the natives of this vaſt coaſt; but, without a northern paſſage, it is too remote for Great Britain to be benefitted by ſuch commerce. It ſhould, however, be obſerved, that almoſt the only valuable ſkins on this weſt ſide of North America, are thoſe of the ſea-otter. Their other ſkins were of a ſuperior quality; and it ſhould be further obſerved, that the greater part of the ſkins which were purchaſed of them were made up into garments. Some of them, indeed, were in pretty good condition; others old and ragged; and all of them extremely louſy. But as ſkins are uſed by theſe people only for cloathing themſelves, they, perhaps, are not at the trouble of dreſſing more of them than they require for this purpoſe. This is probably the chief cauſe of their killing the animals, for they principally receive their ſupply of food from the ſeas and rivers. But if they were once habituated to a conſtant trade with foreigners, ſuch an intercourſe would increaſe their wants, by acquainting them with new luxuries; to be enabled to purchaſe which, they would become more aſſiduous in procuring ſkins; a plentiful ſupply of which might doubtleſs be obtained in this country.

ISLANDS.

ST. HERMOGENES lies in latitude 58 deg. 15 min. north; and longitude 207 deg. 24 min. It is about ſix leagues in circumference, and one of a cluſter of iſlands that are barren and uninhabited.

TRINITY ISLAND. The greateſt extent of this iſland, according to *Captain Cook's* account, is about ſix leagues in the direction of eaſt and weſt. It has naked, elevated land at each end, and is low towards the middle. Its latitude is 56 deg. 36 min. north; longitude 205 deg. It is diſtant about three leagues from the continent, between which rocks and iſlands are interſperſed. There ſeems nevertheleſs, to be a good paſſage, and ſafe anchorage.

FOGGY ISLAND lies in latitude 56 deg. 10 min. and longitude 202 deg. 45 min. and is nine miles in circumference. *Captain Cook* obſerves that it is ſo named in the chart, and thinks it reaſonable to ſuppoſe, that it is the iſland on which Beering, a famous Ruſſian navigator, had beſtowed the ſame appellation.

THE SCHUMAGINS ISLANDS. This cluſter of iſlands begin in the longitude of 200 deg. 15 min. eaſt, and extend about two degrees to the weſtward. They are, in general, high, barren, and rugged, exhibiting very romantic appearances, and abounding with rocks and cliffs. They have ſeveral bays and coves about them, and ſome freſh water ſtreams deſcend from their elevated parts; but the land is not embelliſhed with a ſingle tree or buſh. The largeſt of the group is called Kodiak, and lies in 55 deg. 18 min. north.

HALIBUT ISLAND, ſo called from its abounding with the fiſh of that name, is ſeven leagues in circumference, and, except the head, is low and barren. Several ſmall iſlands are near it, between which and the main there appears to be a paſſage of the breadth of two or three leagues.

Our navigators were kept at ſuch a diſtance from the continent by the rocks and breakers, that they had a very diſtant view of the coaſt between Halibut Iſland and Rock Point. They could, however, perceive the main land covered with ſnow, and particularly ſome hills, whoſe elevated tops towered above the clouds to a moſt ſtupendous height. On the moſt ſouth-weſterly of theſe hills was ſeen a volcano, which perpetually threw up immenſe columns of ſmoke. The volcano is at no great diſtance from the coaſt, and is in the latitude of 54 deg. 48 min. north. Its figure is a complete one, and the volcano is at the ſummit of it. Our voyagers obſerved, that, remarkable as it may appear, the wind, at the height to which the ſmoke of the volcano roſe, often moved in an oppoſite direction to what it did at ſea, even in a freſh gale.

Captain

Captain Cook takes occaſion to obſerve, that it was evident, from divers circumſtances, that the Ruſſians had ſome communication with the people of this ſpot, and particularly from the following. While our people were fiſhing they were viſited by a man in a ſmall canoe, who came from the large iſland. He had on a pair of green cloth breeches, and a jacket of black cloth under the frock of his own country. He had with him a grey fox ſkin and ſome fiſhing implements; alſo a bladder, in which was ſuppoſed to be oil, as he opened it, drank a mouthful, and then cloſed it up. His features reſembled thoſe of the natives of Prince William's Sound, but he was perfectly free from any kind of paint. His lip had been perforated in an oblique direction, though at that time he had not any ornament in it. Many of the words frequently uſed by the people of the Sound were repeated to him, but he did not appear to underſtand any of them, owing, as it was imagined, either to his ignorance of the dialect, or the erroneous pronunciation of our people.

From Halibut Iſland the ſhips proceeded in various directions, but moſtly to the ſouthward, till at length land preſented itſelf in every direction. That to the ſouth extended in a ridge of mountains to the ſouth-weſt, which our voyagers afterwards found to be an iſland called

OONALASHKA.

SECTION I.

Introductory Remarks. Interview with the Natives. Deſcription of their Perſons, Diſeaſes, Diſpoſitions, Dreſs and Employments. Food. Habitations. Method of producing Fire. Furniture. Utenſils. Tools. Canoes. Implements for Fiſhing and Hunting. Muſical Inſtruments.

IT is remarked by *Captain Cook*, from obſervations he made upon his firſt arrival at the Iſland of Oonalaſhka, that though ſuch of the natives as came off to the ſhips, and engaged in a little traffic with the crews, ſeemed remarkably ſhy, it was evident that they were not unacquainted with veſſels reſembling, in ſome degree, thoſe in which our voyagers ſailed. He adds, that their behaviour diſcovered a politeneſs he never obſerved before in rude and uncultivated nations.

On coming to anchor our people were viſited by ſeveral of the natives in ſeparate canoes. They bartered ſome fiſhing implements for tobacco. A young man among them overſet his canoe while he was along ſide of one of our boats. He was caught hold of by one of our people, but the canoe was taken up by another, and carried aſhore. In conſequence of this accident the youth was obliged to come into the ſhip, where he was invited into the cabin, and readily accepted the invitation, without any ſuprize or embarraſſment. He had on an upper garment, reſembling a ſhirt, made of the gut of a whale, or ſome other large ſea animal. Under this he had another of the ſame form, made of the ſkins of birds with the feathers on, curiouſly ſewed together; the feathered ſide placed next his ſkin. It was patched with ſeveral pieces of ſilk ſtuff, and his cap was ornamented with glaſs beads.

His clothes being wet he was furniſhed by our ſailors with ſome of their own, which he put on with as much readineſs as they could have done. From the behaviour of this youth, and that of ſeveral others, it evidently appeared, that theſe people were no ſtrangers to Europeans, and to many of their cuſtoms. Something in the ſhips, however, greatly excited their curioſity; for, ſuch as had not canoes to bring them off aſſembled on the neighbouring hills to have a view of them.

Soon after a number of the natives of both ſexes were ſeen on the ſhore, ſeated on the graſs, partaking of a meal of raw fiſh, which they ſeemed highly to reliſh.

The ſhips afterwards left their former ſtation, and came to anchor in the harbour called by the natives Sanganoodha. It is ſituated on the north ſide of Oonalaſhka, the latitude being 53 deg. 15 min. the longitude 193 deg. 30 min. and in the ſtrait which ſeparates this iſland from thoſe to the north. It is about a mile broad at the entrance, and runs in about four miles ſouth by weſt. It narrows towards the head, the breadth there not exceeding a quarter of a mile. Plenty of good water may be procured here, but not a piece of wood of any kind.

The natives when they came on board brought with them dried ſalmon and other fiſh, which the ſailors received in exchange for tobacco. Only a few days before every ounce of tobacco that remained in the ſhip had been diſtributed among them, and the quantity was not half ſufficient to anſwer their demands. Notwithſtanding this, ſo thoughtleſs and improvident a being is an Engliſh ſailor, that they were as profuſe in making their bargains as if they had arrived at a port in Virginia; by which means, in leſs than two days, the value of this commodity was raiſed on board above a thouſand per cent.

The men of Oonalaſhka are in general of the middling ſtature. Their faces are broad, their eyes ſmall, their noſes moſtly flat, their mouths wide, and their lips thick; their teeth are uneven, and often diſcoloured. Their hair is black, and rather long behind, but cut before ſo as to reach nearly to their eye-lids. The women are generally ſhorter than the men, and their features more agreeable. They wear their hair on their foreheads in the ſame manner as the men.

The Ruſſians that were here at this time never had any connection with their women on account of their not being Chriſtians. Our people, however, were leſs ſcrupulous; and ſome of them had reaſon to repent that the women of Oonalaſhka encouraged their addreſſes; for their health was injured by a diſtemper that is not wholly unknown here. The natives are alſo ſubject to the cancer, or a complaint of a ſimilar nature, which thoſe who are attacked by it are ſtudious to conceal. They do not appear to be long-lived. The Captain did not ſee a perſon, man or woman, whom he could ſuppoſe to be ſixty years of age; and obſerved very few who ſeemed to exceed fifty.

The native inhabitants of this iſland are, to all appearance, a very peaceable, inoffenſive race of people: they are exceeding cheerful and friendly among each other, and always treated the Europeans with great civility. In point of honeſty Captain Cook obſerved, they might ſerve as a pattern to the moſt civilized nations. But, from what he ſaw of their neighbours, with whom the Ruſſians are unconnected, he had ſome doubt whether this was their original diſpoſition: and was rather inclined to be of opinion, that it is the conſequence of their preſent ſtate of ſubjection. Indeed, if he did not miſunderſtand the Ruſſians, they had been under the neceſſity of making ſome ſevere examples before they could bring the iſlanders into tolerable order. If ſeverities were really inflicted at firſt, the beſt excuſe for them is, that they have produced the moſt beneficial effects: at preſent the greateſt harmony ſubſiſts between the Ruſſians and the natives. The latter have their own chiefs in each iſland, and ſeem to enjoy liberty and property without moleſtation. Whether they are tributaries to the Ruſſians or not he could never learn, but had ſome reaſon to ſuppoſe they are.

The dreſs of the women is a frock of [illegible] ſkins of ſeals ornamented with a kind of huſk or [illegible] encircling the upper part of the garment, and thence hanging down to the waiſt. They have the ſame ornament round the ſhoulders. They adorn their under lips with ſlips of narrow carved bone, wear ſtrings of beads at the noſe, as well as bunches of beads in their ears. They puncture their cheeks ſometimes with one, and ſometimes with two lines: theſe lines extend from the middle part of the cheeks to the ears. They decorate

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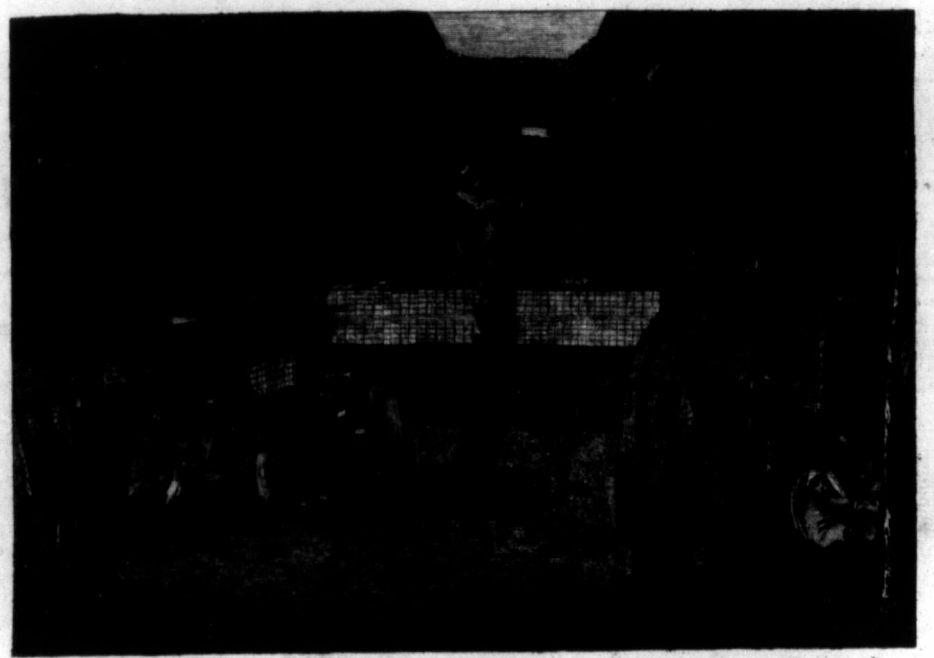
View of OONALASHKA from the INNER HARBOUR.

Engraved for BANKES's New System of GEOGRAPHY. Published by Royal Authority.

A MAN OF OONALASHKA.

Engraved for BANKES's New System of GEOGRAPHY Published by Royal Authority.

Canoes used by the Natives of Onalashka.

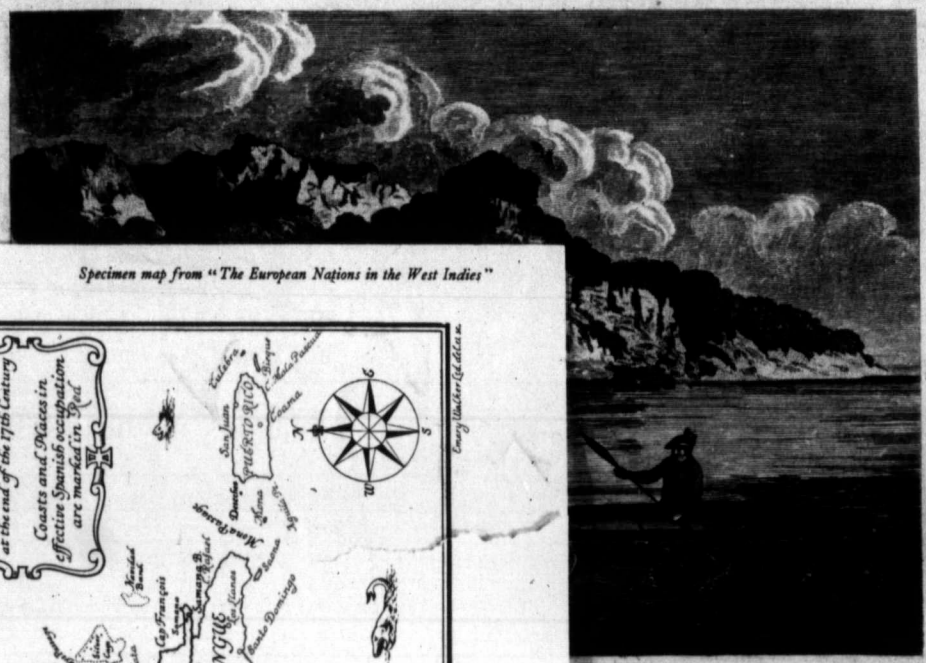


Hawkins sculp.

The Inside of a House in Onalashka.

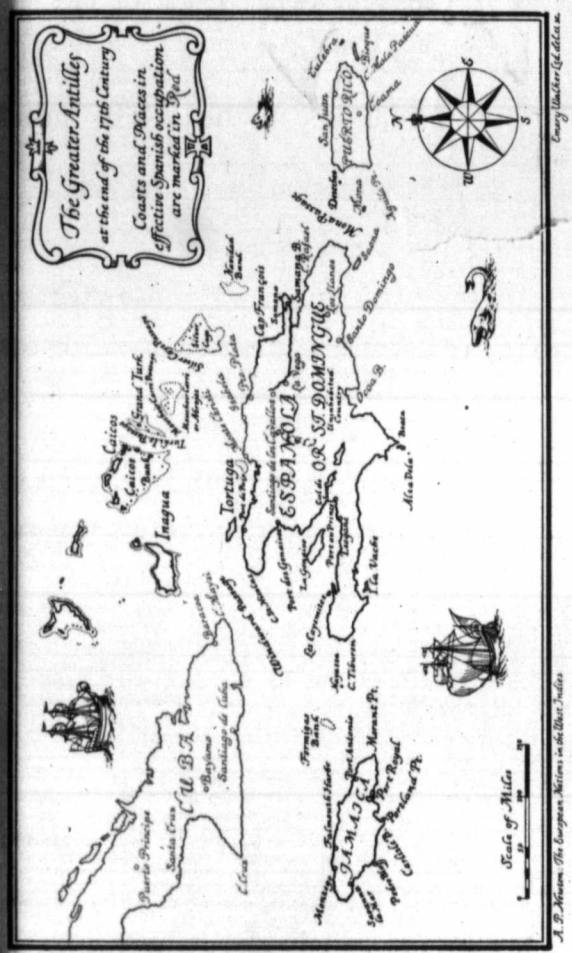
The Greater Antilles
at the end of the 17th Century
Coasts and Places in
effective Spanish occupation

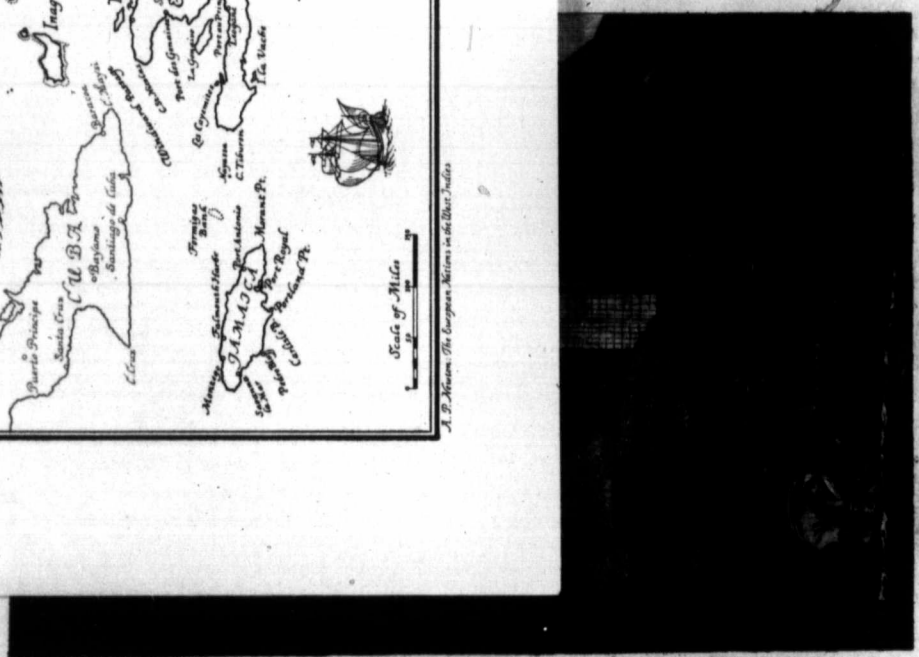
Engraved for BANKES's *New System of* GEOGRAPHY *Published by Royal Authority.*



Oonalashka.

Specimen map from "The European Nations in the West Indies"





Hawkins sculp.

The Inside of a House in Oonalashka.

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their chins in the ſame form. The practice of puncturing or tattowing is confined to the female ſex, who are not allowed to adopt it till they attain to a certain age. Their caps are of an oval form and compoſed of ſkin, feathers and hair, the whole of which are interwoven with ſingular ingenuity.

The dreſs of the men is a frock compoſed of the ſkins of birds ingeniouſly wrought together, with the feather ſide inwards. Their beſt dreſs is painted before and behind juſt below the ſhoulders and breaſt; and to the ſeams which go over the ſhoulders are faſtened rows of fur. They alſo wear fur upon other parts of the garment, the rows being about eight inches diſtant from each other. Over theſe frocks, when they go on the water, they wear an additional covering compoſed of gut, which water cannot penetrate. It has a hood to it which is drawn over the head. They have a kind of oval ſnouted cap made of wood, with a rim that admits the head. They dye their caps with green and other colours, and round the upper part of the rim they fix the long briſtles of ſome ſea animal, on which glaſs beads are ſtrung; and on the front is a ſmall image or two formed of bone.

The dreſs, in its general appearance, excepting the embelliſhments of the fur, bears a great reſemblance to a waggoner's frock.

Various are the employments of the women, ſuch as aſſiſting in drying fiſh in the ſummer, cutting graſs in autumn for the different purpoſes of making thatch, baſkets, mats and other utenſils, as well as gathering berries and roots.

All ſewing buſineſs is confined to the women. They are the ſhoe-makers, taylors, and boat-builders, or boat-coverers; for the men conſtruct the wooden frame over which the ſkins are ſewed. They manufacture mats, and baſkets of graſs, which are both ſtrong and beautiful. There is, indeed, a neatneſs and perfection in moſt of their work, that ſhews they are neither deficient in ingenuity or perſeverance. Inſtead of thread they uſe the fibres of ſinews, which they ſplit to the thickneſs required. Their needles being made of bone and without eyes renders the European needles a valuable article of traffic. They manufacture mats and baſkets, and indeed diſplay a neatneſs and perfection in moſt of their works.

The men are employed in ſummer in catching and drying fiſh, killing whales for the winter ſtock of proviſion, making and repairing canoes, and alſo in domeſtic matters. They converted the greateſt part of the tobacco they received by way of barter into ſnuff. The method was to reduce the tobacco into powder by rubbing it in a ſmall wooden bowl with a ſtick, to the upper end of which they faſtened ſeveral ſtones to render it heavy. When ſufficiently pulverized, it paſſed through a fine ſieve, and thus ended the proceſs.

Their food conſiſts of whales' fleſh, fiſh, birds, roots and berries. As the whales are generally taken at the approach of ſummer, they have time to dry the fleſh and prepare the blubber, which are principal parts of their winter proviſion. With the blubber they eat the dried halibut. This ſeems in ſome meaſure, to ſupply the want of bread. Sometimes they dip it in train oil, of which they are very fond. They likewiſe eat the dryed whales' fleſh with oil. They are not nice in cleaning their fiſh, and frequently eat them raw. Boiling and broiling were the chief methods of cookery practiſed among them. Some had ſmall braſs kettles, and ſome a ſubſtitute made of a flat ſtone with ſides of clay.

Captain Cook once happened to be preſent when the chief of this iſland made his dinner of the raw head of a large halibut, juſt caught. Before any part of it was given to the chief, two of his ſervants ate the gills, with no other dreſſing than ſqueezing out the ſlime. After this one of them having cut off the head of the fiſh took it to the ſea and waſhed it, then came with it, and ſeated himſelf by the chief; but not before he had pulled up ſome graſs, upon a part of which the head was placed, and the reſt was ſtrewed before the chief. He then cut large pieces off the cheeks, and put them within the reach of the chief, who ſwallowed them with great ſatisfaction. When he had finiſhed his meal the remainder of the head being cut in pieces were given to the ſervants, who tore off the meat with their teeth, and gnawed the bones like ſo many dogs.

They dreſs whales' fleſh in ſuch a manner as to make it very good eating; and they have a kind of pan-pudding of ſalmon roe, beaten up fine, and fried, which is a tolerable ſubſtitute for bread. They may, perhaps occaſionally, taſte real bread, or have a diſh in which flour is one of the ingredients. Except the juice of berries, which they generally ſip at their meals, they drink no other liquor than pure water.

Berries compoſe a principal part of their food. They eat them with train oil, which they think adds much to their flavour. Of roots the Saranne is the moſt agreeable eating: when boiled it becomes mealy, and reſembles a potatoe.

The following is their method of building: they dig in the ground an oblong pit, which rarely exceeds fifty feet in length, and twenty in breadth; but the dimenſions are in general ſmaller. Over this excavation they form the roof of wood, which they cover firſt with graſs, and then with earth, ſo that the external appearance reſembles a dung-hill. Near each end of the roof is left a ſquare opening, which admits the light; one of theſe openings being intended only for this purpoſe, and the other being alſo uſed to go in and out by, with the aſſiſtance of a ladder, or rather a poſt, in which ſteps are cut. In ſome of the houſes there is another entrance below, but this is rather uncommon. Round the ſides and ends of the habitations, the families, ſeveral of which dwell together, have their ſeparate apartments, where they ſleep, and ſit at work; not on benches, but in a ſort of concave trench, dug entirely round the inſide of the houſe, and covered with mats, ſo that this part is kept pretty clean and decent. The ſame cannot be ſaid of the middle of the houſe. For, though it is covered with dry graſs, it is a receptacle for every kind of dirt, and the place where the urine trough ſtands, the ſtench of which is by no means improved by raw hides, or leather, being almoſt continually ſteeped in it. Behind, and over the trench, they place the few effects they have in their poſſeſſion, ſuch as their mats, ſkins, and apparel.

No fire-place was ſeen in any one of their habitations; which are lighted, as well as heated, by lamps. Both ſexes often warm themſelves over one of theſe lamps by placing it between their legs under their garments, and ſitting thus over it for ſeveral minutes. Theſe people produce fire by colliſion and attrition; the firſt by ſtriking two ſtones againſt each other, on one of which a quantity of brimſtone has been previouſly rubbed. The latter method is performed by means of two pieces of wood, one of which is flat, and the other is a ſtick of the length of about a foot and a half. They preſs the pointed end of the ſtick upon the other piece, whirling it nimbly round as a drill, and thus fire is procured in a few minutes. This method is common in many countries. It is not only practiſed by theſe people, but alſo by the Kamtſchadales, the Greenlanders, the Otaheiteans, the New Hollanders, and the Brazilians, and probably by other nations.

Their houſehold furniture conſiſts chiefly of wooden bowls, troughs and platters, cans, buckets, and ſometimes a Ruſſian kettle or pot. Though theſe utenſils are made in a neat manner, no other tools were ſeen among them than the knife and the hatchet, that is, a ſmall piece of flat iron made like an adze, by fixing it into a crooked wooden handle.

The canoes in uſe among the natives are ſmaller than any of thoſe ſeen upon the coaſt of America, from which, however, they differ but little in their conſtruction. The head is forked, and the upper point of the fork projects without the under one, which is level with the ſurface of the water. It is remarkable that they ſhould thus conſtruct them, for the fork generally

catches hold of every thing that comes in the way; to prevent which, they fix a piece of ſmall ſtick from one point to the other. In other reſpects they build their canoes after the manner of thoſe of the Eſquimaux and Greenlanders; the frame being of ſlender laths, and the covering of the ſkins of ſeals. They are about 12 feet in length, 18 inches in breadth in the middle, and 12 or 14 inches in depth. They ſometimes carry two perſons, one of whom ſits in the ſeat, or round hole, which is nearly in the middle, and the other at about three feet diſtance. Round theſe holes is a rim or hoop of wood, about which gut ſkin is ſewed, which can be drawn together, or opened like a purſe, with leathern ſtrings fitted to the outer edge. The men ſit in this place, draw the ſkin tight about their bodies over the gut-frock, and bring the ends of the thongs, or purſe-ſtrings, over their ſhoulders. The ſleeves of their frocks are faſtened tight round their wriſts; and it being cloſe round their necks, and the hood being drawn over the head where the cap confines it, water cannot penetrate, either into the canoe, or to the body. In their ſingle canoes they make uſe of a double-bladed paddle, which is held with both hands in the middle, ſtriking the water firſt on one ſide, and then on the other, with a quick regular motion. Thus the canoe is impelled at a great rate, and in a direction perfectly ſtraight. In ſailing from Egoochſhak to Sanganoodha, though the ſhip went at the rate of ſeven miles an hour, two or three canoes kept pace with her.

Their implements for fiſhing and hunting are well contrived and executed, being of wood and bone, and, in ſome reſpects, reſembling thoſe uſed by the Greenlanders. The main difference is in the point of the miſſile dart, of which ſome were ſeen on this iſland not above an inch in length, whereas ſome of thoſe of the Greenlanders are about fourteen inches long. Their darts (which as well as their other inſtruments, are curious) are generally made of fir, and are about four feet in length. One end is formed of bone, into which, by means of a ſocket, another ſmall piece of bone, which is barbed, is fixed, but contrived in ſuch a manner, as to put in and take out without trouble. This is ſecured in the middle of the ſtick by a ſtrong, though thin, piece of twine, compoſed of ſinews. The bird, fiſh, or other animal, is no ſooner ſtruck, than the pointed bone ſlips out of the ſocket, but remains fixed in its body by means of the barb. The dart then ſerves as a float to trace the animal, and alſo contributes to fatigue it conſiderably, ſo that it is eaſily taken. They throw theſe darts by the aſſiſtance of a thin piece of wood, twelve or fourteen inches long. The middle of this is ſlightly hollowed, for the better reception of the weapon; and at the termination of the hollow, which does not extend to the end, is fixed a ſhort pointed piece of bone, to prevent the dart from ſlipping. The other extremity is furniſhed with a hole for the reception of the fore-finger; and the ſides are made to coincide with the other fingers and thumb, in order to graſp with the greater firmneſs. The natives throw theſe darts to the diſtance of 80 or 90 yards, with great force and dexterity. They are exceedingly expert in ſtriking fiſh, both in the ſea, and in rivers. They alſo uſe hooks and lines, nets and wears. The lines are formed of twiſted ſinews, and the hooks of bone.

The only muſical inſtrument ſeen here (if it deſerves the name) was a kind of drum, like that of the Tſchutſchi. It had only one head, compoſed of a part of the gut of a whale, ſtrained very tight over a frame. But notwithſtanding the diſtinguiſhed ſimplicity of this inſtrument, they greatly admire it, and it furniſhes them not only with amuſement, when individuals invite each other to their houſes, but it alſo highly contributes to the entertainment of the company at all public aſſemblies.

No offenſive, or even defenſive, weapon was ſeen among the natives, of which, it was naturally ſuppoſed, they had been deprived by the Ruſſians, for their own ſafety.

SECTION II.

Deſcription of the Country. Vegetables. Quadrupeds. Birds. Sea Animals. Fiſh. Repoſitories of the Dead. Intercourſe with the Ruſſians. Information received from them. Concluſive Remarks.

THIS iſland abounds in hills, ſome of which are very high. The low land, of which there is but little, is very marſhy, owing to the waters that are perpetually flowing from the hills. The ſoil on the tops of the hills is about two feet deep, under which there is a layer of ſmall ſtones. The ſides of the hills are rich; and the marſhy low ground a fine, deep, black ſoil.

As the excurſions and obſervations of our voyagers were confined to the ſea-coaſt, they had not an opportunity of obtaining an extenſive or particular knowledge of the animal or vegetable productions of the country. Among the plants found here are the plantain, marſh-marigold, violet, ſaxifrage, ſorrel, dock, geranium, dandelion, colt's-foot, ſaranne, wild cellery, a kind of creſſes, and a ſpecies of muſtard, all of which afforded our people excellent ſallads, and were very agreeable in ſoups. There are berries of different ſpecies, as cran-berries, hurtle-berries, bramble-berries, heath-berries, &c. There was a berry here unknown to the naturaliſts: it had ſomewhat of the taſte of a ſloe, but differed from it in every other reſpect. When eaten in any conſiderable quantity, it proved very aſtringent. Brandy might be diſtilled from it. *Captain Cook* endeavoured to preſerve ſome, but they fermented, and became as ſtrong as if they had been ſteeped in ſpirits. The low land is generally covered with a long coarſe graſs.

The natives are indebted to the ſea for all the wood which they uſe for building and other neceſſary purpoſes; as there is not a tree to be ſeen growing on the iſland, or upon the neighbouring coaſt of the continent.

The ſeeds of plants have been conveyed, by various means, from one part of the world to another; even to iſlands lying in the midſt of extenſive oceans, and far diſtant from any other lands. It is, therefore, remarkable, that there are no trees growing on this part of the American continent, or upon any of the adjacent iſles. They are doubtleſs as well ſituated for receiving ſeeds, by the various ways of conveyance, as thoſe coaſts which have plenty of wood. Nature has, perhaps, denied to ſome ſoils the power of raiſing trees, without the aſſiſtance of art. With reſpect to the drift-wood upon the ſhores of theſe iſlands, there is no doubt of its coming from America. For though there may be none on the neighbouring coaſt, a ſufficient quantity may grow farther up the country, which may be broke looſe by torrents in the ſpring, and brought down to the ſea; and not a little may be conveyed from the woody coaſts, though ſituated at a more conſiderable diſtance.

The quadrupeds ſeen here were the artic fox, and a ſpecies of marmotte without ears, and having a ſhort tail. The natives call them *anump-cho*. Here are no deer, or any domeſtic animals, not even dogs.

Water fowls are neither found here in ſuch numbers, or in ſuch variety, as in the northern parts of the Atlantic Ocean. However, there are ſome in theſe parts that the naturaliſts did not recollect to have ſeen in other countries, particularly the *alca monochroa* of Steller, and a black and white duck, which they judged to be different from the ſtone-duck that Kraſcheninikoff has deſcribed in his Hiſtory of Kamtſchatka. All the other birds mentioned by this author were ſeen, except ſome which were obſerved near the ice; and the greateſt part of theſe, if not all, have been deſcribed by Martin, in his voyage to Greenland. *Captain Cook* obſerves, it is ſomewhat extraordinary, that penguins, which are ſo frequently met with in many parts of the world, ſhould not be found in this ſea. Albatroſſes are extremely ſcarce too. The land birds ſeen were the bull-finch, the

the wood-pecker, the yellow-finch, titmouſe, ſwallow, and wren.

Seals, and the tribe of ſea animals, are not ſo numerous in this as in many other ſeas. Sea-horſes are, indeed, to be found in prodigious numbers about the ice; and the ſea-otter is ſcarce any where to be met with but in this ſea. An animal was ſometimes ſeen by our people that blew after the manner of whales. It had a head reſembling that of a ſeal. It was larger than that animal, and its colour was white, with dark ſpots interſperſed. This was, perhaps the *manati*, or ſea-cow.

The fiſh that moſt abound here are ſalmon, rock-cod, trout, and halibut. About the middle, and to the end, of October, the inhabitants catch cod. Whales, porpoiſes, and grampuſes, are likewiſe taken here.

There are few other inſects here beſides muſketos, and few reptiles, except lizards.

Native ſulphur was obſerved among the people of this iſland, but our people could not learn where they procured it. They alſo found ochre, and a ſtone that affords a purple colour; beſides another that gives a good green. This laſt, in its natural ſtate, is of a greyiſh green hue, coarſe, and heavy. It readily diſſolves in oil; but when it is put into water, it altogether loſes its properties. The ſtones about the ſhore and hills were in no inſtance remarkable.

The Oonalaſhkans inter their dead on the tops of hills, and raiſe over the grave a little hillock. One of the natives, who attended *Captain Cook* in a walk into the country, pointed out ſeveral of theſe repoſitories of the dead. There was one of them by the ſide of a road, that had a heap of ſtones over it; and all who paſſed it added a ſtone to the heap. In the country were ſeen ſeveral ſtone hillocks, that ſeemed to have been artificially raiſed. Some of them were to appearance, of great antiquity.

Our countrymen could derive no knowledge reſpecting either the religion or diverſions of theſe people, having ſeen nothing that could give them an inſight into either.

An extraordinary incident brought on an intercourſe between our officers and the Ruſſians reſident at Oonalaſhka. *Captain Cook* received, by the hands of a native a few days after he came to anchor in Sanganoodha Bay, a very ſingular preſent. It was a rye loaf, or rather a pie in the form of a loaf, as it encloſed ſome ſalmon, well ſeaſoned with pepper. This man had brought a ſimilar preſent for Captain Clerke, and a note for each of the captains, written in a character which they did not underſtand. It was natural to imagine that theſe two preſents were from ſome Ruſſians then in the neighbourhood, and therefore the captains ſent, by the ſame meſſenger, to theſe unknown friends, a few bottles of rum, wine, and porter, which they ſuppoſed would be highly acceptable. *Captain Cook* alſo ſent with the native the corporal of the marines, an intelligent man, for the purpoſe of gaining farther information, with orders, that if he met with any Ruſſians, he ſhould endeavour to make them underſtand, that the ſtrangers were Engliſhmen, the friends and allies of their nation.

The corporal returned with three Ruſſian ſeamen, or furriers, who, with ſeveral others, reſided at Egoochſhac, where they had ſome ſtore-houſes, a dwelling-houſe, and a ſloop of about thirty tons burthen. One of theſe Ruſſians was either maſter or mate of this veſſel. They were all three intelligent, well-behaved men, and extremely ready to give our people all the information they could deſire.

They appeared to have a perfect knowledge of the attempts which their countrymen had made to navigate the Frozen Ocean, and of the diſcoveries that had been made from Kamtſchatka, by Beering, Tſcherikoff, and Spangenberg. Never was greater reſpect paid to the memory of any eminent perſon, than by theſe men to that of Beering.

The trade in which they are engaged is very advantageous, and its being undertaken and extended to the eaſtward of Kamtſchatka was the immediate reſult of the ſecond voyage of that diſtinguiſhed navigator, whoſe misfortunes proved the ſource of much private benefit to individuals, and of public utility to the Ruſſian empire. And yet, if his diſtreſſes had not accidentally carried him to the iſland which bears his name, where he ended his life, and from whence the remainder of his ſhip's crew brought back ſpecimens of its valuable furs, the Ruſſians would probably have undertaken no future voyages, which could lead them to make diſcoveries in this ſea, towards the American coaſt. Indeed after this time, their miniſtry ſeem to have paid leſs attention to this object; and for what diſcoveries have been ſince made, the world is principally indebted to the enterprizing ſpirit of private merchants, encouraged, however, by the ſuperintending care of the court of Peterſburgh.

The three Ruſſians departed perfectly ſatisfied with the reception they had met with, and promiſed to return in a few days, and bring with them a chart of the iſlands ſituate between Kamtſchatka and Oonalaſhka.

While *Captain Cook* was at a village not far from Sanganhoodha, a Ruſſian landed there, who proved to be the principal perſon among his countrymen in this and the adjacent iſles. His name was Erafim Gregorioff Sin Iſmyloff. When he came on board the Reſolution, *Captain Cook* found him very well acquainted with the geography of thoſe parts, and with all the diſcoveries which had been made in this quarter by the Ruſſians.

Not only Iſmyloff, but alſo the other Ruſſians affirmed that they were totally unacquainted with the American continent to the northward, and that no Ruſſian had ſeen it of late years. They called it by the ſame name which Mr. Stæhlin has erroneouſly affixed to his large iſland, that is, Alaſchka.

The Ruſſians, as our people were informed, have made ſeveral attempts to gain a footing upon that part of the North American continent that lies contiguous to Oonalaſhka and the adjacent iſlands, but have conſtantly been repulſed by the inhabitants, whom they repreſented as a very treacherous people. They made mention of two or three captains, or chief men, who had been murdered by them; and ſome of the Ruſſians ſhewed wounds, which they declared they had received there. They alſo informed our people, that, in the year 1773, an expedition had been undertaken into the Frozen Ocean in ſledges, over the ice, to three large iſlands, that are ſituate oppoſite the mouth of the river Kovyma.

A few days after their promiſe, the three Ruſſians whom the corporal had brought, returned with the charts before-mentioned. Theſe charts were two in number, were both manuſcripts, and bore every mark of authenticity. One of them comprehended the Penſhinſkian Sea; the coaſt of Tartary, as low as the latitude of 41 deg. north; the Kurile Iſlands, and the peninſula of Kamtſchatka. The other chart comprehended all the diſcoveries that the Ruſſians had made to the eaſtward of Kamtſchatka towards America.

The latitude of the coaſt diſcovered by Beering and Tſcherikoff, particularly that part of it diſcovered by the latter, differs conſiderably from Mr. Muller's chart.

According to Iſmyloff's account, neither the number or ſituation of the iſlands which are diſperſed between 32 deg. and 55 deg. of latitude, in the ſpace between Kamtſchatka and America, is properly aſcertained. He ſtruck out a third of them, aſſuring *Capt. Cook* that they did not exiſt; and he conſiderably altered the ſituation of others, which, he ſaid, was neceſſary from the obſervations which he himſelf had made; and there was no reaſon to entertain a doubt about this. As theſe iſlands are nearly under the ſame parallel, different navigators, miſled by their different reckonings, might eaſily miſtake one iſland, or cluſter of iſlands, for another, and imagine they had made a new diſcovery, when they had only found old ones, in a poſition ſomewhat

what different from that which their former viſitors had aſſigned to them.

The Iſles of St. Theodore, St. Stephen, St. Abraham, St. Macarius, Seduction Iſland, and ſeveral others which are repreſented in Mr. Muller's chart, were not to be found in this now produced. Nay, Iſmyloff, and the other Ruſſians, aſſured *Captain Cook*, that they had been frequently ſought for without effect. Nevertheleſs, it is difficult to believe that Mr. Muller could place them in his chart without ſome authority. *Captain Cook*, however, confiding in the teſtimony of theſe people, whom he thought competent witneſſes, omitted them in his chart, and made ſuch corrections reſpecting the other iſlands, as he had reaſon to think were neceſſary.

The American continent is here called, by the Ruſſians, as well as by the iſlanders, Alaſchka; which appellation, though it properly belongs only to that part which is contiguous to an iſland called Ooneemak, is made uſe of by them when ſpeaking of the American continent in general.

This was all the intelligence *Captain Cook* got from theſe people reſpecting the geography of this part of the globe; and, perhaps, all the information they were able to give. For they repeatedly aſſured him, that they knew of no other iſlands beſides thoſe which were repreſented upon this chart, and that no Ruſſian had ever viſited any part of the American continent to the northward, except that which is oppoſite the country of the Tſchutſki.

Having contracted an acquaintance with theſe Ruſſians, our officers viſited their ſettlement on the iſland. It conſiſted of a dwelling-houſe and two ſtore houſes. Beſides the Ruſſians, there was a number of the Kamtſchadales, and of the Oonalaſhkans, as ſervants to the former. Some other natives of this iſland, who appeared to be independent of the Ruſſians, lived at the ſame place. Such of them as belonged to the Ruſſians were all of the male ſex; and they are either taken, or purchaſed, from their parents when young. There were at this time about twenty of theſe, who could be conſidered in no other light than as children. They all reſided in the ſame houſe; the Ruſſians at the upper end, the Kamtſchadales in the middle, and the Oonalaſhkans at the lower end.

Captain Cook, at the cloſe of his account of this iſland, remarks, that though the reſemblance of the inhabitants of his north-weſtern ſide of America, to thoſe of the Eſquimaux and Greenlanders, in various particulars of perſon, dreſs, weapons, canoes, and the like, could not but attract his attention, he was much leſs ſtruck with this, than with the affinity ſubſiſting between the dialects of the Greenlanders of Eſquimaux, and thoſe of Oonalaſhka. He obſerves, that, with reſpect to the words which were collected by our people on this ſide of America, too much ſtreſs is not to be laid upon their being accurately repreſented; for after the death of Mr. Anderſon, there were few who took any great degree of pains about ſuch matters; and they had often found that the ſame word, written down by two or more perſons, from the mouth of the ſame native, differed conſiderably, on being compared together. Nevertheleſs he affirms, there is enough to authorize this judgement, that there is great reaſon to ſuppoſe that all theſe nations are of the ſame extraction; and if that be the caſe, there is a little doubt of there being a northern communication by ſea, between the weſtern ſide of America, and the eaſtern ſide, through Baffin's Bay; which communication, however, is, perhaps, effectually ſhut up againſt ſhips, by ice and other obſtructions; ſuch, at leaſt, was *Captain Cook's* opinion.

Having thus deſcribed every particular obſervation made by *Captain Cook* relative to the iſland of Oonalaſhka, together with the manners, cuſtoms, and ſingular ceremonies of the inhabitants, we ſhall now proceed to his account of Nootka, or King George's Sound, which he viſited in his laſt voyage, and of which he gives the following account:

NOOTKA, OR KING GEORGE'S SOUND.

SECTION I.

Diſcovery. Firſt Interview with the Natives. Curious Ceremonies previous to their coming on board. Trade eſtabliſhed. Articles of Traffic. European Trade engroſſed by the Natives of ſuperior power.

CAPTAIN COOK, in his laſt voyage, being in the latitude of 30 deg. north, obſerves, that tho' it was then the winter ſeaſon the people on board only began to feel a ſenſation of cold in the mornings and evenings, and he makes this remark as a proof of the equal and durable influence of the heat of the ſun at all times to 30 degrees on each ſide the equinoctial line.

When they reached the latitude of 49 deg. 29 min. north, numbers of lofty mountains preſented themſelves to view, the ſummits of which were covered with ſnow. The vallies between them and the land towards the coaſt were covered with tall ſtraight trees that appeared like a vaſt foreſt. Between two Points, called by Captain Cook, Point Breakers and Woody Point, a large Bay is formed, which he called Hope Bay, hoping, as he ſaid, to find in it a good harbour, and the event proved he was not miſtaken.

As ſoon as they approached an inlet to the north-eaſt corner of the bay, they perceived the coaſt to be inhabited; and three canoes came off to the ſhip, in one of which were two men, in another ſix, and in the other ten. Advancing pretty near, a perſon ſtood up in one of the two laſt, and ſpoke for a conſiderable time, inviting our people, as they ſuppoſedby his geſtures, to go aſhore; and, at the ſame time continued ſtrewing feathers towards them. Some of his companions alſo threw a red powder in the ſame manner.

The perſon who was the orator on this occaſion was cloathed with the ſkin of ſome animal, and held ſomething in each hand which rattled as he ſhook it. At length, grown weary with his repeated exhortations, of which they could not comprehend a word, he became quiet; and the others, in their turn, had ſomething to ſay; but their ſpeeches were neither ſo long, or ſo vehement as that of the other. The hair of two or three of theſe people was ſtrewed over with ſmall white feathers; and that of others with large ones, ſtuck into different parts.

The tumultuous noiſe having ceaſed, they lay at a ſmall diſtance from the ſhip, converſing together with much eaſe and compoſure, without ſhewing the leaſt diſtruſt or ſurprize. Some of them roſe occaſionally, and ſaid ſomething aloud, after the manner of their firſt harangues; and one, in particular, ſung a moſt agreeable air, accompanied with a degree of melody and ſoftneſs; the word *kaela* being frequently repeated as the burden of the ſong.

When the ſhips came cloſer to the ſhore, the canoes began to viſit them in great numbers, there being, at one time, no leſs than 32 of them about them, containing from three to ſeven or eight perſons each, and of both ſexes. Several of theſe alſo ſtood up and ſpake aloud, uſing the ſame geſtures as the firſt viſitors. One canoe particularly attracted obſervation, by a peculiar head, which had a bird's eye, and an enormous large beak, painted on it. The perſon who was in it, and who appeared to be a chief, was equally remarkable for his ſingular appearance, having a large quantity of feathers hanging from his head, and being painted or ſmeared in a very extraordinary manner. In his hand he had a carved bird of wood, of the ſize of a pigeon, with which he often rattled, and was equally vociferous in his harangue, which was accompanied with many expreſſive geſtures. Though theſe viſitors were ſo peaceable, that they could not be ſuſpected of any hoſtile intention, not any of them could be prevailed upon to come on board. They were ready, however, to part with any thing they had, and received whatever

was

was offered them in exchange, but were more ſolicious after iron than all of our other articles of commerce, appearing to be no ſtrangers to the uſe of that valuable metal.

Some ceremonies took place among theſe people previous to their coming on board. They paddled, with their utmoſt ſtrength and activity, round both the ſhips; a chief, all this time, ſtanding up with a ſpear in his hand, and ſpeaking, or rather bawling, moſt vociferouſly. The face of this orator was ſometimes covered with a maſk, repreſenting either a human countenance, or that of ſome other animal; and, inſtead of a ſpear, he had a kind of rattle in his hand. Having made this ceremonious circuit round the ſhip, they would come along-ſide, and then begin to traffic with our people. Frequently, indeed, they would firſt entertain them with a ſong, in which their whole company joined, and produced a very agreeable harmony.

When the ſhips came to anchor they were ſurrounded by canoes filled with the inhabitants, a reciprocal trade was commenced, and conducted with the ſtricteſt harmony and integrity on both ſides. Their articles of commerce were the ſkins of various animals, ſuch as bears, ſea-otters, wolves, foxes, deer, racoons, martins, and pole-cats. They alſo produced garments made of ſkins; and another kind of cloathing, fabricated from the bark of a tree, or a plant reſembling hemp. Beſides theſe articles, they had bows, arrows, ſpears, fiſh-hooks, various kinds of inſtruments, wooden vizors repreſenting horrid figures, a ſort of woollen ſtuff, carved work, beads, and red ochre; alſo ſeveral little ornaments of thin braſs and iron, reſembling a horſe-ſhoe, which they wore pendant at their noſes. They had likewiſe ſeveral pieces of iron fixed to handles, ſomewhat reſembling chiſſels. From their being in poſſeſſion of theſe metals, it was natural for our people to inſer, that they muſt either have been viſited before by people of ſome civilized nation, or had connections with thoſe on their own continent, who had ſome communication with them.

But the moſt extraordinary articles which they offered to ſale were human ſkulls and hands, with ſome of the fleſh remaining on them, which they acknowledged they had been feeding on; and ſome of them, indeed, bore evident marks of their having been upon the fire. From this circumſtance it was but too apparent, that the horrid cuſtom of devouring their enemies is practiſed here as much as at New-Zealand, and other South Sea iſlands. There is too much reaſon, from their bringing to ſale human ſkulls and bones, to inſer, that they treat their enemies with a degree of brutal cruelty; yet this circumſtance rather marks a general agreement of character with that of almoſt every tribe of uncivilized men, in every age, and in every part of the globe. For the various articles they brought, they received in exchange, knives, chiſſels, nails, looking-glaſſes, buttons, pieces of iron and tin, or any kind of metal. They had not much inclination for glaſs beads, and rejected every kind of cloth.

Such of the natives as viſited our people daily, were the moſt beneficial to them; for, after diſpoſing of their trifles, they employed themſelves in fiſhing, and they always pertook of what they caught. They alſo procured for them a conſiderable quantity of good animal oil, which they brought in bladders. Some, indeed, attempted to cheat, by mixing water with the oil; and, once or twice, they ſo far impoſed upon them, as to fill their bladders with water only. But it was better to wink at theſe impoſitions, than ſuffer them to produce a quarrel; for the European articles of traffic chiefly conſiſted of trifles, and it was found difficult to produce a conſtant ſupply even of theſe. Beads, and ſuch like toys, of which ſome were remaining, were not highly eſtimated. Metal was principally commanded by the natives; and braſs had now ſupplanted iron, being ſought after with ſuch eagerneſs, that before the ſhips left the ſound, hardly a bit of it was to be found in them, except that conſtituted a part of the neceſſary inſtruments. Suits of cloaths were ſtripped of their buttons, bureaus of their furniture, kettles, canniſters, and candleſticks; all went to rack; ſo that they procured a greater variety of things than any other nation our people had viſited.

A party of ſtrangers, in ſeven or eight canoes, came into the cove, and, after looking at the ſtrangers for ſome time, retired. It was apprehended that their old friends, who, at this time, were more numerous about the ſhips than the new viſitors, would not ſuffer them to have any dealings with our people. It was evident, indeed, that the principal natives engroſſed them entirely to themſelves; and that they carried on a traffic with more diſtant tribes in thoſe articles they had received; for they frequently diſappeared for four or five days together, and returned with freſh cargoes of curioſities and ſkins, which our people were ſo paſſionately fond of, that they always came to a good market. Our people were convinced of this on many other occaſions. Nay, even among thoſe who lived in the ſound, the weaker were often obliged to ſubmit to the ſtronger party, and were plundered of every thing, without even attempting to make any reſiſtance.

SECTION II.

Viſits from and to the Natives of the different Parts of the Sound, and Inſtances of their Civility. Treatment received from an inhoſpitable Chief. Groundleſs Apprehenſions of an Attack. Injurious Theſts. Claims of the Natives for the Produce of the Country.

THE natives were not diſcouraged, by ſome bad weather that happened, from making our people daily viſits; and, in their ſituation, ſuch viſits were very acceptable. They frequently brought them a ſupply of fiſh, when they were unable to catch any with a hook and line; and they had not a convenient place to draw a net. The fiſh they brought were ſmall cod, and a ſmall kind of bream, or ſardine.

The officers received a viſit, in the evening, from a tribe of natives not ſeen before, and who, in general, made a better appearance than their old friends. They were conducted into the cabbin, but there was not an object that engaged their attention: all novelties were looked on with indifference, except by a very few, who ſhewed a certain degree of curioſity.

When the moſt important buſineſs of the ſhip was finiſhed, *Captain Cook* ſet out to ſurvey the ſound, and going firſt to the weſt point, he diſcovered a large village, and, before it, a very ſnug harbour, with from nine to four fathom water. The inhabitants, who were numerous, received him with great courteſy, every one preſſing him to enter his apartment; for ſeveral families have habitations under the ſame roof. He politely accepted the invitations; and the hoſpitable friends whom he viſited teſtified every mark of civility and reſpect.

Captain Cook, proceeding up the weſt-ſide of the ſound, for near three miles, ſaw ſeveral iſlands, ſo ſituated as to form ſome convenient harbours.

Proceeding ſome diſtance farther he found the ruins of a village. The framings of the houſes remained ſtanding, but the boards or roofs were taken away. Behind this deſerted village was a ſmall plain, covered with large pine trees. This was, indeed, ſingular, as moſt of the elevateſt ground on this ſide of the ſound appeared rather naked.

On the eaſt-ſide of the ſound the Captain found what he had before imagined, that it was an iſland under which the ſhips lay, and that many ſmaller ones lay ſcattered on the weſt ſide of it. Upon the main land, oppoſite the north end of the iſland, he obſerved a village, and landed there; but he was not ſo politely received by the inhabitants, as by thoſe of the other village he had viſited. This cold reception was occaſioned by one ſurly chief, who would not ſuffer the Captain to enter their houſes, but followed him wherever he went,

making expreſſive ſigns that he was impatient for him to be gone. The Captain attempted, but in vain, to ſooth him with preſents; for though he did not refuſe them, he continued the ſame kind of behaviour. But notwithſtanding this treatment from the inhoſpitable chief, ſome of the young women expeditiouſly apparelled themſelves in their beſt, aſſembled in a body, and gave him a hearty welcome to the village, by joining in an agreeable ſong. Evening now drawing on, the Captain proceeded for the ſhips round the north end of the iſland. When he returned on board, he was informed that, in his abſence, ſome ſtrangers, in two or three large canoes, had made a viſit to the ſhips, from whom our people underſtood by ſigns, that they had come from the ſouth-eaſt. They brought with them ſeveral garments, ſkins, and other articles, which they bartered for ſome of ours. But the moſt remarkable circumſtance was, that two ſilver table-ſpoons were purchaſed of them by our people, which appeared to be of Spaniſh manufacture. They were worn round the neck of one of theſe viſitors by way of ornament.

The day following a party of the natives from the ſouthward advanced towards the ſhips, all ſtanding up in their canoes, and began to ſing. Some of their ſongs were ſlow and ſolemn, and in which they were joined by the whole body: others were in quicker time, and their notes were regularly accompanied by the motions of their hands, their paddles beating in concert on the ſides of the canoes; and they, at the ſame time, exhibited the moſt expreſſive geſtures. They remained ſilent, for a few ſeconds, after the concluſion of each ſong, and then began again, frequently pronouncing the word *hooee* as a kind of chorus.

Having thus favoured our people with a ſpecimen of their muſic, with which they were highly entertained for half an hour, they came nearer the ſhips, and barterer with them. They now perceived that ſome of their old friends from the ſound were among them, who managed for the ſtrangers in the traffic carried on between them and our people.

Soon after our people had occaſion for a very ſerious alarm. The party who were employed on ſhore, in cutting wood and filling water, obſerved that the natives, in all quarters, were arming themſelves in the beſt manner they were able; and that thoſe who had not proper weapons, were collecting ſticks and ſtones. Hearing this, they thought it neceſſary to arm alſo, but reſolved to act upon the defenſive only. *Captain Cook* ordered all the workmen to repair to the rock on which the obſervatories had been placed, leaving the ſuppoſed enemy in poſſeſſion of the ground where they had aſſembled, which was within about 100 yards of the Reſolution's ſtern. The danger, however, was only imaginary: for theſe hoſtile preparations were directed againſt a body of their own countrymen, who were advancing to attack them; and when they perceived the apprehenſions of our people, they exerted their beſt endeavours to convince them that this was really the caſe. People were obſerved looking out on both ſides of the cove, and canoes were frequently diſpatched between them and the main body. The adverſe party, on board about a dozen large canoes, at length drew up in line of battle, off the ſouth point of the cove, a negociation for the reſtoration of peace having been commenced. In conducting the treaty, ſeveral people in canoes paſſed between the two parties, and ſome debates enſued. At length the matter in diſpute appeared to be adjuſted; but the ſtrangers were not permitted to approach the ſhips, or to have any intercourſe or dealings with our people.

Our people were, no doubt, the occaſion of the quarrel; the ſtrangers, perhaps, inſiſting on having a right of ſharing in the advantages of a trade with them, and their firſt friends reſolving to engroſs them entirely to themſelves.

If they at firſt had apprehended that our people meant to be hoſtile, their fears were now removed; for they ventured on board the ſhips, and mixed with them with the utmoſt freedom and familarity.

Our people found, after a ſhort intercourſe with the natives, that they were as much addicted to theft as any they had met with during the voyage; and having ſharp inſtruments in their poſſeſſion, they could eaſily cut a hook from a tackle, or a piece of iron from a rope. Beſides other articles, they loſt ſeveral hooks in this manner, one of which weighed between twenty and thirty pounds. They ſtripped the boats of all the iron that was worth taking away, though ſome of the crew were always left in them as a guard. They were, indeed, ſo dextrous in effecting their purpoſes, that one fellow would contrive to amuſe our people at one end of the boat, while another was forcing off the iron-work at the other. If any article that had been ſtolen was immediately miſſed, the thief was eaſily detected, as they were fond of impeaching each other. But the prize was always reluctantly given up by the guilty perſon; and ſometimes compulſive means were obliged to be exerciſed for that purpoſe.

Theſe viſitors being gone, the Captains Cook and Clerk went with two boats to the village at the weſt point, where Captain Cook had been two days before, and had obſerved that plenty of graſs was to be had near it; and it was neceſſary to get a ſupply of this for the few remaining goats and ſheep which are ſtill on board. They experienced the ſame welcome reception that the Captain had met with before; and ſoon after they were aſhore, *Captain Cook* ordered ſome of his people to begin cutting, not imagining that the natives would object to their furniſhing themſelves with what could not be of any uſe to them, though eſſentially neceſſary for the Europeans. In this, however, he was miſtaken; for as ſoon as the men began cutting the graſs, ſome of the inhabitants would not permit them to proceed, ſaying, "*makook*," which ſignified that they muſt buy it firſt. The Captain, at this time, was in one of the houſes, but, hearing of this, he repaired immediately to the field, where he found about a dozen claimants of different parts of the graſs that grew on the premiſes. He treated with them for it, and having complied with the terms of his purchaſe, thought his men had now full liberty to cut whatever they pleaſed. Here he was again miſtaken; for he had ſo liberally paid the firſt pretended proprietors, that freſh demands were made from others; ſo that it almoſt appeared that every ſingle blade of graſs had a ſeparate owner; and ſo many of them were to be ſatisfied, that his pockets preſently became empty. When they were, however, convinced that he had nothing more to give, they ceaſed to be importunate, and the men were permitted to cut where they pleaſed, and as much as they pleaſed.

Captain Cook obſerves, that he never met with any uncivilized nation, or tribe, who poſſeſſed ſuch ſtrict notions of their having an excluſive property in the produce of their country, as the inhabitants of this ſound. They even wanted our people to pay for the wood and water that was carried on board. Had the Captain been preſent when theſe demands were made, he would doubtleſs have complied with them; but the workmen thought differently, and paid little or no attention to ſuch claims. The natives, thinking they were determined to pay nothing, at length ceaſed to apply. But they frequently took occaſion to remind them, that they had given the wood and water out of friendſhip.

SECTION III.

Perſons, Dreſs, Diſpoſition, and Language. Political and Religious Inſtitutions of the Natives. Number of Inhabitants.

THE natives of this ſound are low in ſtature, but their perſons are not proportionably ſlender, being uſually pretty plump, though not muſcular. Their ſoft fleſhineſs, however, ſeems never to ſwell into corpulence; and many of the older people are very lean. Moſt of the men have round full viſages, which are ſometimes broad, with high prominent cheeks. Above

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GRAPHY.

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III.

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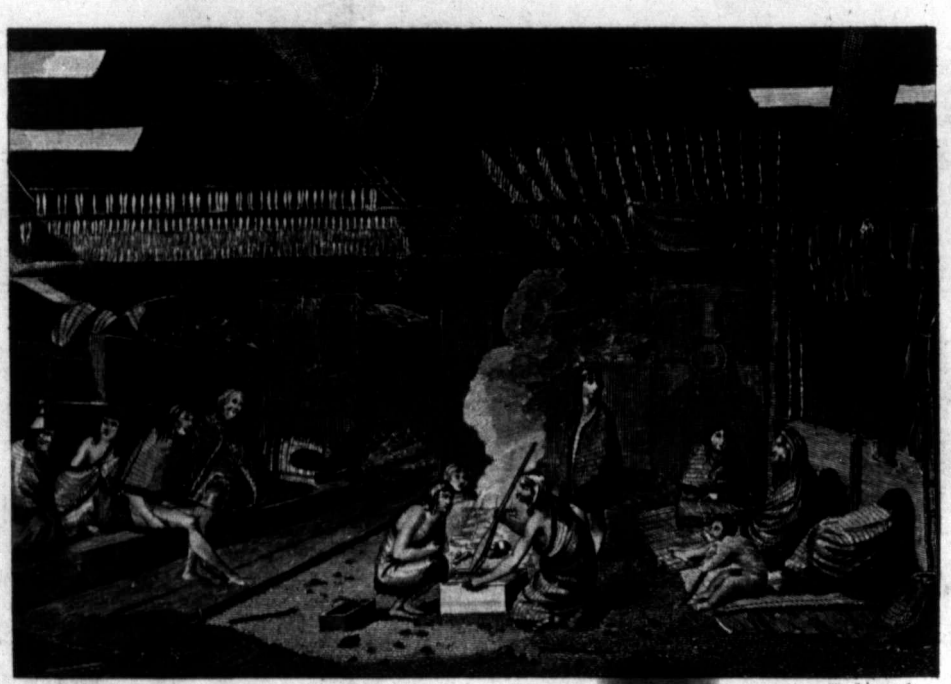
Engraved for BANKES's *New System of* GEOGRAPHY *Published by Royal Authority.*

Habitations in NOOTKA SOUND *North America.*



Hawkins ſculp.

The INSIDE *of a* HABITATION *in Nootka Sound.*

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these the face frequently appears fallen in quite across between the temples. The nose flattens at its base, has wide nostrils, and a rounded point. The forehead is low; the eyes small, black, and languishing; the mouth round, the lips thick, and the teeth regular and well set, but not remarkable for their whiteness.

Many of the men have no beards at all, and others only a small thin one upon the point of the chin. This does not arise from an original deficiency of hair on that part, but from their plucking it out by the roots; for those who do not destroy it have not only considerable beards on every part of the chin, but also whiskers, or mustachias, running from the upper lip to the lower jaw obliquely downwards. Their eye-brows are also scanty and narrow; but they have abundance of hair on the head, which is strong, black, strait, and lank. Their necks are short; and their arms are rather clumsy, having nothing of beauty or elegance in their formation. The limbs, in all of them, are small in proportion to the other parts; besides they are crooked and ill-formed, having projecting ancles, and large feet, which are aukwardly shaped. The latter defect seems to be occasioned, in a great measure, by their sitting so continually on their hams or knees.

Their colour cannot properly be ascertained, their bodies being encrusted with paint and nastiness; though when the paint as been carefully rubbed off, the skin was little inferior in whiteness, to that of the Europeans, but of that palish cast which distinguishes the inhabitants of our southern nations. Some of them, when young, appear rather agreeable, when compared to the generality of the people; that period of life being attended with a peculiar degree of animation; but, after a certain age, the distinction is hardly observable; a remarkable sameness characterizes every countenance, dulness and want of expression being visibly pourtrayed in every visage. The women, in general, are of the same size, colour, and form, with the men; nor is it easy to distinguish them, as they possess no natural feminine delicacies. Nor was there a single one to be found, even among those who were in their prime, who had the least pretensions to beauty or comliness.

The ordinary dress of both sexes is a flaxen kind of mantle, ornamented with a narrow stripe of fur on the upper edge, and fringes on the lower edge. Passing under the left arm, it is tied over the right shoulder, leaving both arms perfectly free. Sometimes the mantle is fastened round the waist by a girdle of coarse matting. Over this is worn a small cloak of the same substance, reaching to the waist, also fringed at the bottom. They wear a cap like a truncated cone, or a flower-pot, made of a very fine matting, ornamented with a round knob, or a bunch of leathern tassals, having a string passing under the chin, to prevent its blowing off.

The above dress is common to both sexes; and the men often wear, over their other garments, the skin of some animal, as a bear, wolf, or sea-otter, with the hair outwards: sometimes tying it before, and sometimes behind, like a cloak. They throw a coarse mat about their shoulders in rainy weather; and they have woollen garments, which are but little used. They generally wear their hair hanging loosely down; but those who have not a cap tie it in a kind of bunch on the crown of the head.

Their dress is certainly convenient, and, were it kept clean, would not be inelegant; but as they are continually rubbing their bodies over with a red paint, mixed with oil, their garments become greasy, and contract a rancid, offensive smell. The appearance of these people is both wretched and filthy, and their heads and garments swarm with vermin. So lost are they to every idea of cleanliness, that our people frequently saw them pick them off and eat them with the greatest composure.

Their bodies, it has been observed, are always covered with red paint, but their faces are ornamented with a variety of colours; a black, a brighter red, or a white colour. The last of these gives them a ghastly horrible appearance.

Many of their ears are perforated in the lobe, where they make a large hole, and two smaller ones higher up on the outer edge. In these holes are hung bits of bone, quills fastened upon a leathern thong, shells, bunches of tassals, or thin pieces of copper. In some the *septum* of the nose is also perforated, and a piece of cord drawn through it.

The bracelets, which they wear about their wrists, are bunches of white single beads, or thongs with tassals, or a broad black horny shining substance. Round their ancles they frequently wear leathern thongs, or the sinews of animals curiously twisted.

They have some dresses that are used only on extraordinary occasions, such as going to war, and exhibiting themselves to strangers in ceremonial visits. Amongst these are the skins of wolves or bears, tied on like other garments, but edged with broad borders of fur, ingeniously ornamented with various figures. These are occasionally worn separately, or over their common cloathing. The most usual head-dress, on these occasions, is a quantity of withe, wrapped about the head, with large feathers, particularly those of eagles, stuck in it; or it is entirely covered with small white feathers. At the same time the face is variously painted; the upper and lower parts being of opposite colours, and the strokes having the appearance of fresh gashes: or it is besmeared with a kind of fat or tallow, mixed with paint, formed into a great variety of figures, somewhat like carved work.

Sometimes the hair is separated into small parcels, and tied, at intervals, with thread; and others tie it together behind, after the English manner, and stick in it some branches of the *cupressus thyoides*. Thus equipped, they have a truly savage and ridiculous appearance, which is much heightened when they assume their monstrous decorations. These consist of great variety of wooden masks, applied to the face, forehead, or upper part of the head. Some of these vizors resemble human faces, having hair, beards, and eyebrows; others represent the heads of birds, and many the heads of animals; such as deer, wolves, porpoises, and others.

These representations generally exceed the natural size, and they are frequently strewed with pieces of the *foliaceous mica*, which makes them glitter, and augments their deformity. Sometimes they fix large pieces of carved work upon the head, projecting to a considerable distance, and resembling the prow of a canoe. So much do they delight in these disguises, that, for want of another mask, one of them was seen to thrust his head into a tin-kettle, which he had brought from our people.

Whether these extravagant masquerade ornaments are used on any religious occasion, or in any kind of diversion, or whether they are calculated to intimidate by their monstrous appearance, or as decoys when hunting animals, is uncertain: but if travellers, in an ignorant and credulous age, when more than marvellous things were supposed to exist, had seen several people decorated in this manner, and had not approached so near them as to be undeceived, they would have believed, that a race of beings existed, partaking of the nature of man and beast.

Among the people of Nootka, one of the dresses seems particularly adapted to war. It is a thick tanned leathern mantle doubled, and appears to be the skin of an elk or buffalo. This is fastened on in the ordinary manner, and is so contrived as to cover the beast quite up to the throat; part of it, at the same time, falling down to their heels. This garment is sometimes very curiously painted; and is not only strong enough to resist arrows, but, as our people understood from them, even spears cannot pierce it; so that it may be considered as their compleatest defensive armour. Sometimes they wear a sort of leathern cloak, over which are rows of the hoofs of deer placed horizontally, and covered with quills, which, on their moving, make a loud rattling noise.

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Though theſe people cannot be viewed without a kind of horror, when they are thus ſtrangely apparelled, yet, when diveſted of theſe extravagant dreſſes, and behind in their common habit, they have no appearance of ferocity in their countenances, but ſeem to be of a quiet, phlegmatic diſpoſition; deficient in animation and vivacity, to render themſelves agreeable to ſociety. They are rather reſerved than loquacious; but their gravity ſeems conſtitutional, and not to ariſe from a conviction of its propriety, or to be the reſult of any particular mode of education; for, in their higheſt paroxyſms of rage, they have not heat of language, or ſignificancy of geſtures, to expreſs it ſufficiently. They appear to be docile, courteous, and good-natured; but they are quick in reſenting injuries, notwithſtanding the predominancy of their phlegm; and, like other paſſionate people, as quickly forgetting them. Theſe fits of paſſion never extended farther than the parties immediately concerned; the ſpectators never entering into the merits of the quarrel, whether it was with any of the Europeans, or among their own people, ſhewing as much indifference as if they were wholly unacquainted with the whole tranſaction. It was common to ſee one of them rave and ſcold, while all his agitation did not in the leaſt excite the attention of his countrymen, and when the people could not diſcover the object of his diſpleaſure. They never betray the leaſt ſymptom of timidity upon theſe occaſions, but ſeem reſolutely determined to puniſh the inſulter. With reſpect to our people, they were under no apprehenſions about our ſuperiority; but if any difference aroſe, were as anxious to avenge the wrong, as if the cauſe of quarrel had been among themſelves.

Their other paſſions appear to lie dormant, eſpecially their curioſity. Few expreſſed any deſire or inclination to ſee or examine things with which they were unacquainted, and which, to a curious obſerver, would have appeared aſtoniſhing. If they could procure the articles they knew and wanted, they were perfectly ſatisfied, regarding every thing elſe with great indifference. Nor did the perſons, dreſs, and behaviour of the Engliſh, (though ſo very different from their own,) or even the ſize and conſtruction of their ſhips, ſeem to command admiration or attention.

Their indolence may, indeed, be a principal cauſe of this. But it muſt be admitted that they were not wholly unſuſceptible of the tender paſſions, which is evident from their being fond of muſic, and that too of the truly pathetic kind.

Their eagerneſs to poſſeſs iron, braſs, or any kind of metal, was ſo great, that, when an opportunity preſented itſelf, few of them could reſiſt the temptation to ſteal it. The Natives of the South Sea iſlands, as appears in many inſtances, would ſteal any thing they could find, without conſidering whether it was uſeful to them or not. The novelty of the object was a ſufficient inducement for them to get poſſeſſion of it by any means. They were rather actuated by a childiſh curioſity, than by a thieviſh diſpoſition. The inhabitants of Nootka, who made free with the poperty of our people, are intitled to no ſuch apology. The appellation of thief is certainly due to them; for they knew that what they pilfered from them might be converted to the purpoſes of private utility, and, according to their eſtimation of things, was really valuable. Luckily they ſet no value upon any European articles except the metals. Linens, and many other things, were ſecure from their depredations, and might ſafely be left hanging out all night aſhore, without being watched. The principle which prompted theſe people to pilfer, would probably operate in their intercourſe with each other. There was, indeed, abundant reaſon to believe, that ſtealing is very common amongſt them, and frequently produced quarrels, of which our people ſaw more inſtances than one.

The younger part of the men are ſlothful, being generally ſitting about, in ſcattered companies, baſking themſelves in the ſun, or wallowing in the ſand upon the beach like ſo many hogs, without any kind of covering. This diſregard of decency was, however, confined ſolely to the men. The women were always decently cloathed, and behaved with great propriety, juſtly meriting all commendation for a modeſt baſhfulneſs, ſo becoming their ſex.

Their language is by no means harſh or diſagreeable, farther than proceeds from their uſing the *k* and *h* with more force, or pronouncing them with leſs ſoftneſs, than we do; and, upon the whole, it abounds rather with what we may call labial and dental, than with guttual ſounds. The ſimple ſounds, which our people have not heard them uſe, and which conſequently may be reckoned rare, or wanting in their language, are thoſe repreſented by the letters a, d, f, g, r, and v.

Their method of ſpeaking is very ſlow and diſtinct. The language has few prepoſitions and conjunctions, and, as far as could be diſcovered, is deſtitute of even a ſingle interjection, to expreſs admiration or ſurprize.

With reſpect to the relation or affinity the language of theſe people may bear to that of any others, *Captain Cook* obſerves, that, from the few Mexican words he had been able to procure, there was an obvious agreement in the very frequent terminations of the words in l, tl, and z, throughout the language.

Their orations, which are made either when engaged in any altercation or diſpute, or to explain their ſentiments publicly on other occaſions, ſeem little more than ſhort ſentences, or rather ſingle words, forcibly repeated, and conſtantly in one tone and degree of ſtrength, accompanied only with a ſingle geſture; which they uſe at every ſentence, jerking their whole body a little forward, by bending the knees, their arms hanging down by their ſides at the time.

With reſpect to the political and religious inſtitutions of the inhabitants, little information could be obtained. It appeared, however, that there were ſuch men as chiefs, diſtinguiſhed by the title of *Acweek*, to whom the others are, in ſome degree, ſubordinate. But the authority of each of theſe great men ſeems to extend no farther than to his own family, who acknowledge him as their head. As they were not all elderly men, it is poſſible this title may be hereditary.

No opinion could be formed of their religion, but from what they called *Klumma*. Theſe, perhaps, were idols: but as the word *Acweek* was frequently mentioned when they ſpoke of them, we may ſuppoſe them to be the images of ſome of their anceſtors, thoſe memories they venerate.

A pretty exact computation of the number of inhabitants might be made from the canoes that viſited the ſhips the ſecond day after their arrival. They conſiſted of about 100, which, upon an average, contained at leaſt five perſons each. But as there were very few women, old men, children or youths, then among them, we may reaſonably ſuppoſe, that the number of the inhabitants could not be leſs than four times the number of the viſitors, being 2000 in the whole.

SECTION VI.

Employments, Manufactures, Carving, Painting, Concerts, Muſical Inſtruments, Weapons, Canoes, Implements for Fiſhing and Hunting, Tools, &c.

THE chief employment of the men was fiſhing and killing animals for the ſuſtenance of their families, few of them being ſeen engaged in any buſineſs in the houſes. The women were employed in manufacturing their garments, and curing their ſardines, which they alſo carry from the canoes to their houſes. The women alſo go in the ſmall canoes, to gather muſcles and other ſhell-fiſh. They are as dextrous as the men in the management of theſe canoes; and when there are men in the canoes with them, they are paid very little attention to on account of their ſex, none of them offering to relieve them from the labour of the paddle. Nor do they ſhew them any particular reſpect on other occaſions.

Women

Women were employed in making dreſſes of bark, and executed their buſineſs much like the inhabitants of New Zealand. Others were employed in opening ſardines, large ſhoals of which were ſeen on ſhore, and meaſured out to ſeveral people, who carried them home, where they performed the operation of curing them, which is done by ſmoke-drying. They are hung upon ſmall rods, at firſt, about a foot over the fire, and then removed higher and higher, to make room for others. When dried, they are cloſely packed in bales, and the bales covered with mats. Thus they are preſerved till they are wanted; and they are not unpleaſant food. They alſo cure cod, and other large fiſh, in the ſame manner; but theſe are ſometimes dried in the open air.

They diſplay more ingenuity in their manufactures and mechanic arts, than might be expected from a people ſo uncultivated. The flaxen and woollen garments engage their firſt care, as being the moſt material of thoſe that may be claſſed under the head of manufactures. The former are fabricated from the bark of the pine-tree, beat into a maſs reſembling hemp. After being prepared in a proper manner, it is ſpread upon a ſtick, which is faſtened to two others in an erect poſition. The manufacturer, who ſits on her hams at this ſimple machine, knots it acroſs, at the diſtance of about half an inch from each other, with ſmall plaited threads. Though it cannot, by this method, be rendered ſo cloſe and firm as cloth that is woven, it is ſufficiently impervious to the air, and is likewiſe ſofter and more pliable.

Their woollen garments are probably manufactured in the ſame manner, though they have much the appearance of a woven cloth: but the ſuppoſition of their being wrought in a loom is deſtroyed by the various figures that are ingeniouſly inſerted in them; it being very improbable that theſe people ſhould be able to produce ſuch a complex work, except immediately by their hands.

They are of different qualities, ſome reſembling our coarſeſt ſort of blankets, and others not much inferior to our fineſt ſort, and certainly both warmer and ſofter. The wool of which they are manufactured ſeems to be produced by different animals, particularly the fox and brown lynx. That from the lynx is the fineſt, and nearly reſembles our coarſer wools in colour; but the hair, which alſo grows upon the animal, being intermixed with it, the appearance of it is ſometimes different when wrought.

The ornamental figures in theſe garments are diſpoſed with great taſte, and are generally of a different colour, being uſually dyed either of a deep brown or a yellow; the latter of which, when new, equals, in brightneſs, the beſt in our carpets.

Their fondneſs for carving on all their wooden articles correſponds with their taſte in working figures upon their garments. Nothing is to be ſeen without a kind of freeze-work, or a repreſentation of ſome animal upon it; but the moſt general figure is that of the human face, which is frequently cut out upon birds, and the other monſtrous things already mentioned; and even upon their weapons of bone and ſtone. The general deſign of theſe figures convey a ſufficient knowledge of the objects they are intended to repreſent.

The carving is not executed with the nicety that a dexterous artiſt would beſtow even upon an indifferent deſign. The ſame, however, cannot be ſaid of many of the human maſks and heads, where they ſhew themſelves to be ingenious ſculptors. They preſerve, with the greateſt exactneſs, the general character of their own faces, and finiſh the more minute parts with great accuracy and neatneſs. That theſe people have a ſtrong propenſity to works of this ſort is obſervable in a variety of particulars. Repreſentations of human figures, birds, beaſts, fiſh, models of their canoes, and houſehold utenſils, were found among them in very great abundance.

Having mentioned their ſkill in ſome of the imitative arts, ſuch as working figures in their garments, and engraving or carving them in wood, we may alſo add their drawing them in colours. The whole proceſs of their whale fiſhery has been repreſented, in this manner, on the caps they wear. This, indeed, was rudely executed for ſeveral, at leaſt, to ſhew, that, though they have not the knowledge of letters amongſt them, they have a notion of repreſenting actions, in a laſting way, excluſive of recording them in their ſongs and traditions. They have alſo other painted figures, which, perhaps, have no eſtabliſhed ſignifications, and are only the creation of fancy or caprice.

The materials of which they make every thing of the rope kind, are formed either from thongs of ſkins and ſinews of animals, or from the flaxen ſubſtance of which they manufacture their mantles. The ſinews were ſometimes ſo remarkable long, that it was hardly poſſible they could have belonged to any other animal than the whale.

Theſe people are not wholly unſuſceptible of the tender paſſions, which is evident from their being fond of muſic, and that too of the truely pathetic kind. They keep an exact concert in their ſongs, which are often ſung by great numbers together; and with their choruſſes they uſed to entertain the Europeans. Their ſongs are generally ſlow and ſolemn; but their muſic is leſs confined than that which is uſually found in other rude nations; the variations being very numerous and expreſſive, and the melody powerfully ſoothing. Beſides their concerts, ſonnets were frequently ſung by ſingle performers, keeping time by ſtriking the hand againſt the thigh. Though ſolemnity was predominant in their muſic, they ſometimes entertained us in a gay and lively ſtrain, and even with a degree of pleaſantry and humour.

The only inſtruments of muſic ſeen among them were a rattle and ſmall whiſtle. The rattle is uſed when they ſing; but upon what occaſions the whiſtle is uſed was never known, unleſs it be when they aſſume the figures of particular animals, and endeavour to imitate their howl or cry. Our people once ſaw one of them dreſſed in the ſkin of a wolf, with the head covering his own, ſtriving to imitate that animal by making a ſqueaking noiſe with a whiſtle he had in his mouth. The rattles are generally in the ſhape of a bird, with ſmall pebbles in the belly, and the tail is the handle. They have another ſort, which reſembles a child's rattle.

Their weapons are bows and arrows, ſpears, ſlings, ſhort truncheons made of bone, and a ſmall pick-axe, ſomewhat reſembling the American tomahawk. Some of the arrows are pointed with iron, and others with indented bone. The ſpear was uſually a long point made of bone. The tomahawk is a ſtone of the length of ſeven or eight inches; one end terminating in a point, and the other fixed in a wooden handle. This handle is intended to reſemble the head and neck of a human figure; the ſtone being fixed in the mouth, ſo as to repreſent a tongue of great magnitude. To heighten the reſemblance, human hair is alſo fixed to it. This weapon is called *teaweeſh*: and they have another weapon made of ſtone, which they call *feeik*, about ten or twelve inches long, having a ſquare point.

From the number of their ſtones and other weapons, it may be reaſonably concluded that they frequently engage in cloſe combat: and our people had very diſagreeable proofs of their wars being both frequent and bloody, from the number of human ſkulls that were offered them for ſale.

Though the ſtructure of their canoes is ſimple, they appear well calculated for every uſeful purpoſe. The largeſt, which contain upwards of twenty people, are formed of a ſingle tree. The length of many of them is forty feet, the breadth ſeven, and the depth three. They become gradually narrower from the middle towards each end, the ſtern ending perpendicularly with a knob at the top. The fore part ſtretches forwards and upwards, and ends in a point or prow, much higher than the ſides of the canoe, which are nearly ſtrait.

The greateſt part of them are without any ornament: ſome have a little carving, and are ſtudded with ſeals teeth on the ſurface. Some alſo have a kind of additional prow, uſually painted with the figure of ſome animal. They have neither ſeats, or any other ſupporters, on the inſide, except ſome ſmall round ſticks, about the ſize of a walking-cane, placed acroſs, about half the depth of the canoe. They are very light, and, on account of their breadth and flatneſs, ſwim firmly, without an out-rigger, of which they are all deſtitute; a remarkable diſtinction between the navigation of all the American nations and that of the ſouthern parts of the Eaſt Indies, and the iſlands of the Pacific Ocean. Their paddles, which are ſmall and light, reſemble a large leaf in ſhape, being pointed at the bottom, broad in the middle, and gradually becoming narrower in the ſhaft, the whole length being about five feet. By conſtant uſe, they have acquired great dexterity in the management of theſe paddles; but they never make uſe of any ſails.

The canoes of the larger ſort are not only very ſpacious, but perfectly dry; ſo that under ſhelter of a ſkin, they are, except in rainy weather, much more comfortable habitations than their houſes.

Their implements for fiſhing and hunting, which are ingeniouſly contrived, and well made, are nets, hooks and lines, harpoons, gigs, and an inſtrument like an oar. This laſt is about 20 feet long, four or five inches broad, and about half an inch thick. Each edge, for about two thirds of its length, (the other third being its handle,) is ſet with ſharp bone teeth, about two inches long. With this inſtrument they attack herrings and ſardines, and ſuch other fiſh that come in ſhoals. It is ſtruck into the ſhoal, and the fiſh are taken either upon or between the teeth. Their hooks, which are made of bone and wood, diſplay no great ingenuity; but the harpoon, which is uſed in ſtriking whales, and other ſea-animals, manifeſt a great extent of contrivance. It conſiſts of a piece of bone, formed into two barbs, in which the oval blade of a large muſcle-ſhell, and the point of the inſtrument, is fixed. Two or three fathoms of rope is faſtened to this harpoon; and, in throwing it, they uſe a ſhaft of about fifteen feet long, to which the rope is faſtened; to one end of which the harpoon is fixed, ſo as to leave the ſhaft floating, as a buoy upon the water, when the animal is ſtruck with the harpoon.

Their manner of catching and killing land animals cannot be aſcertained: but it is probable that they ſhoot the ſmaller ſorts with their arrows, and encounter bears, wolves, and foxes, with their ſpears. They have ſeveral ſorts of nets, which are, perhaps, applied to that purpoſe; as it was cuſtomary for them to throw them over their heads, to ſignify their uſe, when they offered them for ſale. Sometimes they decoy animals by diſguiſing themſelves with a ſkin, and running upon all fours, in which they are remarkably nimble. The maſked or carved heads, as well as the dried heads of different animals, are uſed upon theſe occaſions.

Their great dexterity in works of wood may, in ſome meaſure, be aſcribed to the aſſiſtance they receive from iron tools; for, as far as is known, they uſe no other; at leaſt, our people only ſaw one chiſſel of bone: and though their tools muſt have been originally made of different materials, it is not improbable that many of their improvements have been made ſince they required a knowledge of that metal, which now is univerſally uſed in their various wooden works.

The knife and chiſſel are the principal forms that iron aſſumes amongſt them. The chiſſel conſiſts of a flat long piece, faſtened into a wooden handle. A ſtone is their mallet, and a bit of fiſh-ſkin their poliſher. Some of theſe chiſſels were nine or ten inches in length, and three or four in breadth; but they were, in general, conſiderably ſmaller.

Some of their knives are very large, and their blades are crooked; the edge being on the back, or convex part. Moſt of them ſeen were about the breadth and thickneſs of an iron hoop, and their ſingular form marks that they were not of European make. Probably they are imitations of their own original inſtruments uſed for the ſame purpoſes. They ſharpen theſe iron tools upon a coarſe ſlate whetſtone, and likewiſe keep the whole inſtrument conſtantly bright.

SECTION V.

Habitations and Furniture. Food, and manner of preparing it.

THE village, which is ſituated at the entrance of the ſound, ſtands on the ſide of a pretty deep aſcent, extending from the beach of the wood. The houſes conſiſt of three ranges or rows, placed at equal diſtances behind each other, the front row being the largeſt; and there are a few ſtraggling houſes at each end. Theſe rows are interſected by narrow paths, or lanes, at irregular diſtances, paſſing upward; but thoſe between the houſes are conſiderably broader. Though this general diſpoſition has ſome appearance of regularity, there is none in the ſingle houſes; for every diviſion made by the paths may either be conſidered as one or more houſes, there being no regular ſeparation to diſtinguiſh them by, either within or without. Theſe erections conſiſt of very long broad blanks, reſting upon the edges of each other, tied in different parts, with withes of pine-bark. They have only ſlender poſts on the outſides, at conſiderable diſtances from each other, to which they are alſo faſtened; but there are ſome larger poles within, placed aſlant. The ſides and ends of theſe habitations are about ſeven or eight feet in height, but the back part is ſomewhat higher. The planks, therefore, which compoſe the roof, ſlant forward, and, being looſe, may be moved at pleaſure. They may either be put cloſe to exclude the rain, or ſeparated to admit the light in fine weather.

Upon the whole, however, they are moſt miſerable dwellings, and diſplay very little attention or ingenuity in their conſtruction; for though the ſide-planks are pretty cloſe to each other in ſome places, they are quite open in others. Beſides, theſe habitations have no regular doors, and can only be entered by a hole, which the unequal length of the planks has accidentally made. In the ſides of the houſe they have alſo holes to look out at, ſerving for windows; but theſe are very irregularly diſpoſed, without attending, in the leaſt, to the ſhape and ſize of them.

Within the habitations is frequently a view from one end to the other of theſe ranges of building; for though there are ſome appearances of ſeparations on each ſide for the accommodation of different perſons or families, they do not intercept the ſight, and generally conſiſt of pieces of plank, extending from the ſide to the middle of the houſe. On the ſides of each of theſe parts is a little bench, about five or ſix inches higher than the reſt of the floor, covered with mats, whereon the family ſit and ſleep. The length of theſe benches is generally ſeven or eight feet, and the breadth four or five. The fire-place, which has neither hearth or chimney, is in the middle of the floor. One houſe, in particular, was nearly ſeparated from the reſt by a cloſe partition; and this was the moſt regular building of any we had ſeen. In it there were four of theſe benches, each holding a ſingle family at the corner; but is had not any ſeparation by boards; and the middle of the houſe ſeemed to be common to all the inhabitants.

The irregularity and confuſion of their houſes is, however, far exceeded by their naſtineſs and ſtench. They not only dry their fiſh within doors, but they alſo gut them there, which, together with their bones and fragments, thrown upon the ground at meals, occaſions ſeveral heaps of filth, which are never removed till it becomes troubleſome, from their bulk, to paſs over them. Every thing about the houſe ſtinks of train-oil, fiſh, and ſmoak; and every part of it is as filthy as can be imagined.

Notwithſtanding

Notwithſtanding all this filth and confuſion, many of theſe houſes are decorated with images, which are nothing more than the trunks of large trees, of the height of four or five feet, placed at the upper end of the apartment, with a human face carved on the front, and the hands and arms upon the ſides. Theſe figures are too variouſly painted, and make, upon the whole, a monſtrous appearance. Theſe images are generally called *Klumma*; but the names of two particular ones, ſtanding a-breaſt from each other, at the diſtance of about three or four feet, were *Natchkoa* and *Matſeeta*. The beſt idea that can be formed of theſe figures will be from the repreſentation of them in the engravings. A ſort of curtain, made of mat, uſually hung before them, which the natives were ſometimes unwilling to remove; and when they did conſent to unvail them, they ſeemed to expreſs themſelves in a very myſterious manner. It ſeems probably that they ſometimes make offerings to them; for if their ſigns were rightly interpreted, they requeſted our people to give ſomething to theſe images, when they drew the mats from before them. From theſe circumſtances it was natural for them to ſuppoſe that they were repreſentatives of their gods, or ſome ſuperſtitious ſymbols; and yet they were held in no very extraordinary degree of eſtimation; for, with a ſmall quantity of braſs or iron, any perſon might have purchaſed all of them in the place.

An ingenious artiſt, who accompanied Captain Cook on the voyage, in drawing a view of the inſide of a Nootka houſe, wherein theſe figures were repreſented, was interrupted from proceeding by one of the inhabitants. While he was employed, a man approached him with a large knife in his hand, ſeemingly diſpleaſed, from obſerving that the eyes of the artiſt were fixed on two repreſentations of human figures, which were placed at one end of the apartment, carved on planks, of a gigantic proportion, and painted after their cuſtom. As the artiſt took as little notice of him as poſſible, and proceeded, the native, in order to prevent him, provided himſelf with a mat, and placed it in ſuch a manner as to obſtruct the view. As the object was too intereſting to be omitted, the artiſt determined to try the effect of a bribe. Accordingly he made an offer of a button from his coat, which, being metal, he thought would have pleaſed him. This inſtantly produced the deſired effect; for the mat was removed, and the artiſt was at liberty to proceed as before. He had ſcarcely made a beginning when the native returned, and renewed his former practice, continuing it till he had parted with every ſingle button; and when he found that he had completely ſtripped him, he permitted him to proceed without further obſtruction.

The furniture of their houſes conſiſts particularly of cheſts and boxes of various ſizes, piled upon each other, at the ſides or ends of the houſes; in which are diſpoſited their garments, ſkins, maſks, and other articles that are deemed valuable. Many of them are double, or the upper one ſerves as a lid to the other. Some have a lid faſtened with thongs. Others, that are very large, have a ſquare hole cut in the upper part, for the convenience of putting things in, or taking them out. They are frequently painted black, ſtudded with teeth of animals, or rudely carved with figures of birds, &c. as decorations. They have alſo ſquare and oblong pails; round wooden cups and bowls; wooden troughs, of about two feet in length, out of which they eat their food; bags of matting, baſkets of twigs, &c.

Their implements for fiſhing, and other things, are hung up, or ſcattered in different parts of the houſe, without any kind of order, making, in the whole, a perfect ſcene of confuſion; except on the ſleeping benches, which have nothing on them but the mats, which are of a ſuperior quality to thoſe they uſually have to ſit on in their boats.

The principal fiſh are herrings and ſardines, two ſpecies of bream, and ſome ſmall cod. The herrings and ſardines not only ſerve to be eaten freſh in their ſeaſon, but to be dried and ſmoked as ſtores. The herrings alſo afford them another grand reſource for food, which is a vaſt quantity of roe, prepared in a very extraordinary manner. It is ſtrewed upon ſmall branches of the Canadian pine. It is alſo prepared upon a long ſea-graſs, which is found in great plenty upon the rocks under water. It is preſerved in baſkets or mat, and uſed occaſionally, after being dipped in water. It has no diſagreeable taſte, and ſerves theſe people as a kind of winter bread. They alſo eat the roe of ſome other large fiſh, that has a very rancid ſmell and taſte.

Another eſſential article of their food is the large muſcle, which is found in great abundance in the ſound. After roaſting them in their ſhells, they are ſtuck upon long wooden ſkewers, and taken off as they are wanted to be eaten, as they require no further preparation, though they are ſometimes dipped in oil as a ſauce. The ſmaller ſhell-fiſh contribute to encreaſe the general ſtock, but cannot be conſidered as a material article.

The porpoiſe is more common among them as food than any of the ſea animals, the fleſh and rind of which they cut into large pieces, dry them as they do herrings, and eat them without farther preparation. They have alſo a very ſingular manner of preparing a ſort of broth from this animal, when in its freſh ſtate. They put ſome pieces of it into a wooden veſſel or pail, in which there is alſo ſome water, and throw heated ſtones into it. This operation is repeatedly performed till the contents are ſuppoſed to be ſufficiently ſtewed. The freſh ſtones are put in, and the others taken out, with a cleft ſtick, ſerving as a pair of tongs, the veſſel being, for that purpoſe, always placed near the fire. This is a common diſh among them, and ſeems to be a very ſtrong nouriſhing food. From theſe, and other ſea animals, they procure oil in great abundance, which they uſe upon many occaſions, mixed with other food, as ſauce, and frequently ſip it alone with a kind of ſcoop made of horn.

They probably feed upon other ſea animals, ſuch as whales, ſeals, and ſea-otters; the ſkins of the two laſt being common amongſt them: and they are furniſhed with implements of all ſorts for the deſtruction of theſe different animals, though, perhaps, they may not be able, at all ſeaſons, to catch them in great plenty. No great number of freſh ſkins were to be ſeen while the ſhips lay in the ſound. Land animals, at the time, appeared to be ſcarce, as they ſaw no fleſh belonging to any of them; and though their ſkins were to be had in plenty, they might, perhaps, heve been procured by traffic from other tribes.

It plainly appears, from a variety of circumſtances, that theſe people procure the greateſt part of their animal food from the ſea, excepting a few gulls, and ſome other birds, which they ſhoot with their arrows.

Their only winter vegetables ſeemed to be the Canadian pine branches, and ſea-graſs; but, as the ſpring advances, they uſe others as they come in ſeaſon. The moſt common of theſe were two ſorts of liliacious roots, of a mild ſweetiſh taſte, which are mucilaginous, and eaten raw. The next is a root called *aheitu*, and has a taſte reſembling liquorice. Another ſmall ſweetiſh root, about the thickneſs of ſarſaparilla, is alſo eaten raw. As the ſeaſon advances, they have, doubtleſs, many others which were not ſeen. For though there is not the leaſt appearance of cultivation among them, there are plenty of alder, gooſeberry, and currant buſhes. One of the conditions, however, which they ſeem to require in all food, is, that it ſhould be of the leſs acrid kind; for they would not touch the leek or garlic, though they ſold our people vaſt quantities of it, when they underſtood they liked it. They ſeemed, indeed, not to reliſh any of their food, and rejected their ſpirituous liquors, as ſomething diſguſting and unnatural.

Small marine animals, in their freſh ſtate, are ſometimes eaten raw; though it is their ordinary practice to roaſt or broil their food; for they are abſolute ſtrangers to our method of boiling, as appears from their manner

of preparing porpoiſe broth. Beſides, as they have only wooden veſſels, it is impoſſible for them to perform ſuch an operation. Their manner of eating correſponds with the naſtineſs of their houſes and perſons; for the platters and troughs out of which they eat their food ſeem never to have been waſhed ſince their original formation; the dirty remains of a former meal being only ſwept away by a ſucceeding one. Every thing ſolid and tough they tear it to pieces with their hands and teeth; for though their knives are employed in cutting off the larger portions, they have not yet endeavoured to reduce theſe to mouthfuls by the ſame means, tho' ſo much more cleanly and convenient. They do not poſſeſs even an idea of cleanlineſs, and conſtantly eat the roots which are dug from the ground, without attempting to ſhake of the ſoil which adheres to them.

It is not certainly known whether they have any ſet time for their meals, as they were ſeen at all hours to eat in their canoes. But as ſeveral meſſes of porpoiſe broth were ſeen preparing at the village about noon, it is probable that they make a principal meal about that time.

SECTION VI.

Deſcription of the Country. Climate. Vegetable Productions. Quadrupeds. Sea Animals. Birds. Fiſh. Reptiles. Inſects. Minerals. Remarks. Departure.

CAPTAIN COOK gave the appellation of King George's Sound to this inlet on his firſt arrival; but it was called Nootka by the inhabitants. The entrance is in the eaſt corner of Hope Bay. Its latitude is 49 deg. 33 min. north; and its longitude 233 deg. 12 min. eaſt. The eaſt coaſt of the Bay is covered by a chain of ſunken rocks; and near the ſound are ſome iſland and rocks above water. The ſhips entered the ſound between two rocky points, lying eaſt-ſouth-eaſt and weſt-north-weſt from each other, diſtant about four miles. The ſound widens within theſe points, and extends to the northward at leaſt four leagues.

A number of iſlands, of various ſizes, appear in the middle of the ſound. The depth of water, not only in the middle of the ſound, but alſo cloſe to ſome parts of its ſhore, is from forty-ſeven to ninety fathoms, or more. Within its circuit the harbours and anchoring places are numerous.

The cove, where our ſhips anchored, is on the eaſt-ſide of the ſound, and alſo on the eaſt of the largeſt iſland. It is, indeed, covered from the ſea, which is its principal recommendation; for it is expoſed to the ſouth-eaſt winds, which ſometimes blow with great violence, and make great deva ſtation, as was but too apparent in many places.

Upon the ſea-coaſt the land is tolerably high and level; but, within the ſound, it riſes into ſteep hills, which have a uniform appearance, ending in roundiſh tops, with ſharp ridges on their ſides. Many of theſe hills are high, and others of a more moderate height; but all of them are covered to the tops with the thickeſt woods. Some bare ſpots are to be ſeen on the ſides of ſome of the hills; but they are not numerous, though they ſufficiently ſhew the general rocky diſpoſition of theſe hills. They have, indeed, no ſoil upon them, except what has been produced from rotten moſſes and trees, of the depth of about two feet. Their foundations are, indeed, nothing more than ſtupendous rocks, which are of a grey or whitiſh caſt when expoſed to the weather, but, when broken, are of a blueiſh grey colour. The ricky ſhores conſiſt entirely of this; and the beaches of the little coves in the ſound are compoſed and fragmented of it.

All theſe coves are furniſhed with a great quantity of fallen wood lying in them, which is carried in by the tide; and with rills of freſh water ſufficient for the uſe of a ſhip, which ſeem to be ſupplied entirely from the rains and fogs that hover about the tops of the hills. The water of theſe rills is perfectly clear, and diſſolves ſoap with great eaſe.

The climate appears to be infinitely milder than that on the eaſt coaſt of America, under the ſame parallel of latitude. The mercury in the thermometer never, even in the night, fell lower than 42 degrees; and very often, in the day, it roſe to 60 degrees. No froſt was perceived on any of the low ground; but, on the contrary, vegetation proceeded very briſkly; for graſs was ſeen, at this time, upwards of a foot long.

The trees, of which the woods are particularly compoſed, are the Canadian pine, white cypreſs, and two or three other ſorts of pine. The two firſt are in the greateſt abundance, and, at a diſtance, reſemble each other; though they are eaſily diſtinguiſhed on a nearer view, the cypreſs being of a paler green than the other. In general, the trees grow here with great vigour, and are of a large ſize. At this early ſeaſon of the year was ſeen but little variety of other vegetable productions.

About the rocks, and borders of the woods, were found ſome ſtrawberry plants, and raſpberry, currant, and gooſeberry buſhes, all in a flouriſhing ſtate. There were alſo a few black alder trees, a ſpecies of ſow-thiſtle, ſome crow's-foot with a fine crimſon flower, and two ſorts of *anthericum*. Some wild roſe buſhes were ſeen juſt budding; ſome young leeks, a ſmall ſort of graſs, and ſome water-creſſes, beſides a great abundance of *andromeda*. Within the woods were two ſort of underwood ſhrubs, unknown to our naturaliſts.

All the animals ſeen alive here were two or three racoons, martins, and ſquirrels. Some of our people, indeed, who landed on the continent on the ſouth-eaſt ſide of the ſound, ſaw the prints of a bear's feet, not far from the ſhore. The principal account given of the quadrupeds is taken from the ſkins which were purchaſed of the inhabitants; and theſe were ſometimes ſo mutilated in the heads, tails, and paws, that it could not be diſtinguiſhed to what animals they belonged; though others were either ſo perfect, or ſo well known, that they did not admit a doubt about them. The moſt common among them were bears, deer, foxes, and wolves. Bears ſkins are very plentiful, generally of a ſhining black colour, but not very large. The deer-ſkins were not ſo plentiful, and appeared to belong to what the hiſtorians of Carolina call the fallow-deer; though Mr. Pennant diſtinguiſhes it by the name of Virginian deer, and thinks it quite a different ſpecies from ours. Their foxes are numerous, and of ſeveral varieties; the ſkins of ſome being yellow, with a black tip at the tale; others of a reddiſh yellow, intermixed with black; and others of an aſh colour, alſo intermixed with black.

When the ſkins were ſo mutilated as to admit of a doubt, our people applied the name of fox or wolf indiſcriminately. At length they met with an entire wolf's ſkin, and it was grey. Here is the common martin, the pine-martin, and another of a lighter brown colour. The ermine is alſo found in this country, but is ſmall, and not very common. Its hair is not remarkably fine, though the animal is entirely white, except about an inch at the tip of the tail. The racoons and ſquirrels are ſuch as are common, but the latter is not ſo large as ours, and has a ruſty colour extending the length of the back.

Our naturaliſts were ſufficiently clear reſpecting the animals already mentioned; but there are two others that they could not, with any certainty, diſtinguiſh. One of them was concluded to be the elk or mouſe-deer; and the other was conjectured to be the wild cat, or *lynx*. Hogs, dogs, and goats, have not yet made their appearance in this place. Nor have the natives any knowledge of our brown rats, to which they applied the name they give to ſquirrels, when they ſaw them on board the ſhips.

The ſea animals near the coaſt are whales, porpoiſes, and ſeals; the latter, from the ſkins ſeen, ſeemed to be of a common ſort. The porpoiſe is the *phocena*. Though the ſea-otter is amphibious, it may be conſidered as belonging to this claſs, as living principally in the water. It was doubted, for ſome time, whether

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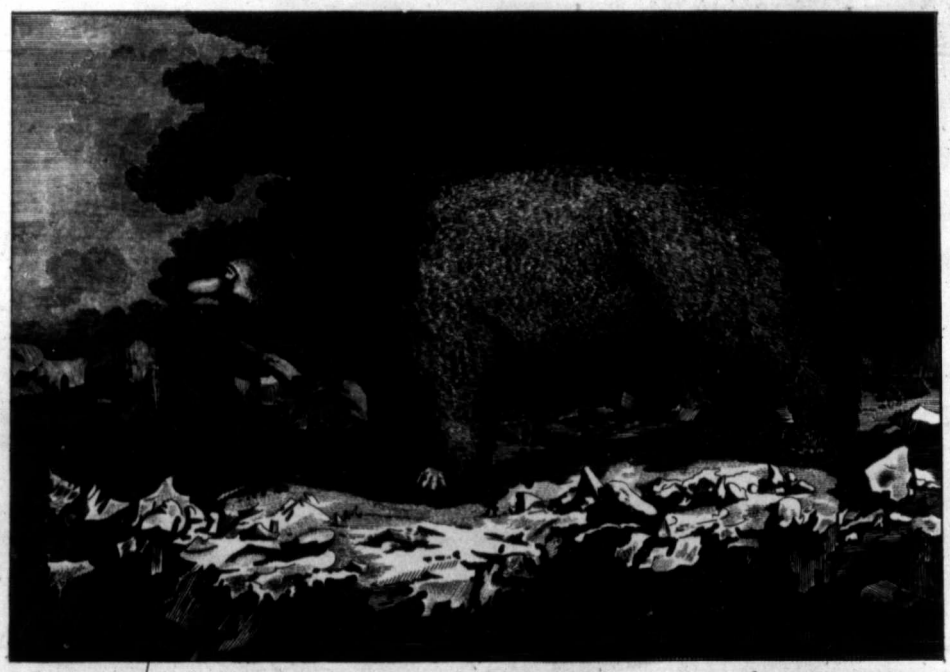

The WHITE BEAR *found on the Ice between the northern extremities of Asia & America.*

Grainger sculp.

The SEA OTTER *found in Nootka Sound on the North west Coast of America.*

the ſkins, which the natives ſold for otter ſkins, really belonged to that animal; but a ſhort time before their departure, a whole one, juſt killed, was purchaſed from ſome ſtrangers, of which the painter made a drawing. It was young, weighing only twenty-five pounds; of a gloſſy black colour; but many of the hairs being tipt with white gave it, at firſt, a greyiſh caſt. The face, throat, and breaſt, were of a light brown, or yelloviſh white; and, in many of the ſkins, that colour extended the whole length of the belly. In each jaw it had ſix cutting teeth; two of the lower jaw being exceeding ſmall, and placed without, at the baſe of the two in the middle. In theſe reſpects it differs from thoſe found by the Ruſſians, and alſo in the outer toes of the hind feet not being ſkirted with a membrane. There alſo appeared a greater variety and colour than is mentioned by thoſe who deſcribe the Ruſſian ſea-otters. It is moſt probably that theſe changes of colour naturally take place at the different gradations of life. The very young ones had coarſe brown hair, with a little fur underneath; but thoſe of the ſize of the animal juſt deſcribed had a greater quantity of that ſubſtance. After they have attained their full growth, they loſe the black colour, which is ſucceeded by a deep brown. At that period they have a greater quantity of fine fur, and very few long hairs. Some, which were ſuppoſed to be older, were of a cheſnut brown; and ſome few were of a perfect yellow. The fur of theſe creatures is certainly finer than that of any other animal known of; conſequently the diſcovery of this part of North America, where ſo valuable an article of commerce is to be procured, ought certainly to be conſidered as a matter of ſome conſequence.

Birds are far from being numerous here, and thoſe that are to be ſeen are remarkably ſhy, owing, perhaps, to their being continually harraſſed by the natives, either to eat them, or become poſſeſſors of their feathers, to be worn as ornaments. Theſe are crows and ravens, not differing in the leaſt from thoſe in England; alſo a jay or magpie; the common wren, which is the only ſinging bird heard; the Canadian thruſh; the brown eagle, with a white head and tail; a ſmall ſpecies of hawk, a heron, and the large-creſted American king-fiſher. There are alſo ſome that have not yet been mentioned by thoſe who have treated on natural hiſtory. The two firſt are a ſpecies of wood-peckers. One is ſomewhat ſmaller than a thruſh, of a black colour on the back, having white ſpots on the wings; the head, neck, and breaſt, of a crimſon colour; whence it might with propriety be called the yellow-bellied wood-pecker. The other is larger, and more elegant; the back is of a duſky brown colour, richly waved with black: the belly has a reddiſh caſt, with black ſpots: it has alſo a black ſpot on the breaſt; and the lower part of the wings and tail are of a ſcarlet colour; the upper part blackiſh. A crimſon ſtreak runs on each ſide, from the angle of the mouth, a little down the neck. The third and fourth are, one of the finch kind, not larger than a linnet, of a duſky colour, black head and neck, and white bill; and a ſand-piper, of a duſky brown colour, with a broad white band acroſs the wings, of the ſize of a ſmall pidgeon. There are alſo humming birds, which differ, in ſome degree, from the numerous ſorts already known of this delicate little animal.

The quebrantahueſſos, ſhags, and gulls, were ſeen off the coaſt; and the two laſt were alſo frequent in the ſound. There are two ſorts of wild ducks; one of which was black, with a white head; the other white, and had a red bill, but of a larger ſize. Here are alſo the greater *lumme*, or diver, which are found in our northern countries. Some ſwans, too, were once or twice ſeen flying in the northward. On the ſhores was found another ſand-piper, about the ſize of a lark, and not unlike the burre; alſo a plover, very much reſembling a common lark.

Though the variety of fiſh is not very great here, they are more plentiful in quantity than birds. The principal ſorts are the common herring, which are very numerous, though not exceeding ſeven inches in length; a ſmaller ſort, which, though larger than the anchovy, or ſardine, is of the ſame kind; a ſilver-coloured bream, and another of a gold brown colour, with narrow blue ſtripes. It is moſt probably that the herrings and ſardines come in large ſhoals at ſtated ſeaſons, as is uſual with thoſe kind of fiſh. The two ſorts of breams may be reckoned next to theſe in quantity; and thoſe which were full grown weighed about a pound. The other fiſh were ſcarce; and conſiſted of a brown kind of ſculpin, ſuch as are taken on the coaſt of Norway; another of a reddiſh caſt; froſt fiſh; a large one, without ſcales, reſembling the bull-head; and a ſmall browniſh cod, with whitiſh ſpots. Sharks alſo frequent the ſound, the teeth of which many of the natives had in their poſſeſſion. The other marine animals are a ſmall cruciated meduſa, or blubber, ſtar-fiſh, ſmall crabs, and a large cuttle-fiſh.

About the rocks there is abundance of large muſcles, and alſo ſea-ears. Shells of a pretty large *chamæ* were found: alſo ſome *trochi* of two ſpecies, a curious kind of *murex*, rugged wilks, and a ſnail. Beſides theſe three are ſome plain cockles and limpets. Many of the muſcles are a ſpan long; in ſome of which there are large pearls, but they are diſagreeable both in colour and ſhape. It is probably that there is red coral either in the ſound or on the coaſt, large bunches of it having been ſeen in the canoes of the natives.

The only reptiles obſerved here were brown ſnakes, about two feet in length, having whitiſh ſtripes on the back and ſides; and browniſh water lizards. The former are ſo perfectly harmleſs, that the natives were ſeen to carry them alive in their hands.

The inſect tribe ſeem to be more numerous: for tho' the ſeaſon of their appearance was only beginning, ſeveral different ſorts of butterflies were ſeen, all of which were common. Some humble bees were found; alſo ſome gooſeberry moths, a few beetles, two or three ſorts of flies, and ſome muſketos.

Though our people found both iron and copper here, they did not imagine that either of them belonged to this place. They did not even ſee the ores of any metal, except a coarſe red ochry ſubſtance, uſed by the natives in painting or ſtaining themſelves. This may, perhaps, contain a ſmall quantity of iron; as may alſo a black and white pigment made uſe of for the ſame purpoſe.

Excluſive of the rock, which conſtitutes the ſhores and mountains, were ſeen, among the natives, ſome articles of hard black granite, which was neither very compact, or fine grained; alſo a greyiſh whetſtone, the common oil-ſtone, and a black ſort, little inferior to the horn-ſtone. The natives were ſeen to uſe tranſparent leafy glimmer, and a brown leafy or martial ſort. They had alſo pieces of rock cryſtal. The two firſt articles were probably to be obtained near the ſpot, as they had conſiderable quantities of them; but the latter, it may be ſuppoſed, came from a greater diſtance, or is extremely ſcarce; for the natives would not part with it without a very valuable conſideration.

Iron is called by the natives *ſeekemaile*, a name which they alſo give to tin, and other white metals. It being ſo common among them, our people were anxious to diſcover how it could be conveyed to them. As ſoon as they arrived in the ſound they perceived that they had a knowledge of traffic, and an inclination to purſue it; and were afterwards convinced that they had not acquired this knowledge from a curſory interview with any ſtrangers, but it ſeemed habitual to them, and as a practice in which they were ſkilled.

With whom they carried on this traffic admitted of doubt; for though ſeveral articles of European manufacture were ſeen among them, or ſuch, at leaſt, as had been derived from ſome civilized nation, particularly braſs and iron, it does not follow that they were received immediately from theſe nations: for our people never could obtain the leaſt information of their having

ſeen ſhips like theirs, or of their having been engaged in commerce with ſuch people. Many circumſtances concur to prove this without a doubt. On the arrival of the ſhips, they were earneſt in their enquiries whether our people meant to ſettle amongſt them, informing them at the ſame time, that they gave them wood and water from motives of friendſhip. This ſufficiently proves that they conſidered themſelves as proprietors of the place, and dreaded ſuperiority: for it would have been an unnatural enquiry if any ſhips had been here before, and ſupplied themſelves with wood and water, and then departed; for they might then reaſonably expect that others would do the ſame. It muſt be admitted, indeed, that they exhibited no marks of ſurprize at beholding the ſhips; but this may, with great propriety, be attributed to their natural indolence of temper, and their wanting a thirſt of curioſity. They were never ſtartled at the report of a muſket, till they one day ſhewed that their head-dreſſes were impenetrable to their ſpears and arrows, when one of our people ſhot a muſket-ball through one of them that had been ſix times folded. Their aſtoniſhment at this plainly indicated their ignorance of the effect of fire-arms. This was afterwards very frequently confirmed when they ſaw our people ſhoot birds, at which they appeared greatly confounded. Their explanation of the piece, together with the nature of its operation, with the aid of ſhot and ball, ſtruck them ſo forcibly, as to afford convincing proof of their having no previous ideas of this matter.

Captain Cook mentions, that though ſome account of a voyage to this coaſt by the Spaniards in 1774 or 1775, had arrived in England before he ſailed, theſe circumſtances ſufficiently prove that theſe ſhips had never touched at Nootka. It has ſince, indeed, appeared that they were not within two degrees of Nootka; and probably the inhabitants of that place never heard of thoſe Spaniſh ſhips.

They uſe their tools with as much dexterity as the longeſt practice can acquire. The moſt natural conjecture, therefore, is, that they trade for their iron with other Indian tribes, who may have ſome communication with European ſettlements upon that continent, or receive it through ſeveral intermediate nations. By the ſame means they probably obtain their braſs and copper.

Not only the rude materials, but ſome manufactured articles ſeem to find their way hither. The braſs ornaments for noſes are made in ſo maſterly a manner, that the Indians cannot be ſuppoſed capable of fabricating them. The material ſeem to be European, as the American tribes are ignorant of the method of making braſs; though copper has been frequently met with, and, from its ductility, might eaſily be faſhioned into any ſhape, and poliſhed. If ſuch articles are not uſed by our traders to Hudſon's Bay and Canada, in their traffic with the natives, they muſt have been introduced at Nootka from Mexico, whence it is probable two ſilver table-ſpoons were originally derived.

Captain Cook remarks, that as theſe people ſo eſſentially differ from the natives of the iſlands in the Pacific Ocean, in their perſons, cuſtoms, and language, it cannot be ſuppoſed that their reſpective progenitors, belonged to the ſame tribe, when they emigrated into thoſe places where their deſcendants were found.

Our people having compleated their deſigns, and put the ſhips into a proper condition for ſailing, they got under way. They were attended by the natives till they were almoſt out of the ſound; ſome in their canoes, and others on board the ſhips. One of the chiefs, who had particularly attached himſelf to *Captain Cook*, was among the laſt who parted from them. The Captain, a little time before he went, made him a ſmall preſent, for which he received, in return, a beaver-ſkin of a much ſuperior value. This occaſioned him to make ſome addition to his preſent, which pleaſed the chief ſo highly, that he preſented to the Captain the beaver-ſkin cloak which he then wore, and of which he was particularly fond. Struck with this inſtance of generoſity, and wiſhing him not to be a ſufferer by his gratitude, *Captain Cook* inſiſted upon his acceptance of a new broad-ſword, with a braſs hilt, with which he appeared greatly delighted. The officers were earneſtly importuned by the chief, and many of his countrymen, to pay them another viſit, who, by way of inducement, promiſed to procure a large ſtock of ſkins.

Captain Cook gives it as his firm opinion, that whoever may come after him to this place will find the natives prepared with no inconſiderable ſupply of ſkins, being an article of trade which they could obſerve the Europeans were eager to poſſeſs, and which the Europeans found could be purchaſed to great advantage.

Thus have we, as propoſed, attended particularly to thoſe parts of North America, continental, inſular, &c. &c. which have been diſcovered, viſited, and deſcribed, by our celebrated navigator Captain Cook. *In our deſcription of South America, we ſhall, with the ſame preciſion, relate every particular that can be derived from his accurate and authentic accounts of the reſpective places he viſited in that diviſion of this quarter of the globe; ever deſirous of holding to view the tranſactions of a man who has ſo eſſentially contributed to the inſtruction and entertainment of the public, in the moſt important points of human ſpeculation,*

CHAP. IV.

BRITISH AMERICA.

SECTION I.

Countries bordering on Hudſon's Bay, Labrador or New Britain, &c. Account of their Diſcovery, Situation, Boundaries, Climate, Soil, Rivers, Animals, particular Deſcription of the Beaver, Vegetables, Articles of Trade, &c. Peculiar method of preſerving Animal Food.

IF we were to extend the country claimed by Great Britain, as far as her mariners have diſcovered to the northward, we might ſtretch it to 81 deg. 30 min. north latitude; for ſo far our countrymen, Baffin and Hudſon, ſailed, and gave their reſpective names to the bays called after them.

The knowledge we have obtained of theſe countries is owing to the repeated attempts that have been made to diſcover a north-weſt paſſage to the Eaſt Indies. This paſſage was attempted by Forbiſher in the year 1576. He diſcovered the ſtrait that bears his name, together with the main land of New Britain, or Labrador; but failing in the principal deſign, it was laid aſide till the year 1585, when it was revived by John Davis, who ſurveyed the coaſts of Labrador, but did not extend the diſcoveries of his predeceſſor. Baffin and Hudſon, as before mentioned, penetrated as far as 81 deg. 30 min. north lattitude, ſome years after. The latter of theſe wintered in this region of froſt and ſnow, and would probably have effected the diſcovery, had not his men mutinied, and committed him, with ſeven

ſeven of his faithful adherents, to the mercy of the icy ſea in an open boat, where they periſhed. The next attempt was made in 1746, by Captain Ellis, who wintered here, but alſo failed in it. In 1761 the deſign was revived by a Captain Chriſtopher, at the inſtance of the Hudſon's Bay Company; but he found neither inlet or river which could contribute to the intereſts of commerce. In December 1770, the ſame company cauſed a journey to be taken by land, which was performed by a gentleman in their ſervice, attended by ſome truſty northern Indians. In this he was employed more than eighteen months, during which he proceeded to latitude 72 deg. His moſt weſtern diſtance from the coaſt of Hudſon's Bay was near 600 miles, and a vaſt track of continent ſtretched farther on in that direction. Theſe regions are inhabited by different tribes of Indians, who alſo go under various denominations, as Dog-ribbed, Copper-coloured, and Northern Indians.

Whilſt *Captain Cook* was employed in his laſt voyage, a conſiderable object of which was to explore the weſtern coaſt of North America in high latitudes, and to aſcertain if, by means of any large rivers, the interior parts of that continent could be rendered acceſſible by ſhipping, and a communication opened with Lake Superior, the armed brig Lyon was ſent out, in the ſummer of 1776, to Davis's Straits and Baffin's Bay, to explore the coaſts, and obtain a paſſage on that ſide, with a view to co-operate with *Captain Cook*, who, it was ſuppoſed, would, about that time, be trying for a paſſage on the oppoſite ſide of America. This attempt not being made to the ſatisfaction of the board of admiralty, another commander was ſent out the next year, in the ſame ſhip, for the ſame purpoſe; but this voyage proved no more ſatisfactory than the former.

The moſt northern part of America which may properly be ſaid to belong to Great Britain, particularly the countries bordering on Hudſon's Bay, are ſituated between 50 and 62 degrees of north latitude, and between 50 and 95 deg. of weſt longitude. They are bounded on the north by unknown lands and ſeas about the pole, on the ſouth by the Gulph of St. Lawrence and Canada, on the eaſt by the Atlantic Ocean, and on the weſt by unknown lands.

So intenſely cold in the climate, that Mr. Ellis, who wintered in only 57 deg. 30 min. north latitude, was ſcarce able to preſerve his own life, and the lives of his party, although every precaution was taken to fence againſt the cold, by conſtructing a houſe of thick pieces of timber, and each crevice cloſe ſtuffed with moſs, and plaiſtered over with clay; yet, at the beginning of November the cold became ſo intenſe, that all the bottled beer became frozen, although packed up in tow, and placed near a good fire. The cold became inſupportable abroad, unleſs they were entirely covered in the warmeſt furs. No kind of liquid, indeed, could withſtand the cold; for brandy, and even ſpirits of wine, froze; the latter only to a conſiſtence of oil. If the men touched iron, or any other ſolid ſurface, their fingers were frozen faſt to it: and if, in drinking a dram of brandy out of a glaſs, they chanced to touch the glaſs with their tongue or lips, in pulling it away the ſkin was left on it.

The ſoil is, in general, barren in the northern parts, but in ſome of the ſouthern it is tolerably fertile.

The mountains in this country, towards the north, are of a tremendous height, and perpetually covered with ſnow, which is the cauſe of the extreme rigour of the climate, and the barrenneſs of the ſoil.

The rivers are numerous, and called, in general, after the names of the navigators by whom they were firſt diſcovered. The principal bays are thoſe of Baffin and Hudſon; in the latter of which are ſeveral others of leſs note; and the ſtraits are thoſe of Hudſon, Davis, and Belleiſle.

The animals in the woods here are mooſe-deer, elks, ſtags, bears, tigers, buffalos, wolves, foxes, beavers, otters, lynxes, ermines, ſquirrels, wild cats, hares, &c. Of the feathered kind are geeſe, buſtards, ducks, partridges, and many others, both wild and tame.

The ſeas abound with whales, ſeals, cod, and a white fiſh preferable to herrings; and the rivers and freſh waters with pike, perch, carp, and tench.

All the animals of theſe countries are cloathed in winter with a cloſe, ſoft, warm fur, In the ſummer, which holds only for three months, they are, as in other places, of a variety of colours; but as ſoon as the winter approaches they gradually change, the beaſts, and moſt of the birds, becoming of the colour of the ſnow. Indeed, every thing, animate or inanimate, is white. Even the dogs and cats carried from England to Hudſon's Bay are ſubject to the ſame alteration, and acquire a much longer, ſofter, and thicker fur, than they have in their own climate.

Here it may be proper to remark, that the animals of America, in general, are neither ſo large or ſo fierce as thoſe of Aſia and Africa. But then it is to be obſerved, that if the quadrupeds of America are ſmall, they are more numerous than thoſe of the old world. The goat exported from Europe will, in a few generations, become, indeed, much leſs, but it will alſo become more prolific, producing, inſtead of one or two kids at a time, five, ſix, and ſometimes more.

As the inhabitants of this country are cloathed in the ſkins of beavers, and as their principal trade conſiſts in thoſe ſkins, it will be proper to give a deſcription of that curious animal. A large beaver is about twenty-eight inches in length, from the hind part of the head to the root of the tail, and weighs ſixty or ſeventy pounds; but their colour is different; in ſome places they are black, in others white, and in others almoſt of the colour of the deer. It is an amphibious animal. The beaver, or, as it is likewiſe called, the caſtor, lives to a great age. The females generally bring forth four young ones at a time. Their jaws are furniſhed with two cutters and eight grinders: the upper cutter is two inches and a half in length, and the lower ſomething longer. The upper jaw projects over the lower one. The head is ſhaped like that of a rat, and the tail like the blade of a paddle. It is about fourteen inches in length, and about an inch thick. It is covered with a ſcaly ſkin; the ſcales being a quarter of an inch long, and folding over each other like thoſe of a fiſh.

The induſtry, foreſight, and good management of theſe animals, are extremely ſurpriſing, and ſcarce credible to thoſe who never ſaw them. When they want to form a ſettlement, three or four, or more of them, aſſemble together, and firſt pitch upon a place where they may have proviſions, ſuch as the bark of trees, roots, or graſs, with every thing neceſſary for erecting their edifices, which muſt be ſurrounded by water: and if there be neither a convenient lake or pond, they make one, by ſtopping the courſe of ſome brook or river. For this purpoſe they cut down trees, above the place where they they was reſolved to build, and take their meaſures ſo well, as always to make the tree fall towards the water, that they may have the leſs diſtance to roll it when they have cut off the branches. This done, they float it to the place appointed, and theſe pieces they cut bigger or leſs, to ſuit their convenience. Sometimes they uſe the trunks of large trees, which they lay flat in the water. At others they faſten ſtakes in the bottom of the channel, and then interweaving ſmall branches, fill up the vacancies with clay, mud, and moſs, in ſuch a manner, as renders the dam very tight and ſecure. In theſe works their tails ſerve them for carts and trowels, and their teeth for ſaws and axes. Their paws ſupply the place of hands, and their feet ſerve inſtead of oars.

The conſtruction of their houſes is no leſs admirable; they are generally built upon piles, at ſome diſtance from the ſhore, but ſometimes cloſe to the banks of the rivers. They firſt make holes at the bottom of the water for planting ſix poſts, upon which each of their edifices is built in a moſt curious manner. Their form is round, with a flat roof. The walls are two feet thick, and

ſometimes

ſometimes more: they are formed of the ſame materials as the dams juſt mentioned; and every part is ſo well finiſhed that no air can poſſibly enter. About two thirds of the edifice is raiſed above the water: in this they lodge, and are careful to keep it clean. They have generally three or four different avenues to each houſe, which they enter under water. To provide proviſions againſt the winter, they draw the ſticks they cut from the trees, and thruſting one end into the mud, let them lie under the water to preſerve the bark green and tender for their winter proviſions. There are ſometimes found eight or ten beavers in one houſe, at others not more than three or four; and let them be as numerous as they will, they all lodge upon one floor.

The beavers are excellent food; but the tongue and tail are the moſt delicious parts. The Indians ſometimes roaſt theſe animals in the ſame manner as we do pigs, firſt burning off their fur.

Beſides the fur, the beaver produces the true caſtoreum, which is contained in bags in the lower part of the belly, different from the teſticles. The value of this drug is well known.

The lands near the upper parts of Hudſon's Bay produce large timber, and plenty of herbage, and, if properly cultivated, might yield corn. Thoſe parts which are low and marſhy produce juniper, birch, poplar, and a ſmall tree of the ſpruce or fur kind; but there is little other herbage beſides the moſs.

In the year 1670 a charter was granted to a company conſiſting of about nine or ten perſons, known by the appellation of the Hudſon's Bay Company, for an excluſive trade to that bay, which they have carried on ever ſince with great benefit to themſelves, though comparatively with little advantage to Great Britain. The chief commodities are fur and hides. This company generally employ four ſhips. They have four forts, viz. Churchill, Nelſon, New Severn, and Albany, which ſtand on the weſt ſide of the bay. The commodities with which the company furniſh the natives are guns, powder, ſhot, knives, hatchets, beads, cloaths both for men and women, tobacco, powder horns, combs, kettles, looking-glaſſes, and various other articles, the principal part of which are the manufactures of Great Britain, and in the mercantile phraſe deemed drugs. Their exports and imports are not ſo conſiderable as they were before the conqueſt of Canada,

The Europeans, who reſide in the factories here, have a peculiar method in preſerving their animal food, whether fleſh or fiſh, ſix or ſeven months, free from putrefaction. The fiſh are caught in the winter by cutting holes in the ice, to which they come for air. As ſoon as taken out of the water, they are immediately frozen and ſtiff, but may be thawed again by being immerſed in cold water. In this manner the ſalt proviſions are thawed and freſhened here. The meat is let down through a hole in the ice into the water, and, in a ſhort time, becomes ſoft, pliable, and eats well; whereas if roaſted or boiled in its frozen ſtate, it would eat as if rotten, and be nauſeous to the palate. Thus they are well ſupplied with fleſh, fiſh, and fowl all the year round.

Perſons, Dreſs Habitations, Subſiſtence, Manners, Cuſtoms, &c. of the Indians on the Coaſts of Hudſon's Bay.

THE natives ſituated on the weſtern coaſt of Hudſon's Bay, comprehending the New North and South Wales, are of the middle ſize, and of a copper colour. They have black eyes, and long, lank, black hair; but their features vary as in Europe. They are of a cheerful diſpoſition, good-natured, affable, friendly, and honeſt in their dealings.

In ſummer the men are cloathed in a cloſe coat made of a blanket, which they buy of the Engliſh ſettled in their neighbourhood. They have a pair of leather ſtockings, which reach ſo high as to ſerve alſo for breeches; and their ſhoes are made of the ſame materials.

The cloaths of the women differ from thoſe of the men only by their generally wearing a petticoat, that in winter comes a little lower than their knees. Their ordinary apparel is made of the ſkins of a deer, otters, or beaver, with the hair on the fur of them. The ſleeves of their upper habit are generally tied on with ſtrings at the ſhoulders, ſo that their arm-pits, even in the depth of winter, are expoſed to the cold, which they imagine contributes to their health. Their diſeaſes, indeed, are but few, and thoſe generally ariſe from colds caught after drinking ſpirituous liquors, which they buy of the Engliſh: and it is melancholy truth, that thoſe who live near the ſettlements of the Hudſon's Bay Company, are, by drunkenneſs, become meagre, ſmall, indolent, and hardly able to encounter the hardſhips of the country; while thoſe who live at a diſtance are hardly, vigorous, and active.

They dwell in tents covered with mooſe and deer-ſkins ſewed together. Theſe are of a circular form, probably on account of its being moſt capacious and convenient for their ſitting round the fire, which is in the middle. They are formed of poles, which are extended at the bottom, and at the top lean to the center, where an opening is left to admit the light, and let out the ſmoak. They ſtrew the floor with the tops of pine-trees, and lie with their feet to the fire, and their heads to the ſides of the tent. The entrance is generally on the ſouth-weſt ſide, and they go in by lifting up one of the ſkins, to which is faſtened a piece of ſtick to make it flap cloſe.

They have no dependence for ſubſiſtence on the fruits of the earth, but live entirely on the animals they take in hunting, or catch in traps. They every ſeaſon make a prodigious ſlaughter among the deer, from the abſurd opinion, that the more they deſtroy the greater plenty will ſucceed; hence they ſometimes leave three or four hundred dead on the plains, taking out only their tongues, and leaving their carcaſſes either to rot, or be devoured by the wild beaſts. At other times they attack them in the water, and bring great numbers on floats to the factories. They alſo live upon birds, and even feed on eagles, hawks, crows, and owls, as well as on partridges, wild-geeſe, and ducks. They generally boil their fleſh, and eat it by itſelf, drinking the water it is boiled in, which they eſteem very wholeſome: and in the ſame manner they dreſs their fiſh.

Theſe ignorant people have many amiable qualities. Theſe are influenced in their behaviour by natural love of rectitude, that reſtrains them from all acts of violence and injuſtice, as effectually as the moſt rigorous laws. The chiefs of every family or tribe, who are generally choſen from among the moſt ancient of the people, uſually for their ſkill in hunting, their experience in trade, and their valour in war, in which they frequently engage, direct thoſe who reſide with them in their different employments; but their advice is rather followed though deference and reſpect, than from any compulſive obligation.

They have, however, ſome cuſtoms which muſt appear very whimſical, and others that are extremely cruel. It is eſteemed a great offence for a woman to ſtride over the legs of a man when he ſits on the ground; and they even think it beneath them to drink out of the ſame veſſel with their wives. They have another cuſtom that muſt appear ſhocking to every humane mind, and in which they are, in ſome meaſure, imitated by the Hottentots. The latter expoſe their parents, when labouring under the infirmities of old age, to periſh with hunger, or to be devoured by wild beaſts; and theſe wretches ſtrangle theirs: for when their parents grow ſo old as to be unable to ſupport themſelves by their own labour, they require their children to ſtrangle them, and their performing it is eſteemed an act of duty. This is done in the following manner: The old perſon's grave being dug, he goes into it, and, after having converſed and ſmoaked his pipe, or perhaps drank a dram or two with his children, he informs them that he is ready; upon which two of them put a thong about his

his neck, one ſtanding on one ſide, and the other oppoſite to him, which they pull violently till he expires: they then cover him with earth, and over that erect a kind of rough monument of ſtones. Such old people as have no children require this office of their friends; but in this caſe it is not always complied with.

They have alſo a very ſtrange maxim of policy, which is obliging their women to procure frequent abortions, by the uſe of a certain herb, common to that country, in order to eaſe themſelves of the burden of a helpleſs family.

The natives dwelling on the eaſtern coaſt of Hudſon's Bay, are thoſe called Eſquimaux, which name is derived from the Indian word that ſignifies *eaters of raw fleſh*; for after thoroughly drying the fleſh of the beaſts they kill, they eat it without any other preparation. They are of a middle ſize, robuſt, and inclinable to be fat. Their heads are large, and their faces round and ſwarthy; their eyes are black, ſmall and ſparkling; their noſes flat, their lips thick, and their hair lank and black; they have broad ſhoulders, and their limbs are proportionable; but their feet are very ſmall.

The behaviour of the Eſquimaux reſiding on the eaſt ſide of Hudſon's Bay is chearful and ſprightly; but ſome are ſubtle, cunning and deceitful, great flatterers, and much addicted to pilfer from ſtrangers; eaſily rendered bold by encouragement; but as eaſily frightened; and ſo attached to their own country, that ſome, who have been taken priſoners by the ſouthern Indians when they were boys, and brought to the factories, have, for ſeveral years, regretted their abſence from their native country, and the enjoyment of what they loved when they were there; thus one of them, after having been fed upon Engliſh diet, being preſent when an Engliſhman was cutting up a ſeal, from which the train-oil ran very plentifully, ſcooped up what he could ſave with his hands, and ſwallowing it cryed, "Ah! commend me to my dear country, where I could get my belly full of this."

The mens cloaths are made of ſeal ſkins, and ſometimes of the ſkins of land and ſea-fowl ſewed together: their coats have a hood like a capuchin, are cloſe from the breaſt before, and reach no lower than the middle of the thigh: the breeches are cloſe before and behind, gathered like a purſe, with a ſtring, and tied about their waiſts: they have ſeveral pairs of boots and ſocks, which they wear one over another, to keep them warm and dry. The difference between the dreſs of the men and that of the women is, that the latter have a narrow flap behind their jacket that reaches to their heels. Their hoods are likewiſe larger and wider at the ſhoulders, for the ſake of carrying their children in them at their backs; and their boots, which are a great deal wider, are commonly ſtuck out with whalebone, becauſe when they want to put a child out of their arms they ſlip it into one of their boots till they can take it up again. A few of them wear ſhifts of ſeal bladders ſewed together. Their cloaths are, in general, ſewed very neatly: this is performed with an ivory needle, and the ſinews of a deer ſplit fine and uſed for thread. They diſcover a good deal of taſte in adorning them with ſtripes of different coloured ſkins ſewed in the manner of borders, cuffs, and robings for their cloaths, which altogether appear handſome as well as convenient.

One ſingular part of their dreſs is their ſnow eyes, as they properly call them. Theſe are bits of wood, or ivory, formed to cover the organs of ſight, and tied at the back of the head: in each piece are two ſlits of the ſame length with the eyes, but narrower, thro' which they ſee diſtinctly. This invention prevents ſnow blindneſs, a very painful diſorder occaſioned by the brightneſs of the light reflecting from the ſnow, eſpecially in the ſeaſon they call ſpring. Their uſe ſtrengthens the ſight, and becomes ſo habitual to them, that when they would obſerve an object at a great diſtance, they commonly look through them as we do through a perſpective glaſs.

Their inſtruments for fiſhing and fowling diſcover a genius for invention. Their darts and harpoons are well made, as are alſo their bows and arrows. Their boats are eaſy of carriage and quick in motion. The frames are made of wood or whale bone. They rub the ſeam with a kind of ſize made of ſeals blubber. In theſe boats they carry their little conveniences and their inſtruments for killing whales and other ſea animals. When they have killed a whale they tow it to ſhore with their canoes, and ſtrip it of the fat, which not only ſerves them for food, but to burn in their lamps during winter.

On their going to ſea in order to catch fiſh they generally take in their boats a bladder filled with train oil, as our people do a dram bottle, and ſeem to drink the contents with the ſame reliſh; and when their ſtock is out they have been ſeen to draw the bladder through their teeth in order to extract the very laſt drop of this precious liquid. They are probably convinced by experience of the ſalutary effects of ſuch coarſe kind of oil in their rigorous climate, which occaſions their fondneſs for it.

It is obſerved by voyagers, that in ſailing to the northward in theſe regions every thing dwindles; the men become lower in ſtature, and the very trees ſink into bruſhwood.

SECTION II.

CANADA.

Situation. Boundaries. Climate. Soil. Animal and Vegetable Productions. Rivers. Lakes. Principal Places. Laws. Commerce, &c.

CANADA is ſituated between 45 and 50 degrees of north latitude, and between 68 and 90 deg. of eaſt longitude. It is bounded on the north by New Britain, on the eaſt by Nova Scotia, on the ſouth by the Apalachian mountains, and on the weſt by unknown lands.

The climate and ſoil vary greatly in this extenſive track. Along the banks of the river St. Lawrence it is exceſſive cold in winter, and as intenſively hot in ſummer. The reſt of the country is interſected with large woods, lakes and rivers, which render it ſtill colder. The ſoil, however, in many places is fertile, producing whales and vegetables in abundance.

Canada abounds in ſtags, elks, deer, bears, foxes, wild cats, ferrets, weaſels, ſquirrels of different kinds, hares, rabbits, &c. In the ſouthern parts are wild bulls, divers ſorts of roebucks, goats, &c. The marſhes, lakes, and pools, ſwarm with beavers, of which we have already given a deſcription.

The Canadians have different ways of taking beavers. They ſometimes ſhoot them, and at other times catch them in traps, which laſt method they prefer, becauſe it does not damage the ſkin. In winter they break the ice at ſome diſtance from the huts, and placing ſtakes in the water they faſten nets to them. The beavers being diſturbed in their huts, by a dog ſent in for that purpoſe, immediately take to the water, when they are ſoon entangled in the net.

There is a diminutive ſpecies of beaver called the Muſk Rat, the tail of which produces a very ſtrong ſcent.

There are two ſorts of bears in this country, one of a reddiſh, and the other of a blackiſh colour.

The Indians ſcarce undertake any thing with greater ſolemnity than hunting the bear; and an alliance with a noted bear-hunter, who has killed ſeveral in one day, is more eagerly ſought after than that of one who has rendered himſelf famous in war; this chace ſupplying them both with food and raiment. The bears lodge, during the winter either in hollow trees or caves; and, as they lay up no proviſions, have no food during that ſeaſon.

The bear is not naturally fierce, except when wounded or pinched with hunger. They run themſelves very poor in the month of July; and it is ſomewhat dangerous to meet them till their hunger is ſatisfied, and they recover their fleſh, which they do very ſuddenly. They are fond of grapes, and moſt kinds of fruit. When proviſions are ſcarce in the woods they venture out among the ſettlements, and make great havock of the Indian corn, and ſometimes kill the ſwine. Their chief weapons are their fore-paws, with which they will hug any animal they ſeize immediately to death.

The buffalo of Canada is larger than that of Europe. The body is covered with a very valuable black wool, and the hide is remarkably ſoft and pliant.

Wolves are ſcarce in Canada, but they afford the fineſt furs in all the country: their fleſh is white, and good to eat, and they purſue their prey to the tops of the talleſt trees. The black foxes are greatly eſteemed, and very ſcarce; but thoſe of other colours are more common; and ſome on the Upper Miſſiſſippi are of a ſilver colour, and very beautiful. They live on water-fowls, which they decoy within their clutches by a thouſand antic tricks, and then ſpring upon them and devour them.

The Canadian poll-cat has a moſt beautiful white fur, except the tip of the tail, which is as black as jet. When purſued, he lets fly his urine, which, it is ſaid, infects the air for a quarter of a mile round; for which reaſon he is called by the inhabitants the devil's brat, or the ſtinkard.

The canadian rat is of a beautiful ſilver colour, with a buſhy tail, and as big again as the European. The female carries under her belly a bag, which ſhe opens and ſhuts at pleaſure; and in that ſhe places her young when purſued.

There are three ſorts of ſquirrels: that called the flying ſquirrel will leap forty feet and more from one tree to another. This little animal is very lively and eaſily tamed, and he puts up wherever he can find a place, in the ſleeve, pocket, or muff: he firſt pitches on his maſter, whom he will diſtinguiſh among twenty perſons.

The Canadian porcupine is leſs than a middling dog: when roaſted, he eats full as well as a ſucking pig.

The hares and rabbits differ little from thoſe of Europe, only they turn grey in winter.

Some of the rivers breed crocodiles, which differ but little from thoſe of the Nile.

Among the other animals of this country which moſt deſerve the attention of the naturaliſt is the elk, which is about the ſize of a horſe or mule. Many extraordinary medicinal qualities, particularly for curing the falling ſickneſs, are aſcribed to the hoof of the left foot of this animal. They live in cold countries, and when the winter affords them no graſs they gnaw the barks of trees.

Of the feathered creation here are eagles, falcons, partridges, red, grey and black, with long tails, which they ſpread out like a fan, and make a fine appearance. Here are alſo ſnipes, ducks, geeſe, turkies, &c. Of ſinging birds there are thruſhes and goldfinches reſembling thoſe of Europe; but the chief ſinging bird of Canada is the white bird, a ſpecies of ortolan very ſhewy and remarkable for proclaiming the return of ſpring.

The lakes are large and numerous; the chief are Lake Superior, which is 100 leagues in length, 70 broad, and contains ſeveral iſlands; the lakes Michigan, Illinois, Hurons, Ontario, Frontenac, Champlain, &c. Of the rivers, which are innumerable, the principal are, the Great River St. Lawrence, St. John, Trois Rivieres, &c. The Bay of St. Lawrence is entered between Cape Retz in Newfoundland and Cape Breton; and after doubling Cape Roſe, you ſteer into the river of the ſame name. Towards the ſouth lie the Bay and Point of Gaſpey: below this Bay is a Steep, called the Pierced Iſland, from an aperture in its middle, through which a ſloop might paſs with her ſails up. At a league diſtance from the Bored Iſland lies the iſland Bonaventure; and at a league diſtance from that the iſland Miſcon, which has an excellent harbour, and is eight leagues in circumference. A ſpring of freſh water ſpouts up to a conſiderable height in the offing, not far from this iſland. The next object that preſents itſelf in the river St. Lawrence is the iſland Anticoſti; and the current ſetting ſtrongly in upon it renders the navigation here very dangerous, in caſe of a calm, eſpecially as the iſland is lined with breakers. This iſland is narrow; but lies in the middle of the river, and extends about forty leagues from north-eaſt to ſouth-weſt.

After paſſing this iſland the navigation becomes more tolerable; but ſtill great precaution muſt be uſed. The mounts Notre Dame and Lewis lie on the larboard ſide: near the latter are ſome plantations. The next point is Trinity Point, which muſt be avoided with great care. A little higher are the Paps of Montani, ſo called from the appearance of the mountain, ſituated about two leagues from the ſhore. The land in the neighbourhood is not only unprofitable, but appears fruitful, being covered with rocks, ſands, and impenetrable thickets: it contains, however, plenty of game. On the other ſide the river, and advancing two leagues into its bed, lies the ſhoal of Manicouagu, which is the moſt dangerous in the river: it is named from a river that falls from the mountains of Labrador, and otherwiſe called the river of St. Barnabas, and the Black River. From this to Green Iſland the navigation is ſlow and uncertain, and the ſhores uncomfortable and uninhabited. Somewhat higher lies the river Saguenay, which carries ſhips 25 leagues above its mouth, where is an excellent harbour called Tadouſſac; in ſailing from which great care muſt be taken to avoid the Red Iſland or Cape Rouge, which is a dangerous rock of that colour, whoſe ſurface is equal to the water, and often proves fatal to ſhipping.

Many voyagers are of opinion, if the Canadian fiſhery was improved it would be more beneficial than the fur trade. Beſides a great variety of other fiſh in the lakes and rivers, particularly that of St. Lawrence, are ſea-wolves, ſea-cows, porpoiſes, the lencornet, the goberque, the ſea-plaiſe, ſalmon-trouts, turtles, lobſters, the chaouraſou, ſturgeon. the achigau, and the gilthead. The ſea-wolf, ſo called from its howling, is an amphibious creature. His head reſembles that of a dog: he has four very ſhort legs, of which the fore ones have nails; but the hind ones terminate in fins. The largeſt weigh 200 pounds, and are of different colours. Their fleſh is good eating; but the profit of it lies in its oil, which is proper for burning, and currying of leather. Their ſkins make excellent coverings for trunks; and though not ſo fine as Morocco leather, they preſerve their freſhneſs better, and are leſs liable to cracks. The ſhoes and boots made of thoſe ſkins let in no water, and, when properly tanned, make excellent and laſting covers for ſeats. The Canadian ſea-cow is larger than the ſea-wolf, but reſembles it in figure. It has two teeth of the thickneſs and length of a man's arm, that, when grown, look like horns, and is a very fine ivory as well as its other teeth. The ſturgeon is from eight to twelve feet long and proportionably thick, but there is a ſmall ſpecies, the fleſh of which is very delicate.

In Canada are many reptiles, among which the rattle-ſnake is the moſt remarkable for ſize and venom. The bite of this ſnake is mortal, if the root of a certain plant is not immediately applied to the wound.

The cultivated parts of this country yield large crops of Indian corn, barley, rye and other grain. Melons and grapes are produced here, as alſo the hop plant. The meadow grounds that are well watered yield excellent graſs, and feed numbers of cattle. Tobacco, in particular, thrives well, and is much cultivated.

The uncultivated parts of Canada contain the greateſt foreſts in the world. They form one continued wood unplanted by the hands of men, and to all appearance

pearance as old as the creation. Nothing can be more magnificent to the view. The trees loſe themſelves in the clouds: and ſuch is the prodigious variety of ſpecies, that even amongſt theſe perſons who have taken moſt pains, to know them, there is not one, perhaps, that is acquainted with half the number.

This province produces two ſorts of pine, the white and the red; four ſorts of furs; three ſorts of cedar and oak, the white and the red; three ſorts of walnut-trees, the hard, the ſoft, and the ſmooth; the male and female maple, white and red elms, and poplars. About November the bears and wild cats take up their habitations in the hollow elms, and remain their till April. Here are alſo cherry-trees, plumb-trees, and other fruit-trees, ſimilar to thoſe in Europe. Near Quebec is a fine lead mine, and the whole country abounds in coals.

The principal towns in Canada are Quebec, Trois Rivieres, or the Three Rivers, and Montreal. Niagara, though not extenſive, is diſtinguiſhed by a famous cataract, between 7 and 800 feet high, half a league broad, the water of which runs ſo violently, that all beaſts attempting to croſs it a quarter of a league above are ſwallowed up. It tumbles off the precipice with ſuch fury, that it makes an arch under which three men may paſs a-breaſt without danger.

Here it is neceſſary to obſerve, that the French comprehended, under the name of Canada, a very large territory, taking into their claims part of Novia Scotia, New England, and New York, on the eaſt; and, to the weſt, extending it as far as the Pacific Ocean. That part, however, which they were able to cultivate, lay chiefly on the banks of the river St. Lawrence, and the numerous ſmaller rivers which it receives. This being reduced by the Britiſh arms in the glorious year 1759, has been ſince founded into a Britiſh province, called the province of Quebec, of which the capital is a city of the ſame name, ſituated at the confluence of the rivers St. Lawrence and St. Charles, about 140 leagues from Cape Rouge or Roſiers. It is built on a rock and divided into an upper and lower town. The haven is ſafe and commodious. The houſes in both towns are of ſtone, and built in a tolerable manner. Before the city was taken by the Engliſh it made a very fine appearance.

Among the principal edifices were the epiſcopal palace; the fort or citadel, the reſidence of the governor-general; the houſe and church of the Recollects; the church of the Urſuline nuns, in which is the tomb of M. Montcalm, who commanded the French, and was mortally wounded, at the battle of Quebec, (in which, alſo, fell the gallant Wolfe, who commanded the Engliſh;) the ſumptuous college of the Jeſuits, the intendant's houſe, the royal magazines, &c. &c.

The fortifications of Quebec, at the time it was taken by the Britiſh arms, were as complete as it was poſſible to render them.

In ſailing up the river St. Lawrence from Quebec to Montreal, which is 170 miles, the eye is delighted with beautiful landſcapes, the banks, in many places being very ſteep, and ſhaded with lofty trees. The farms lie pretty cloſe all the way; ſeveral gentlemens houſes, neatly built, ſhew themſelves at intervals; and there is all the appearances of a flouriſhing colony, tho' but few towns or villages. Many fine iſlands are interſperſed in the river, and afford a picturſque view. After paſſing the Richlieu Iſlands, the air becomes ſo mild and temperate, that the voyager thinks himſelf tranſplanted to another climate; but this is only to be underſtood of the ſummer months.

The town called Trois Rivieres 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 come to trade with the inhabitants in various kinds of furs and ſkins.

Montreal is ſituated on the iſland formed by the river St. Lawrence, which is ten leagues in length, and four in breadth. While the French had poſſeſſion of Canada, both the city and iſland of Montreal were private property, and ſo well improved, that the whole iſland was a moſt delightful ſpot, and produced every thing that could adminiſter to the conveniencies of life. When it was reduced by General Amherſt, it was populous. The houſes were built in an handſome manner, and every houſe might be ſeen at one view from the harbour. This place is ſurrounded by a wall and dry ditch, and its fortifications have been improved by the Engliſh. It is nearly as large as Quebec; but ſince its conqueſt by the Britiſh arms it has ſuffered much by fire.

Before the conqueſt of the province of Canada, the different tribes of Indians inhabiting it were almoſt innumerable. But theſe people are obſerved to decreaſe in population where the Europeans are moſt numerous, owing chiefly to the immoderate uſe of ſpirituous liquors, of which they are exceſſively fond.

In the year 1774 an act was paſſed by the Parliament of Great Britain, allowing the inhabitants of the province of Quebec, profeſſing the Roman Catholic religion, the free exerciſe of the ſame, ſubject to the King's ſupremacy. By the ſame act their clergy may enjoy their accuſtomed dues and rights, but with reſpect only to perſons of their own religion; for a right is reſerved to his Majeſty to make a ſuitable proviſion for the Proteſtant clergy. In matters of property, reference is to be had to the laws of Canada; but criminal caſes are to be determined by the laws of England.

While the French were in poſſeſſion of this country the Indians ſupplied them with peltry; and the French had traders who, in the manner of the original inhabitants, traverſed the vaſt lakes and rivers in canoes, with incredible induſtry and patience, carrying their goods into the moſt remote parts of America, amongſt people unknown to any other Europeans. Thus they habituated the Indians to commerce, and they viſited the French in their ſettlements. For this purpoſe people from all parts, even from the diſtance of 1000 miles, came to the French fair at Montreal, which began in June, and ſometimes laſted three months. Many ſolemnities were obſerved on theſe occaſions; guards were placed, and the governor aſſiſted, to preſerve order in ſuch a concourſe, compoſed of ſo great a variety of ſavage nations. But ſometimes great tumults happened; and the Indians being ſo fond of brandy, frequently gave all their merchandize for a ſmall quantity of that ſpirituous liquor.

It is very remarkable, that many of theſe Indians actually paſſed by our ſettlement of Albany, in New York, and travelled upwards of 200 miles farther to Montreal, though they might have purchaſed the commodities cheaper at the former place. So great an aſcendancy had the French gained, by their inſinuating addreſs, over the minds of theſe people.

Since the Engliſh became poſſeſſed of Canada, their exports to Great Britain, in ſkins, furs, ginſeng, ſnake-root, capillaire, and wheat, have greatly increaſed, as well as the imports from Great Britain. Hence the value and importance of this trade muſt be evident. It would ſoon be increaſed to a great degree, were the river St. Lawrence always open. But the exceſſive cold, which continues there from December to April, renders all navigation impracticable. Another inconvenience ariſes from the falls of the river St Lawrence, below Montreal, which prevent large ſhips from coming to that emporium of inland commerce.

SECTION II.

NOVA SCOTIA, or NEW SCOTLAND.

Name, Situation, Extent, Boundaries, Climate, Soil, Produce, Revolutions, Diviſions, Chief Towns, &c.

THIS country obtained the name of Nova Scotia from Sir William Alexander, ſecretary to King James I. that monarch having made him the firſt grant of lands in it.

Nova

Nova Scotia is ſituated between the 43d and 49th degrees of north latitude. It is about 350 miles in length, and 250 in breadth, and bounded on the north by the river St. Lawrence, on the eaſt by the Atlantic Ocean, on the ſouth by the ſame, and on the weſt by Canada and New England.

A great part of the country conſiſts of the peninſula that is formed by the Bay of Fundy, Chenigto, and Green Bay; all the coaſt of which, from Cape Sable on the weſt, to Cape Canſo on the eaſt, is lined with ſhoals or ſands. Beſides the Bays above-mentioned, there is a great number of others all along the coaſt, particularly Gaſpé, Chaleurs, and Chedibucto, on the north-eaſt; the Bay of Iſlands, Chebucto, and La Here, on the ſouth; and the Bay of Annapolis on the ſouth ſide of the Bay of Fundy. In theſe bays, and other parts of the coaſt, are many fine roads and havens. The chief capes are thoſe of Roſieres and Gaſpé, on the north-eaſt; Capes Portage, Ecoumenac, Tourmentin, Port, Epis, Fogery, and Canſo, on the eaſt; Capes Blanco, Vert, Teodore, Dore, La Heve, and Negro, on the ſouth; Cape Sable, and Cape Fourche, on the ſouth-weſt. The rivers and lakes are very numerous. Of the former the moſt material are thoſe of St. John, Paſſamagnadi, Penobſcot, and St. Croix, which run from north and ſouth, and fall into the Bay of Fundy; and thoſe of Riſgouche and Nipiſiguit, which run from weſt to eaſt, and fall into the Gulph of St. Lawrence; and that of Chebucto, that falls into the Atlantic. Of the latter, thoſe called Keſeben and Freneuſe are very large: but there are many that have not yet received any particular names.

The climate of this country, through the ſudden tranſition from heat to cold, has been found unfavourable to European conſtitutions. A ſeven months intenſe cold is generally ſucceeded by a heat as intenſe, without the intervening and refreſhing ſeaſons of ſpring and autumn; added to which, the country is inveloped in the gloom of a fog a great part of the year.

In ſo an unfavourable climate little produce can be expected from the ſoil, which being thin and barren, the corn is of a ſhrivelled kind like rye, and the graſs intermixed with a cold ſpongy moſs. There are tracks, however, to the ſouthward, which are fertile; and, in general, the ſoil is adapted to the produce of hemp and flax. The timber is, in general, very proper for ſhip building.

There are the ſame animals here as in the neighbouring provinces, as deer, beavers, otters, wild fowl, and all ſpecies of game. Many kinds of European quadrupeds and fowls have been ſent here from time to time, and thrive well. The fiſh begin to ſpawn at the cloſe of March, when they enter the rivers in vaſt ſhoals. Herrings come up in April, and ſalmon in May. But the moſt valuable appendage to Nova Scotia is Cape-Sable coaſt, along which is one continued range of cod fiſhing banks, and excellent large harbours.

This country has often reverted from one private proprietor to another, and from the French to the Engliſh nation. It was ceded to the French by the treaty of Breda in 1661; but being afterwards taken by the Engliſh, it was, by the treaty of Utrecht, yielded up to them.

From divers political motives, a reſolution was taken in the year 1749, to form a ſettlement in this province at the expence of government. Purſuant to the ſame, 3000 Britiſh families were tranſported hither, and a town was erected on the Bay of Chebucto, and called Halliſax, in honour of the Earl of Halliſax, to whoſe wiſdom and care we owe this ſettlement.

The town of Halliſax is very commodiouſly ſituated for the fiſhery, and has a communication with moſt parts of the province, either by land carriage, the ſea, or navigable rivers, with an excellent harbour for ſhipping. It has an intrenchment, ſtrengthened with forts of timber. The trade of the inhabitants is in fiſh, furs, and naval ſtores.

The other towns of leſs note are Annapolis-Royal, which, though but ſmall, was once the capital of the province. It has one of the fineſt harbours in America, capable of containing 1000 veſſels to anchor, in the utmoſt ſecurity.

St. John's is a new ſettlement at the mouth of the river of that name.

Before Canada was ceded to the Engliſh, that colony ſuffered greatly from the incurſions of the Indians, inſomuch that the people could hardly extend themſelves beyond the reach of the cannon of the fort, or attend their works, even in that confined circle, without the greateſt danger.

In the year 1784 this province was divided into two governments, viz. New Scotland and New Brunſwick. The latter is bounded on the weſtward of the river St. Croix by the ſaid river to its ſource, and by a line drawn due north from thence to the ſouthern boundary of Quebec; to the northward of the ſame boundary as far as the weſtern extremity of the Bay of Chaleurs; to the eaſtward by the ſaid bay to the Gulph of St. Lawrence, to the bay called Bay Verte; to the ſouth by a line in the center of the Bay of Fundy, from the center of St. Croix aforeſaid to the mouth of the Muſquat river; by the ſaid river to its ſource, and from thence by a due eaſt line acroſs the iſthmus into the Bay Verte, to join the eaſtern lot above deſcribed, including all iſlands within ſix leagues of the coaſt.

Since the concluſion of the American war, the emigration of loyaliſts to this province from the United States has been very great. By them new towns have been raiſed, particularly Shelburne, which extends two miles on the water-ſide, contains a great number of houſes, and many thouſand inhabitants.

CHAP. V.

UNITED STATES OF AMERICA.

INTRODUCTION.

WITHOUT entering on the particulars relative to the war between Great Britain and her American Colonies, which terminated the eſtabliſhment of the United States of America, as theſe are univerſally known, it may ſuffice, by way of introduction to this part of our work, to remark, that on the 4th of July, 1776, the congreſs publiſhed a ſolemn declaration, ſetting forth the cauſes of their withdrawing their allegiance from the crown of Great Britain.

They ſtated, in the name, and by the authority, of the united colonies of New Hampſhire, Maſſachuſett's Bay, Rhode Iſland and Providence Plantations, Connecticut, New York, New Jerſey, Pennſylvania, Delaware, Maryland, Virginia, North Carolina, South Carolina, and Georgia, that they then were, and, of right, ought, to be Free and Independent States, and that, as ſuch, they had full power to levy war, conclude peace, contract alliances, eſtabliſh commerce, and perform all other acts and things, which independent ſtates may of right do. They alſo publiſhed articles of confederation and perpetual union between the united colonies, in which they aſſumed the title of "*The United States of America.*"

A NEW & ACCURATE MAP of NORTH AMERICA

INCLUDING NOOTKA SOUND:
with the new discovered
ISLANDS
on the North East coast of
ASIA.

89 H

Published as the Act directs. by C. Cooke N.o 17 Paternoster Row.

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For the more convenient management of the general intereſts of theſe ſtates, it was determined, that delegates ſhould be annually appointed in ſuch manner as the legiſlature of each ſtate ſhould direct, to meet in congreſs on the firſt Monday in November of every year, with a power reſerved in each ſtate to recall its delegates, or any of them, at any time within the year, or to ſend others in their ſtead, for the remainder of the year. In determining queſtions in the United States, in congreſs aſſembled, each ſtate is to have one vote. Every ſtate is to abide by the determination of the United States in congreſs aſſembled, on all queſtions ſubmitted to them by the confederation. The articles of the confederation are to be inviolably obſerved by every ſtate, and the union is to be perpetual: nor is any alteration, at any time hereafter, to be made in any of them, unleſs ſuch alteration be agreed to in a congreſs of the United States, and to be afterwards confirmed by the legiſlature of every ſtate.

On the 30th of January, 1778, the French King concluded a treaty of amity and commerce with the Thirteen United Colonies of America, as independent ſtates. Holland acknowledged them as ſuch April 19, 1782: and on the 30th of November 1782, proviſional articles were ſigned at Paris by the Britiſh and American commiſſioners, in which his Britannic Majeſty acknowledged the thirteen colonies to be free, ſovereign, and independent ſtates; and theſe articles were afterwards ratified by a definitive treaty. Sweden acknowledged them as ſuch February 5, 1783; Denmark 25th of February, 1783; Spain in March, and Ruſſia in July, 1783.

SECTION I.

NEW ENGLAND.

Situation. Extent. Boundaries. Diviſions. Climate. Soil. Produce. Articles of Exportation and Importation. Inland Trade. Religion. Government. Deſcription of particular Colonies and Towns.

NEW England is ſituated between the 41ſt and 45th degrees of north latitude, and 67th and 73d degrees of weſt longitude. It is bounded by Canada on the north-weſt; by Nova Scotia, or Arcadia, on the north-eaſt; by the Atlantic Ocean on the eaſt and ſouth; and by the province of New York on the weſt; being 550 miles long. It comprehends four colonies, viz. New Hampſhire, Maſſachuſetts Bay, Rhode Iſland and Providence Plantation, and Connecticut.

The ſummers in New England are but of ſhort duration. For the ſpace of two months the ſky is perfectly clear, which renders the country ſo healthy, that it is ſaid to agree better with Britiſh conſtitutions than any other of the American provinces. The winters are here long and ſevere, the wind often boiſterous, and the air extremely ſharp, but not intolerable. Naturaliſts aſcribe the early approach, and the length and ſeverity of the winters, to the large freſh water-lakes lying to the north-weſt of New England, which being conſtantly frozen over from the beginning of November to June or July, occaſion thoſe piercing winds, which prove ſo fatal to mariners on this coaſt. Towards the ſea the land is generally low, and frequently marſhy; but in the country it riſes into hills, and on the north-eaſt becomes altogether rocky and mountainous.

The ſoil about the Maſſachuſetts Bay is black, and the graſs rank, but the uplands are fruitful. The fruits of Old England come to great perfection here; and the country in general produces corn, pulſe, eſculent plants, Indian corn, and all kinds of timber. The oaks here are inferior to thoſe of Old England; but the firs are of a prodigious bulk; and they draw from theſe and other trees, pitch, tar, roſin, turpentine, gums, and balm: the ſoil alſo producing hemp and flax, a ſhip may be built, and rigged out, with the produce thereof.

There is here great abundance and variety of fowl, as geeſe, ducks, turkies, hens, partridges, widgeons, ſwans, herons, heathcocks, pigeons, &c. nor is the feathered kind in greater plenty than the quadrupeds, more immediately neceſſary to human ſubſiſtence and convenience. All kinds of European cattle thrive and multiply exceedingly. The horſes of the province are hardy, mettleſome, and ſerviceable, but ſmall. Here are alſo elks, deer, hares, rabbits, ſquirrels, beavers, otters, monkies, racoons, ſables, bears, wolves, foxes, together with a variety of other tame and wild quadrupeds: but the moſt extraordinary of theſe animals is the moſe, or mooſe deer; the black ſpecies of which is about 12 feet high, with four horns, and broad palms, ſome diſtant near 12 feet from the tip of one horn to the other. His body is about the ſize of a bull; his neck reſembles a ſtag's; his tail is ſomewhat longer, and his fleſh extremely grateful. The light-coloured mooſe, called *wampoon* by the Indians, is of a ſmaller ſtature, and much more common than the black. The rattle-ſnake is another natural curioſity of New England, though not peculiar to it.

The ſurrounding ſeas, and interſecting rivers, afford abundance of fiſh; conſequently there are many fiſheries, particularly for cod and mackarel.

Sugar-baking, diſtilling, paper-making, and the ſalt-works, are improveable; and the iron-mines are conſiderable.

The people export biſcuit, meal, ſalt proviſions, ſometimes cattle and horſes, planks, hoops, ſhingles, pipe-ſtaves, butter, cheeſe, grain, oil, tallow, turpentine, bark, calf-ſkins, tobacco, apples, cyder, and onions. They import, in return, ſugar, cotton, ginger, and various other commodities. From Europe they import wine, ſilks, woollen cloths, toys, hardware, linen, ribbons, ſtuffs, laces, paper, houſehold furniture, huſbandry tools of all kinds, cordage, hats, ſtockings, ſhoes, and India goods. They manufacture coarſe linen and woollen cloth for their own uſe. Hats are alſo made here, and find a good ſale in the other colonies. The buſineſs of ſhip-building was one of the greateſt and moſt profitable employments of this country.

The inland trade, beſides maſts, yards, and proviſions of all kinds, conſiſts chiefly of furs, and the ſkins of beavers and martins. The furs and ſkins are brought in by the Indians, eſpecially thoſe on the rivers Penobſcot and St. John.

In New England every ſect of Chriſtians is allowed the free exerciſe of their own mode of religion, and is equally under the protection of law.

With reſpect to the government of New England previous to the revolt of the colonies, the appointment of a governor, lieutenant-governor, ſecretary, and all the officers of the admiralty, was veſted in the crown. The power of the militia was wholly in the hands of the governor as captain-general. All judges, juſtices, and ſheriffs, to whom the execution of the law was entruſted, were nominated by the governor, with the advice of the council. The governor had a negative on the choice of counſellors, preremptory and unlimited. He was not obliged to give a reaſon for what he did in this particular, or reſtrained to any number. Authentic copies of the ſeveral acts paſſed by this colony, as well as others, were tranſmitted to the court of England for the royal approbation: but if the laws of this colony were not repealed within three years after they were preſented, they were not repealable by the crown after that time. No laws, ordinances, elections of magiſtrates, or acts of government whatſoever, were valid without the governor's conſent in writing.

But this mode of government has been totally changed with the revolution that ſince took place, of which we have already given an account. It was on the 25th of July, 1776, that, by an order from the council at Boſton, the declaration of the American congreſs, abſolving the united colonies from their allegiance to the Britiſh crown, and declaring them free and independent,

was publicly proclaimed from the balcony of the ſtate houſe in that town.

A conſtitution, or form of government, for the common wealth of Maſſachuſett's, including a declaration of rights, was agreed to, and took place, in October, 1780. This government was formed abſolutely upon republican principles, both in a civil and religious ſenſe.

The Maſſachuſetts colony received its name from the Indians who inhabited theſe parts when the Engliſh firſt came hither. It is ſubdivided into the provinces of Plymouth, Maſſachuſetts Proper, and Maine.

Plymouth province is divided into the counties of Briſtol, Plymouth, and Barnſtaple. Briſtol, the chief town of the county of that name, is large and populous, has a commodious harbour, and is well ſituated for trade.

In the province of Maſſachuſetts Proper are the counties of Suffolk, Middleſex, and Eſſex. Their chief towns are Boſton, Cambridge, and Salem.

Boſton is not only the chief town of Maſſachuſetts Proper, but of all New England. It ſtands on a peninſula at the bottom of Maſſachuſetts Bay, about eight miles from its mouth, and is well fortified. The approach to the harbour by ſhipping is narrow, but within it there is room enough for 500 ſail to lie at anchor, in a good depth of water. On one of the iſlands of the bay ſtands fort William, the moſt regular fortreſs belonging to the United States. No ſhip can approach the town without paſſing directly under the guns of the fort. About two leagues from the city is a light-houſe, erected on a rock. At the bottom of the bay, which is very ſpacious, is a pier, near 2000 feet in length, with a row of merchants warehouſes on the north ſide. The city lies in the ſhape of a half-moon round the harbour, being in length about two miles, and in ſome places near three quarters of a mile broad. The principal ſtreet runs from the pier up to the town-houſe, which is a handſome building, with walks for the merchants. This edifice contains the courts of juſtice, the council-chamber, and the houſe of repreſentatives. There are ſome places of public worſhip, and other ſtructures, both ſpacious and elegant.

Cambridge Town, commonly called Newton, is ſituated on the northern branch of Charles's river, about three miles from Boſton, in which are ſeveral good ſtreets: but it is moſt conſiderable for its univerſity, conſiſting of two colleges, called by the names of Haverford College and Stoughton-Hall. The univerſity is governed by a preſident, five fellows, and the treaſurer, who have each of them a competent revenue ſettled on them.

At Lexington, in the county of Middleſex, the firſt blood was ſhed in the unhappy conteſt between Great Britain and the colonies. Charles Town, oppoſite to Boſton, was ſet on fire in the attack of Bunker's Hill.

Salem is ſituated on a plain between two rivers, on each of which it has a harbour about 18 miles north of Boſton. Its principal buſineſs is ſhip-building, particularly the conſtruction of fiſhing-ſmacks.

The province of Maine contains the two counties of York and Cornwall, of which the chief towns are Scarborough and Falmouth.

The chief towns of the province of New Hampſhire are Hampton, Portſmouth, and Exeter, all of which lie near the mouth of the river Piſcataqua.

The colony of Connecticut is about 100 miles in length, and 70 in breadth. Connecticut River, which is one of the largeſt in New England, runs through the heart of the province, and is navigable about 40 miles for large veſſels, and much farther for ſmall ones. This colony abounds in metals and naval ſtores, eſpecially timber, and has many good ports. The colony is divided into four counties, and its chief towns are Newhaven, Hertford, and New London.

Newhaven ſtands upon the coaſt, and has a college for academical learning, called Yale-Hall, pretty well endowed, and furniſhed with a good library.

Hertford is a handſome, populous town, ſituated on the banks of Connecticut River.

New London is a town of good trade, ſituated on the weſt ſide, and near the mouth of the river, called Thames.

Connecticut is deemed, in proportion to its extent, to exceed every other colony of America, as well in the abundance of people, as cultivation of ſoil. The men, in general, are robuſt, ſtout, and tall. The greateſt care is taken of the limbs and bodies of infants, which are kept ſtrait by means of a board; a practice learned of the Indian women; ſo that deformity is here a rarity. The women are handſome and genteel in their perſons, and modeſt and reſerved in their behaviour. They do not follow idle amuſements, but employ their time in ſuch purſuits as tend to the improvement of the mind. The people here are very hoſpitable to ſtrangers.

In no part of the world are the people in general ſo independent, or poſſeſs more of the conveniencies of life, than in New England. They are uſed, from their infancy, to the exerciſe of arms: and before the conteſt with the mother country, they had a militia which was by no means contemptible: but their military ſtrength is now much more conſiderable.

The colony of Rhode Iſland comprehends a diſtrict on the continent, called Providence Plantation. The iſland, which is about 15 or 16 miles long, and about four or five broad, is called the Paradiſe of New England, from the fruitfulneſs of the ſoil, and the temperateneſs of the climate.

Providence Plantation, which lies oppoſite to Rhode Iſland, is about 20 miles ſquare, and has two large towns, one of which is called Providence, and the other Warwick.

The lovers of literature cannot but feel a ſatisfaction when they are reminded that, notwithſtanding the calamities of a war, carried on with the utmoſt animoſity by the parties engaged on each ſide, the council and houſe of repreſentatives of Maſſachuſetts Bay, paſſed an act in May 1780, for incorporating and eſtabliſhing a ſociety for the cultivation and promotion of the arts and ſciences, intitled "The American Academy of Arts and Sciences."

SECTION II.

NEW YORK.

THE colony of New York is ſituated between 40 and 46 degrees of north latitude. Its length is about 300 miles, and its breadth about 150. This province, including the Iſland of New York, Long Iſland, and Staten Iſland, is divided into the ten following counties, New York, Albany, Ulſter, Ducheſs, Orange, Weſt Cheſter, King's, Queen's, Suffolk, and Richmond. The chief towns are New York, Albany, and Schnectady.

The principal rivers are Hudſons, the Mohawk, and the Delaware. The former abounds with excellent harbours and a great variety of fiſh. On the Mohawk is a large cataract, called the Cohoes, or great Waterfall. This ſurpriſing cataract is a quarter of a mile broad, and 70 feet deep. The water precipitating itſelf from ſeveral rocks which project from the reſt, falls down on every ſide in torrents, and being broken near the bottom by many ſeparate crags, riſes in a white froth. From the whole ariſes a miſty cloud, that deſcends like ſmall rain, and exhibits, when the ſun ſhines, a beautiful rainbow. The chief lakes are George, Champlain, and Ontaria.

As New York lies to the ſouthward of New England, it enjoys a more happy temperature of climate. The air of this province is very ſalutary. The face of the country, reſembling that of the neighbouring colonies, is low, flat, and marſhy, towards the ſea. As you recede from the coaſt, the eye is entertained with the gradual

gradual ſwelling of hills, which become large in proportion as you advance into the country.

The ſoil is very fertile in moſt parts of the province, producing wheat, rye, Indian corn, barley, flax, and fruits, in great abundance and perfection. The timber is nearly the ſame with that of New England. A great deal of iron, and of excellent quality, is found here.

The animals, in general, of this province, are the ſame with thoſe of New England.

The city of New York ſtands on the ſouth-weſt end of York Iſland, which is about twelve miles long, and three broad, and extremely well ſituated for trade, at the mouth of Hudſon's River, being a noble conveyance from Albany, and many other towns towards Canada and the lakes. This city is about a mile in length, and half a mile in breadth. The city and harbour are defended by a fort and battery. In the fort is a ſpacious manſion-houſe for the uſe of the governor. Some of the houſes are elegant; and the city, though irregularly built, affords a fine proſpect. A fourth part of the city was burnt down by ſome incendiaries in 1776, on the King's troops taking it. A great part of the inhabitants are deſcended from the Dutch families who remained here after the ſurrender of the New Netherlands to the Engliſh.

No part of America is better ſupplied with markets, abounding with great plenty and variety of proviſions. It is at once the metropolis and grand mart of the province, and, by its commodious ſituation, commands alſo the trade of the weſtern part of Connecticut, and that of Eaſt Jerſey. No ſeaſon prevents ſhips from putting to ſea; and during the ſevereſt part of the winter, an equal activity runs through all ranks, orders, and employments.

The town of New Albany is ſituated on the weſtern banks of Hudſon's River, about 150 miles from New York. The houſes are built with brick in the Dutch taſte. The public buildings are two churches, the fort, and town-hall.

Saratoga, a ſmall fort to the northward of Albany, was the place where a combined army of Britiſh and Heſſians, ſurrendered priſoners of war to the Americans, in October 1777.

About 16 miles north-weſt of Albany lies Schenectady, ſituate on the banks of the Mohawk River. It is compact and regularly built. It has a large Dutch church; and the windings of the river through the place and the adjacent fields, which are overflowed in the ſpring, form a moſt beautiful proſpect about harveſt time. The lands are remarkably fertile.

Kingſton has a number of inhabitants, and is a well-built town.

With reſpect to religion, it is ordained by the late conſtitution of New York, that the free exerciſe of profeſſion and worſhip, without diſcrimination or preference, ſhall be allowed by that ſtate to all mankind. About the year 1755 a college was erected by the aſſembly; but the members being at that time divided into parties, it was formed on a contracted plan, and for that reaſon never met with the encouragement which might naturally have been expected of a public ſeminary in ſo populous a city.

The commerce of New York does not eſſentially differ from that of New England. The chief commodities of trade are wheat, flour, barley, oats, beef, and other kinds of animal food. They have a ſhare in the log-wood trade, and that which is carried on with the Spaniſh and French plantations. Their European trade is the ſame with that of New England, and they import the ſame ſpecies of commodities.

The Dutch and Swedes were the firſt Europeans who formed ſettlements on this part of the American coaſt. They called it the New Netherlands, and continued in poſſeſſion of it till the reign of Charles II. when it was taken by the Engliſh in 1664. The Dutch, to balance this conqueſt, made themſelves maſters of Surinam, then belonging to the Engliſh. At the treaty of Breda in 1667 the New Netherlands were ceded to the Engliſh, and Surinam to the Dutch. The New Netherlands had not been long in our poſſeſſion before they were divided into provinces, and New York took its name from the king's brother James duke of York, to whom his majeſty granted it, with full powers of government by letters patent. On the acceſſion of king James to the throne this province became a royal government. The king appointed the governor and council, and the people, once in ſeven years, elected their repreſentatives to ſerve in general aſſemblies. Theſe three branches of the legiſlature had power to make any laws not repugnant to thoſe of England, but in order to their being valid, the royal aſſent was firſt to be obtained.

In 1777 the ſupreme legiſlative power was veſted in two ſeparate and diſtinct bodies of men; the one to be called "The aſſembly of the State of New York," to conſiſt of ſeventy members annually choſen by ballot; and the other, "The Senate of the State of New York," to conſiſt of twenty-four for four years, who together were to form the legiſlature, and to meet once at leaſt in every year for the diſpatch of buſineſs. The ſupreme executive power was to be veſted in a governor, who was to continue in office three years, aſſiſted by four counſellors choſen by and from the ſenate. Every male inhabitant of full age who ſhould poſſeſs a freehold of the value of twenty pounds, or have rented a tenement of the yearly value of forty ſhillings, and been rated and have paid taxes to the ſtate for ſix months preceding the election, was entitled to vote for members of the aſſembly; but thoſe who voted for the governor and members of the ſenate were to be poſſeſſed of freeholds of the value of one hundred pounds. The delegates to the congreſs, the judges, &c. were to be choſen by ballot of the ſenate and aſſembly.

Before we cloſe our account of this province, it will be neceſſary to obſerve, that the north-weſt parts of it are inhabited by five Indian nations called Iroquois. Theſe people, by their unanimity, firmneſs, military ſkill and policy, raiſed themſelves to the greateſt and moſt formidable power in America.

As their manner of carrying on war is implacable and barbarous, they reign the lords of a prodigious deſert inhabited only by a few ſcattered inſignificant tribes, whom they have permitted to live out of a contempt of their power, and who are in the loweſt ſtate of ſubjection.

Every nation of the Iroquois is a diſtinct republic, governed by their ſachems, or civil magiſtrates, in times of peace, and by their warriors or captains in their wars: but their chiefs never reſolve on, or execute, any thing of importance without conſulting the heads of their tribes.

They are very ſtrict in obſerving the oaths they ſwear to each other, eſpecially thoſe which their warriors make of ſtanding by one another to the laſt. Theſe they keep to ſuch a degree as to hazard their lives to reſcue the bare carcaſes of their fallen brethren.

They commonly make a kind of feaſt over the grave, and put into it wheat, tobacco, and every thing they think the deceaſed may want in the other world.

The women are very prolific, yet they do moſt of the drudgery, ſuch as grinding the wheat, fetching of wood, water, and the like. The children are often ſo ſtubborn, that if they are found fault with, the girls will diſpatch themſelves with ſome poiſonous weed, and the boys with a gun. The buſineſs of the men is hunting, going to war, building their huts, felling timber, tilling the ground, and the like.

SECTION III.

NEW JERSEY.

THIS province is ſituated between 39 and 43 deg. of north latitude. It is bounded on the north by New York, on the ſouth by Delaware Bay, on the eaſt by the Atlantic Ocean, and on the weſt by Pennſylvania.

nia. It is about 160 miles in length, and near 60 in breadth.

New Jerſey compriſes two diviſions, eaſt and weſt. The eaſt diviſion contains the counties of Middleſex, Monmouth, Eſſex, Somerſet and Bergen. The weſt thoſe of Burlington, Glouceſter, Salem, Cumberland, Cape May, Huntingdon, Morris and Suſſex.

The principal rivers are the Delaware, Raritan and Paſſaick. On the latter is a ſtupendous cataract. The height of the rock from which the water falls is about 70 feet perpendicular, and the breadth of the river at the fall 80 yards.

The air of New Jerſey is ſalubrious, and the climate nearly the ſame with that of New York; but the ſummers are ſomething longer, and the cold in winter leſs ſevere. The ſoil is various: one fourth of the province is barren ſandy land; the other is good, and ſome of it very fertile.

The animal and vegetable productions here are, in general, the ſame with thoſe in New England. The ſandy parts of the country produce pines and cedars, and the arable lands good crops of excellent wheat, barley, rye, Indian corn, &c. together with a great variety of delicious fruits.

In the country of Bergen there is a very valuable copper mine, which is worked to great advantage; excellent iron ore is alſo found in ſeveral parts of the province.

The foreign trade of this province is not extenſive, owing principally to its vicinity to the large trading towns of New York and Philadelphia. The principal exports are, wheat, flour, copper ore, pig and bar iron, and black cattle, which they drive in great numbers to Philadelphia, on the rich paſtures of which they are fed for ſome time before they are ſent to market and killed.

The chief towns in New Jerſey are, Perth-Amboy and Burlington. They were once ſeats of government, but the governors generally reſided at the latter. Perth-Amboy is commodiouſly ſituated at the mouth of the river Raritan. The town is not very large, but the houſes are neat, and ſome of them elegant. It has a good port, and the harbour is ſafe and capacious to contain many large ſhips.

Burlington is pleaſantly ſituated in a ſmall iſland formed by the river Delaware, about twenty miles from Philadelphia. It ſtands commodiouſly for trade, is well built, has a large town-houſe, and two bridges (called London and York bridges) over the branch of the Delaware, which ſeparates it from the main land.

New Jerſey was part of the New Netherlands, which, as before obſerved, was given by Charles II. to his brother James duke of York. He ſold it to lord Berkley and Sir George Carteret, and as the latter was before poſſeſſed of eſtates in the iſland of Jerſey, the ſame name was given to this province. It was ſold by theſe proprietors to others, who, in the year 1702, ſurrendered their charter to Queen Anne, after which it became a royal government. From that time to the revolt of the colonies its government was much the ſame as that of the colonies in general. But by the new charter of rights eſtabliſhed in 1776, it is veſted in a governor, legiſlative council, and general aſſembly. The members of the legiſlative council are to be freeholders, and worth at leaſt 1000l. real perſonal eſtate, and the members of the general aſſembly to be worth 500l.

All inhabitants worth 50l. are entitled to vote for repreſentatives in council and aſſembly, and for all other public officers. The governor and lieutenant-governor to be choſen out of, and by, the aſſembly and council. The judges of the ſupreme court are choſen for ſeven years, the officers of the executive power for five years, and the provincial treaſurer for only one year.

All religious ſects are tolerated here, and enjoy their reſpective tenets and modes of worſhip without moleſtation.

In the year 1746, governor Beldrier founded a college at Prince-Town, and procured it the privilege of conferring degrees in the ſame manner as at Oxford or Cambridge. Before the late unhappy diſſentions ſtudents came here from all parts of the continent.

SECTION IV.

PENNSYLVANIA.

THIS province is ſituated between 39 and 44 deg. of north latitude, and 72 and 78 deg. of weſt longitude. It is about 300 miles in length and 240 in breadth. It is bounded on the north by the country of the Iroquois, on the ſouth by Maryland, on the eaſt by the river Delaware, and on the weſt by the river Ohio.

Pennſylvania is divided into ſeven counties. The upper are thoſe of Buckingham, Philadelphia, Cheſter and Lancaſter: the three lower counties are, Newcaſtle, Kent and Suſſex. Theſe, though originally appertaining to Pennſylvania, have a ſeparate government of their own, and as ſuch were diſtinguiſhed at the eſtabliſhment of the United States of America, being ſpecified in the liſt of thoſe ſtates under the appellation of "The State of Delaware," as they are ſituated on the river of that name.

The chief rivers are the Delaware, which is navigable more than 200 miles above Philadelphia. The Suſquehana and Schuylkill, which are alſo navigable a conſiderable way up the country. Theſe rivers, with the numerous creeks and harbours in Delaware Bay, are admirably ſuited to the trade of the province.

The air of this country is ſweet, ſerene, and clear. Autumn ſets in about the 20th of October; winter the beginning of December, and continues till March, during which the weather is extremely cold, the froſts being very intenſe. Spring begins in March, and continues till June. The ſummer ſeaſon includes the months of July, Auguſt, and September, when the heat would be intolerable, were it not mitigated by frequent cool breezes.

The ſoil is fertile, producing a variety of trees, fruits, and vegetables in general. The animal productions are much the ſame with thoſe of New England.

It may be remarked in general, that in all the plantations from New York to the ſouthern extremity, the woods are full of vines of divers ſpecies, and all different from thoſe we have in Europe. But whether from ſome defect in their nature, or want of ſkill in the planters, they have not been known to produce any wine that deſerves to be mentioned; though the Indians from them make a kind of wine with which they regale themſelves. It may further be obſerved, that the timber of the ſouthern colonies is not ſo good for ſhipping as that of the northern, becauſe it is leſs compact, and ſplits more eaſily; properties which, though leſs ſerviceable in ſhip-building, render it more uſeful for ſtaves and wainſcotting.

The province of Pennſylvania contains many conſiderable cities and towns, as German Town, Cheſter, Oxford, Radnor, &c. But the city of Philadelphia ſtands unrivalled in America, and therefore deſerves principal attention. It was built after the plan of the famous Penn, the founder and legiſlator of this colony, and lies between two navigable rivers, the Delaware, which terminates it on the north, and the Skoolkill on the ſouth. It forms an oblong of near two miles in length. The ſtreets are wide and ſpacious, and exactly ſtrait and parallel to each other. The houſes are, in general, well built, and make a handſome appearance, ſeveral of the public buildings being elegant. Every owner of 1000 acres has his houſe in one of the two fronts facing the river, or in the high ſtreet, running from the middle of the one front to the middle of the other. In the center of the city is a ſquare of ten acres, encompaſſed by the town houſe and other public buildings. There are noble barracks, and a ſpacious quay, with wet

wet and dry docks for building and repairing ſhips; beſides magazines, warehouſes, and all other conveniences for exporting and importing merchandize. The governor's ſeat is a moſt magnificent building. In a word, nothing can well appear more beautiful than this city and the adjacent country, which, for ſome miles, may be compared to a fine and flouriſhing garden.

The other towns in Pennſylvania are German Town, Oxford, Radnor, Cheſter, Chicheſter, and Newcaſtle. German Town is a thriving, populous place, inhabited moſtly by Germans. At Cheſter and Chicheſter are ports ſufficient to receive and ſecure the largeſt fleets from ſtorms. Newcaſtle carries on a conſiderable trade, and has an iron mine in its neighbourhood.

This country, forming a part of what was called the New Netherlands, was originally poſſeſſed by the Dutch and Swedes. After Admiral Penn, who, in conjunction with Colonel Venables, had ſome years before taken the Iſland of Jamaica, being in favour with Charles the Second, obtained a promiſe of this country from that monarch.

Upon his death his ſon, the celebrated quaker, claimed the royal promiſe, and, after a tedious court ſolicitation, obtained the grant of this province in 1679, and called it Pennſylvania, or Penn's Country. The ſituation of the times induced great numbers to follow him into his new ſettlement, to avoid the perſecutions to which the quakers were then particularly expoſed. But it was to his own wiſdom and ability that they were indebted for that charter of privileges which placed this colony on ſo reſpectable a footing. That great man laid down civil and religious liberty as the chief foundation of all his inſtitutions. His generoſity extended to the Indian nations; for inſtead of taking immediate advantage of his patent, he purchaſed of them the lands he had obtained by grant; judging that the original property, and eldeſt right, were veſted in them. By this act of juſtice in the beginning, he rendered all his future dealings with thoſe people ſucceſsful. Prepoſſeſſed with a favourable opinion of him as to his deſigns, they were ſo far from annoying the ſettlers, that they were ready to give them aſſiſtance whenever it was wanted. In fine, Mr. Penn, by purſuing an equitable plan, ſoon eſtabliſhed this colony, which may be ſaid to have attained to a degree of ſuperiority over the reſt.

There were in the city of Philadelphia a great number of wealthy merchants, which is not ſurpriſing, when we conſider the great trade which it carried on with divers nations in different quarters of the globe. The imports and exports, therefore, muſt have been very conſiderable.

The general congreſs aſſembled at the city of Philadelphia in 1774, and continued their meetings till it was taken by the Britiſh arms in 1777. But the enſuing ſummer the Britiſh troops retreated to New York, and the congreſs met at Philadelphia as before.

By the conſtitution eſtabliſhed by general convention at Philadelphia, in September, 1776, the ſupreme legiſlative power of Pennſylvania is veſted in an aſſembly of repreſentatives, choſen annually by ballot; and the executive power in a preſident and council of twelve, choſen by the freemen. Delegates to congreſs are choſen by ballot, out of, and by, the aſſembly.

The legiſlature of the ſtate of Delaware is, by the convention in the ſame year and month as the former, compoſed of two diſtinct bodies; the houſe of aſſembly, choſen annually by the freeholders of the counties of Newcaſtle, Kent, and Suſſex; and the council of nine members, choſen in like manner. The executive power is a preſident, choſen out of the general aſſembly by joint ballot, and a privy council of two of the legiſlative council, and two of the houſe of aſſembly. Delegates to congreſs are annually to be elected by, and out of, the general aſſembly, by ballot; and the officers of ſtate, civil and military, choſen by the preſident and general aſſembly.

Religious liberty is founded in Pennſylvania on the moſt ample baſis, ſo that here are Chriſtians of all denominations, and they live together in the utmoſt harmony. In the ſmall town of Ephrata, in the county of Suſſex, there is an extraordinary religious ſect called Dunkards, a very harmleſs and inoffenſive ſet of people.

A German hermit, who ſettled on the ſpot where Ephrata is now built, was the founder of this ſect. The fame of his ſolitude inſpired ſome of his countrymen with curioſity; and the ſimplicity of his life, with the piety of his converſation, induced them to join and imitate him. A people who leave their native country to enjoy liberty of conſcience can bear all ſubſequent mortifications. The Germans of both ſexes, who joined the hermit, ſoon accuſtomed themſelves to his way of thinking, and conſequently to his manner of living. Induſtry became part of their duty, and divided their time with devotion. Their gains are thrown into one common ſtock, which ſupplies all their exigences, private as well as public. Their families are cloiſtered up by themſelves in a ſeparate part of the town, the ſituation of which is delightful, and ſcreens them from the north wind. It is triangular, and fenced round with thick rows of apple, beech, and cherry trees, beſides having an orchard in the middle. The houſes, which are of wood, are moſtly three ſtories high; and every perſon has a ſeparate apartment, that he may not be diſturbed in his devotions. The women never ſee the men but at public worſhip, or when it is neceſſary to conſult upon matters of public œconomy. Their garb is the moſt ſimple that can well be imagined, being a long white woollen gown in winter, and linen in the ſummer, with a cape, which ſerves them for a hat, like that of a capuchin behind, and faſtened round the waiſt with a belt. Under the gown they wear a waiſtcoat of the ſame materials, a coarſe ſhirt, trowſers, and ſhoes. The dreſs of the women is the ſame, only, inſtead of trowſers, they wear petticoats; and when they leave their nunnery (for ſuch it is) they muffle up their faces in their capuchins. The diet of the Dunkards conſiſts chiefly of vegetables: but it is no principle with them to abſtain from animal food, only they think that ſuch abſtinence is moſt agreeable to a Chriſtian life. This temperance emaciates their bodies, and, as the men ſuffer their beards to grow to their full length, gives them a hollow ghaſtly appearance. Their beds are no better than benches; a little wooden block ſerves them for a pillow; and they celebrate public worſhip twice every day, and as often every night. But though ſuch modes of life appear abſurd and impracticable, the Dunkards are far from being extravagant. Their chapel is very decent: and they have, upon a fine ſtream, a griſt-mill, a paper-mill, an oil-mill, and a mill for pearl barley, all of them moſt ingeniouſly conſtructed by themſelves. They have even a printing-office. They are, eſpecially the nuns, extremely ingenious in working, and in embelliſhments of all ſorts. Though the two ſexes live ſeparate from each other in their town, the Dunkards are far from being averſe to matrimony. In this caſe the parties muſt, indeed, leave the town; but they are ſupplied out of the public fund with whatever is neceſſary for their ſettling elſewhere. This ſect, among themſelves, know nothing but harmony and mutual affection; every one chearfully performs the taſk of induſtry aſſigned him; and their hoſpitality to ſtrangers is unbounded; but their principles forbid them to receive the ſmalleſt recompence.

Among the ſeveral different ſects in Philadelphia, that of the Moravians is none of the leaſt conſiderable. The wildneſs and extravagance of this ſect are well known all over Europe; but though they have a kind of chapel here, their principal ſettlement is at a place called Bethlehem, near ſixty miles from the city of Philadelphia.

SECTION V.

MARYLAND.

THIS province is ſituated between 38 and 40 degrees of north latitude, and between 74 and 80 degrees weſt longitude. It is about 140 miles in length, and 135 in breadth; and is bounded by Pennſylvania on the north, by Virginia on the ſouth, by the Atlantic Ocean on the eaſt, and by the Apalachian mountains on the weſt.

Maryland is divided into two parts by the Bay of Cheſapeak, viz. the eaſtern and weſtern diviſions. The eaſtern diviſion contains the counties of Worceſter, Somerſet, Dorſet, Talbot, Cecil, Queen Anne's, and Kent. The weſtern contains St. Mary's, Charles, Prince George, Calvert, Arundel, and Baltimore.

The air is exceſſive hot in the ſummer, and pinching cold in the winter; but the latter is not of above three months duration. The parts next the ſea are very low, but the interior diſtricts are hilly. It is watered by innumerable ſprings, forming a great many fine rivers, of which the chief are Patowmack, Pocomoae, Patuxhent, Severn, Cheptouk, Saſſafras, Wicomoca, and St. George. Theſe and other rivers, capable of receiving large ſhips, with the numerous bays and creeks that indent the land on every ſide, give the ſeamen an opportunity of bringing their veſſels up to the planters doors. The chief bays are thoſe of Cheſapeak and Delaware; and the moſt noted cape that of Henelopen, at the entrance of Delaware Bay. The ſoil is fruitful, and, as the rivers and brooks diffuſe fertility, produces trees, plants, and grain in abundance.

The chief commodity of Maryland is tobacco, of which vaſt cargoes, conſiſting of many thouſand hogſheads, are annually exported. This commodity forms the medium of currency of Maryland, being received in debts and taxes; and the inſpector's notes for tobacco, delivered to him, are transferable. An induſtrious man can manage 6000 plants of tobacco, and four acres of Indian corn. The tobacco of this province, called Oroonoko, is different from that of Virginia; and though not much liked or uſed in England, yet, in the eaſtern and northern parts of Europe, it is preferred before the ſweet-ſcented tobacco of James and York Rivers, in Virginia. Another conſiderable commodity of Maryland is pork, the woods containing vaſt droves of wild ſwine, which are generally of a ſmall ſize. Good land in Maryland yields about 15 buſhels of wheat an acre, or 30 buſhels of Indian corn; but the grain is ſubject to the weevil. Great quantities both of hemp and flax are raiſed in this province; and the mountains yield abundance of iron ore, which is run into pigs, and refined into iron. Maryland oak is not greatly eſteemed for building large ſhips, but is very proper for ſtaves and ſmall craft.

Their imports conſiſt chiefly of wine from Madeira, Fyal, and France; rum from Barbadoes, ſlaves from Africa, and malt, beer, linens, woollens, utenſils of every kind, and, in ſhort, moſt of the elegances, as well as conveniences of life, from England.

The capital of this province is Annapolis; but tho' the governor generally reſides there, it is ſmall and inconſiderable. Baltimore contains ſome ſcattered buildings, and ſcarcely merits the name of a town.

Maryland was diſcovered in the year 1606, when Virginia was firſt planted, and, for ſome time, was eſteemed a part of Virginia, till King Charles I. in 1632, granted all that part of Virginia, which lay north of Patowmack River, to the Lord Baltimore, of the kingdom of Ireland, and his heirs. The Baltimore family were deprived of the government of this province during the civil wars in England, but recovered it again at the reſtoration; and they ſtill remain proprietors. The eſtate enjoyed by them here is the moſt conſiderable of any ſubject of Great Britain abroad; for, beſides their plantations, they have certain revenues granted to them by ſeveral aſſemblies, as a duty on each hogſhead of tobacco, and other incomes, which, with the ſale of lands, uncultivated and unpurchaſed, muſt amount, at preſent, to a very conſiderable ſum yearly.

The firſt adventurers having been Roman Catholics, followed by many families of that perſuaſion, who came over from England to avoid the penal laws, many of the planters profeſs that religion. However, the church of England was afterwards eſtabliſhed here; and churches have not only been built, but pariſhes allotted to them, with annual ſtipends to the miniſters.

The Americans have large plantations, which prevent the increaſe of towns. Indeed, each plantation is a little town of itſelf, and can ſubſiſt itſelf with proviſions and neceſſaries; every conſiderable planter's warehouſe being like a ſhop, where he ſupplies inferior planters, ſervants, and labourers, and has commodities to barter for tobacco, &c. here being little money, and little occaſion for it, tobacco anſwering all the uſes of gold and ſilver in trade. There is, indeed, both Spaniſh and Engliſh money, but then it ſerves but for pocket expences, &c. Here are but few ſhopkeepers that can be properly ſo called, or who may be ſaid to live by their trades.

Moſt of the few Indians live on the eaſt ſhore, where they have two or three little towns. They are employed in hunting for deer by the Americans. The cauſe of their diminiſhing proceeded from their own perpetual diſcords and wars amongſt themſelves. 'Tis obſervable, that though they are very timorous, and cowardly in fight, yet, when taken priſoners, and condemned, they die like heroes, braving the moſt exquiſite tortures, and ſinging all the time they are on the rack.

The government of Maryland, as ſettled in 1776, is now veſted in a governor and five council, a ſenate of fifteen, and a houſe of delegates. All freemen, above 21 years of age, having a freehold of 50 acres, or property to the value of 30l. have a right of ſuffrage in the election of delegates. All perſons appointed to any office of profit or truſt, are to ſubſcribe a declaration of their belief in the Chriſtian religion.

In 1782 a college was founded at Cheſter town in this province, under the name of Waſhington College, in honour of General Waſhington.

SECTION VI.

VIRGINIA.

Situation. Extent. Boundaries. Diviſions. Rivers. Climate. Soil. Productions. Chief Towns. Diſpoſitions, Manners, Cuſtoms, &c. of the Virginians, as a Specimen of the People of the Provinces in General. Deſcription of the Perſons, Manners, Cuſtoms, &c. of the Indians, original Inhabitants of America.

THE province of Virginia is ſituated between 36 and 40 degrees of north lat. and 74 and 80 degrees weſt longitude, being about 750 miles in length, and 240 in breadth. It is bounded on the north by the river Potomac, on the ſouth by Carolina, on the eaſt by the Bay of Cheſapeak, and on the weſt by the Apalachian mountains. It is properly divided into four parts, viz. the northern, the middle, the ſouthern, and the eaſtern diviſions. Each of theſe contains a number of counties, towns, &c. of which we ſhall mention ſuch as are moſt worthy of notice.

The entrance to Virginia for ſhipping is by Cheſapeak Bay, which runs up 200 miles into the land. Through this bay, alſo, all veſſels muſt paſs that are bound to Maryland.

The four principal rivers in this country are James River, York River, Raphannock, and Potomac. Theſe are not only navigable for large ſhips into the heart of the country, but have ſo many creeks, and receive ſuch a number of ſmaller navigable rivers, that Virginia is, of all countries, the moſt convenient for navigation.

navigation. It has been obſerved, and without exaggeration, that every planter has a river at his door.

The climate is deemed healthy for Engliſh conſtitutions, having a clear ſky, and a kindly ſoil. The froſts in winter are very ſevere, but of ſhort continuance. The heats of ſummer are moſt violent in June, July, and Auguſt, but are much mitigated by the rains; and the freſh breezes that are common to Virginia contribute to render the heat tolerable to new comers, and hardly ſenſible to the inhabitants. Storms of thunder and lightning are very frequent here, but ſeldom attended with any miſchief.

The ſoil, in general, is a rich deep mould, and under it a loam, of which they make fine bricks; but the quality varies as it is moiſt or dry. It is diſtinguiſhed into three ſorts, viz. high, low, and marſhy, all which, having ſand mixed with them, makes their land warmer than that of Great Britain. Their high lands are moſtly ſandy, but bear large crops of tobacco. The low lands are rich, but the marſh lands poor. Upon the whole, however, Virginia abounds with every thing neceſſary for the pleaſure or profit of the inhabitants.

The animals peculiar to this country are beavers, otters, foxes, wild cats, racoons, martins, minks, in the freſh waters, where the Indians are dexterous in catching them for the fur trade. The woods are ſtocked with deer; and they have alſo elks, buffalos, bears, wolves, and Engliſh cattle of all ſorts. Hares and rabbits are plentiful, and as good as thoſe in England; beſides which they have the arronghena, ſomewhat like the badger, the flying ſquirrel, the opoſſum, and the muſlacus, a ſort of water rat, with a muſky ſcent.

Of birds they have great variety, both for feather and ſong. The Virginian nightingale, which takes its diſtinguiſhing epithet from this province, is adorned with a plumage of bright crimſon and blue, and ſings moſt delightfully. The natural note of the mocking bird is very melodious; beſides which it attains to that of the linet, lark, nightingale, &c. There is alſo the humming bird, the ſmalleſt of all the winged creation, and by far the moſt beautiful, being arrayed in ſcarlet, green, and gold. It ſips the dew from the flowers, which is its chief nouriſhment, and is too delicate to be brought alive to England. They have alſo hawks and eagles, with great variety of wild fowl of the uſual ſpecies.

A country ſo interſected with large rivers may be ſuppoſed to abound with fiſh. On the ſea coaſts are ſturgeon and cod; and in the rivers almoſt every kind of fiſh that are found in other parts of the world.

The foreſts yield oaks, elms, poplar, pines, cedars, and firs; and the whole country is interſperſed with variety of ſhrubs, plants, and flowers. They have fruits not only peculiar to the ſoil, but thoſe introduced from England, as well as garden herbs in great abundance.

Tobacco is the ſtaple commodity of the country, and brought to ſuch perfection as to command a large traffic, not only to England, but to all parts of the world. This traffic has employed 200 ſail of ſhips. Beſides the advantages accruing to the national ſtock from the exportation of tobacco, are to be conſidered the prodigious number of hands it employs in the manufacture. Great quantities of divers commodities were exported from Great Britain to this colony, whoſe merchants and planters ſupplied the Weſt India iſlands with tobacco, cattle, and proviſions, bringing back, in exchange, molaſſes, ſugar, and rum.

Virginia is adorned by ſeveral magnificent public buildings; but the only towns, worthy of notice, are Williamſburg and James Town. Williamſburg, now the capital of the province, has a number of houſes, and ſome ſpacious edifices. It is about forty miles from the mouth of James River, and ſeven from James Town, which was formerly the capital, but now chiefly contains houſes for the entertainment of ſeafaring people.

At Williamſburg is a college founded by King William III. called William and Mary College. The royal donor gave 2000l. towards it, and 20,000 acres of land, with power to purchaſe and hold lands to the value of 2000l. a year; and a duty of one penny per pound on all tobacco exported to the other plantations. The Honourable Mr. Boyle made a very large donation to the college for the education of Indian children.

Virginia was the firſt colony planted by the Engliſh in America: for though the continent of North America was diſcovered by Sebaſtian Cabot, in 1497, no attempts were made for ſettling a colony on it till the reign of Queen Elizabeth, when Sir Walter Raleigh, the moſt enterprizing genius of that age, obtained letters patent for the purpoſe. A ſquadron of ſhips was accordingly fitted out, and a number of adventurers embarked. Upon their arrival Sir Walter erected the Engliſh ſtandard, took poſſeſſion of the country in the name of Queen Elizabeth, and, in honour of his royal miſtreſs, called it Virginia. Unfortunately, however, this great man failed in his expedition, and his grand deſigns were conſequently rendered abortive.

The bad ſucceſs attending the firſt attempts ſeemed to give little hopes of their being ever completed; for near one half of the firſt colony was deſtroyed by the Indians; and the reſt, worn out by fatigue and famine, returned to their native country. The ſecond colony was cut off by the Indians. The third ſhared the ſame fate. The fourth had dwindled to a poor remainder, and were returning in a famiſhed condition to England, when, juſt in the mouth of Cheſapeak Bay, they were met by Lord Delaware, with a ſquadron loaded with proviſions, and every thing neceſſary for their relief and defence. At his perſuaſion they returned. By his advice, prudence, and winning behaviour, the government of the colony was ſettled within itſelf, and put on a reſpectable footing with regard to its enemies. This nobleman, who had accepted the government of Virginia from the moſt laudable motives, was compelled, by the decayed ſtate of his health, to return to England, but left behind him a deputy and council, compoſed of liberal and intelligent men. Nor did the noble governor, on his return to England, forget the colony. For eight years together he was indefatigable in purſuing every plan that could tend to the peopling, ſupport, and government of this ſettlement. He died in purſuit of the ſame object in his paſſage to Virginia, having fitted out ſome veſſels laden with ſtores for the uſe of the colony. The ſettlers, however, were ſo firmly eſtabliſhed, that they effectually fruſtrated the attempts of the Indians to oppoſe them, and erected James Town, the firſt place built by the Engliſh in this part of the world. The colony now continued to flouriſh, and the true ſource of its wealth began to be diſcovered and improved.

This ſettlement was, at firſt, greatly diſtreſſed for wives, few females caring to go over; and the planters ſeemed to think it a wicked thing to match with Pagans. But as ſoon as the colony was ſettled, and the planters in good circumſtances, a great many girls went over thither from England, in expectation of making their fortunes, carrying certificates with them of their chaſte behaviour on this ſide the water; for, without ſuch certificates, the cautious planters, though ever ſo much diſtreſſed for wives, would not admit them to their beds. If they were but moderately qualified in other reſpects in thoſe days, they might depend upon being well married. The planters were ſo far from expecting money with a woman, that it was a common thing to buy a deſerving wife, who came over thither a ſervant, at the price of 10l. if ſhe carried good teſtimonials with her. But afterwards, when the fruitfulneſs of Virginia was better known, and the dangers incident to an infant ſettlement were over, people in good circumſtances went over thither with their familes, either to improve their eſtates, or avoid perſecution at home; and particularly, at the time of the grand rebellion, ſeveral good cavalier families retired thither, as thoſe on the

the other ſide did, upon the reſtoration of King Charles the Second: but Virginia had few of the latter, having diſtinguiſhed herſelf by her loyalty, in adhering to the royal family, after all other people had ſubmitted to the uſurpation. The round-heads, for the moſt part, therefore, went to New England.

During the troubles in the reign of Charles I. many of the loyaliſts fled to Virginia, and, under the command of Sir William Berkeley, held out for the crown, till the parliament found means to reduce them.

There is nothing very intereſting in the hiſtory of this province after the reſtoration. A kind of rebellion, indeed, broke out on account of ſome reſtrictions having been laid by government on trade. But the death of the leader of the inſurgents reſtored the peace of the colony, and prevented the dreadful conſequences of a civil war.

While Virginia continued under the Britiſh government, the governor was veſted with plenary powers in all acts of adminiſtration, and his uſual ſalary was from 2 to 3000l. a year, including perquiſites. The council was the upper houſe in the aſſembly, who claimed a negative voice in all laws. The aſſemblymen were two for each county, choſen by the freeholders; but their acts were to be approved by the crown. As in the other provinces, there is univerſal toleration here in matters of religion.

The government of this province, as ſettled in convention, in July 1776, is veſted in a governor, ſenate of 24, and a houſe of delegates, all of whom are choſen annually. But the privy-council, or council of ſtate, conſiſting of eight members, is alſo to be choſen by the joint ballot of the ſenate and houſe of delegates, to aſſiſt in the adminiſtration of government.

As the province of Virginia is deemed the moſt conſiderable of the United States of America, and there is a ſimilarity of diſpoſition, manners, cuſtoms, &c. between the people of the provinces in general, we ſhall treat of thoſe particulars under this head, as a ſpecimen of the whole.

The Virginians are repreſented as generous, hoſpitable, and poſſeſſing very liberal ſentiments. There appears to be but three degrees of rank among all the inhabitants, excluſive of the negroes.

The firſt rank conſiſts of gentlemen of the beſt families and fortunes in the colony. Theſe, in general, have had a liberal education, poſſeſs much diſcernment, and ſuch a competent knowledge of the world, as produce an eaſe and freedom of manners and converſation that cannot be affected by circumſtances or ſituation.

They are deemed, upon the whole, moſt agreeable companions, friends and neighbours. The greater part live in elegance and ſplendour, and maintain the appearance of grandeur both at home and abroad.

Thoſe of the ſecond degree are very numerous, and conſiſt of ſuch a variety, ſingularity and mixture of characters, that the leading feature can ſcarcely be aſcertained. They are, however, generous, friendly and hoſpitable; but theſe good qualities are mixed with an appearance of bluntneſs, which ſeems to reſult from their general intercourſe with ſlaves, over whom they are accuſtomed to exerciſe an harſh and abſolute command.

Some of the ſecond rank poſſeſs fortunes ſuperior to many of the firſt, but their families are not ſo ancient or reſpectable, a circumſtance to which much dignity is here annexed.

They are addicted to every kind of ſport, gaming and diſſipation, particularly horſe-racing and cock-fighting. Taken altogether, they form a ſtrange combination of principles and practices directly oppoſite; ſome being as laudable and worthy of imitation, as others are contemptible and obnoxious.

Notwithſtanding this apparent inconſiſtency of character, principle and conduct, numbers of them are truly valuable members of ſociety, and few or none deficient in natural genius, which, though in a great meaſure unimproved, frequently appears in very forcible inſtances.

The third, or lower claſs of the people (who ever compoſe the bulk of mankind) are moſtly hoſpitable and generous, though noiſy and rude. They are much addicted to inebriety, and averſe to labour.

The general hoſpitality that prevails throughout all the ſouthern provinces will evidently appear from the following peculiar cuſtoms that are univerſal:

A traveller, even of the loweſt rank, obſerving an orchard full of fine fruit, either apples or peaches, in or near his way, enters without ceremony, and fills his pockets (and even a bag if he has one) without aſking permiſſion, or being liable to cenſure.

This freedom will not appear ſo ſtrange when it is conſidered that no kind of fruit here is ſaleable, and that it is in ſuch plenty that the inhabitants daily feed their hogs with the fineſt ſort during the ſeaſon.

Travellers, in the cyder ſeaſon, are generally offered on the road as much as they can drink, and frequently requeſted to ſtay all night, and be hoſpitably entertained.

When a perſon of apparent rank calls at an ordinary (the name of their inns) for refreſhment and lodging for a night, as ſoon as any gentleman of fortune in the neighbourhood hears of it, he either comes for him himſelf, or ſends him a polite and preſſing invitation to his houſe, where he is entertained much more agreeably than he could be at the inn. He is treated in the moſt hoſpitable manner, and his ſervants and horſes fare plenteouſly during the time of his ſtay. This is done with a good grace, nor is the leaſt hint dropped of a curious deſire to know the buſineſs or even name of the ſtranger.

Virginia, at the commencement of the late unhappy commotions, was ſaid to contain 650,000 inhabitants, of which nearly two thirds were blacks. But that account, by moſt calculators, has been deemed exaggerated, and the medium may be ſaid to be fixed at 500,000 in the whole.

As there is a difference in rank among the inhabitants, not only of Virginia, but the colonies in general, ſo alſo is there in their manner of living, of which the following may ſerve as a ſpecimen.

The man of fortune uſually riſes about nine o'clock, and breakfaſts between nine and ten. His breakfaſt generally conſiſts of tea or coffee, bread and butter, and very thin ſlices of veniſon, ham, or hung beef. He then repoſes (if in the hot weather) on a pallet, on the floor, in the cooleſt room in the houſe, in his ſhirt and trowſers only, with a negro at his head and another at his feet, to fan him and keep off the flies. Between twelve and one he takes a draught of bombo or toddy, a liquor compoſed of water, ſugar, rum and nutmeg, which is made weak and kept cool. He dines between two and three; and at every table, whatever elſe there may be, a ham and greens form generally a ſtanding diſh. At dinner he drinks cyder, toddy, punch, port, claret, or Madeira, which is, in general, excellent here. After dinner he returns to his pallet with his two blacks to fan him, and continues to drink toddy or ſangaree all the afternoon: he does not always drink tea. Between nine and ten in the evening he eats a light ſupper of milk and fruit, or wine, ſugar, fruit, &c. and almoſt immediately retires to bed for the night, in which, if he be not furniſhed with muſqueto curtains, he is generally ſo moleſted with the heat, and harraſſed and tormented with inſects, that he receives very little refreſhment from ſleep. This is the general mode of living of a man of fortune in his family when he has no company. It is not mentioned as without exception, but as a mode that more follow than do not.

The mode of living of many of the middling, and all the lower claſſes of whites, is very different. A man in this line riſes about ſix o'clock. He then drinks a julap made of rum, water and ſugar, but very ſtrong. After this he walks or rides round his plantation, takes a ſurvey of his ſtock, and all his crop, and breakfaſts about

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Engraved for BANKES's New System of GEOGRAPHY Published by Royal Authority.

A Man & Woman of the Chipeways to the eastward of the Miſsiſippi in North America.

A Man & Woman of the Nawdowesies to the westward of the Miſsiſippi in North America.

Origin. sculp.

about ten on cold turkey, cold meat, toaſt and cyder, ham, bread and butter, tea, coffee or chocolate, which laſt, however, is ſeldom taſted but by the women. The reſt of the day he ſpends much in the ſame manner before deſcribed as a man of the firſt rank, only cyder ſupplies the place of wine at dinner, and he eats no ſupper: they ſeldom think of it. The women very ſeldom drink tea in the afternoon; the men never.

The lot of the poor negro ſlaves is hard indeed. It is aſtoniſhing to conceive what amazing fatigue theſe poor wretches undergo, and can ſupport. The negro is called up in the morning at break of day, and ſeldom allowed time enough to ſwallow three mouthfuls of homminy, or hoe cake, but is driven out immediately to the field to hard labour, at which he continues without intermiſſion till noon. It is obſerved as a ſingular circumſtance, that the negroes always carry out a piece of fire with them, and kindle one juſt by their work, let the weather be ever ſo hot and ſultry. About noon is the time he eats his dinner, which conſiſts of homminy and ſalt, and if his maſter be a man of humanity, he has a little fat, ſkimmed milk, ruſty bacon, or a ſalt herring, to reliſh his homminy, which kind maſters allow their ſlaves twice a week. They then return to hard labour, which continues in the field until duſk in the evening, when they repair to the tobacco houſes, where each has his taſk in ſtripping allotted him; that employs him for ſome hours. If it be found next morning that he has neglected, ſlighted, or not performed his taſk, he is tied up and receives a number of laſhes on his bare back, moſt ſeverely inflicted at the diſcretion of the overſeers, who are permitted to exerciſe an unlimited dominion over theſe wretches. It is late at night before he returns to his other ſcanty meal, and even the time taken up at it encroaches upon his hours of ſleep, which altogether do not exceed eight in number for eating and ſleeping.

But what is amazing, conſidering the fatigue he has undergone, which muſt naturally diſpoſe him to reſt, he frequently ſets out from home and walks ſix or ſeven miles in the night, be the weather ever ſo ſultry, to a negro dance, in which he bears his part with aſtoniſhing agility and the moſt vigorous exertions, keeping time and cadence moſt exactly with the muſic of a banjor (a large hollow inſtrument with three ſtrings) and a quaqua (ſomewhat reſembling a drum) until he exhauſts himſelf, and ſcarcely has time or ſtrength to return home much before the hour he is called forth to toil the next day.

He ſleeps on a bench, or on the ground, with an old ſcanty ſingle blanket, and not always even that, to ſerve both for bed and covering. His clothing conſiſts of a ſhirt and trowſers made of coarſe hempen ſtuff in the ſummer, with the addition of a woollen jacket, breeches, and ſhoes in the winter.

In the ſame manner the female ſlaves are treated, with reſpect to fare, labour and repoſe. Even when they breed, they ſeldom loſe more than a week's work either in the delivery or ſuckling the child.

Theſe wretched beings are obliged to be entirely paſſive, nor dare reſiſt, or even defend themſelves againſt any injury from the whites, for the law directs a negro's arm to be ſtruck off, who raiſes it againſt a white perſon, on any pretence whatever.

Fortunately for them, they ſeem to be endowed with an apathy, or ſatisfied diſpoſition, which, notwithſtanding their degraded ſituation, and the rigid ſeverity to which their race is ſubjected, renders them apparently jovial, contented and happy. Were it not for this peculiar bleſſing of Providence, human nature, unequal to the weight, muſt ſink under the preſſure of ſuch complicated miſery.

Having had frequent occaſion, in the courſe of our deſcription of the mode of life theſe people lead, to mention homminy, hoe cake, &c. we deem it neceſſary to explain thoſe terms.

Homminy is an American diſh made of Indian corn freed from the huſks, boiled along with a ſmall proportion of a large kind of French beans, until it becomes almoſt a pulp. It is in general uſe, and, to moſt palates, agreeable. Hoe-cake is Indian corn ground into meal, kneaded into dough, and baked on a hot, broad, iron hoe. This is in common uſe, but not ſo palatable as the former.

We ſhall now give a deſcription of the perſons, diſpoſitions, character, cuſtoms, &c. of the Indians, or original inhabitants of America.

Theſe people go under divers denominations, as Lake Indians, Attalvavas, Bulls, Delawares, Shawnees, Mowhawks, Cherokees, Chickeſaws, Creeks, &c. &c.

The Indians of America are tall, ſtraight, and well proportioned in their limbs. Their bodies are ſtrong, but their ſtrength is of a ſpecies adapted to ſupport hardſhip rather than perform labour. Their features are regular, their complexion ſomewhat of a copper colour, their hair long, black and ſtrong, as that of a horſe.

They generally wear only a blanket wrapped about them, or a ſhirt, both which they purchaſe of the European ſettlers. Thoſe who firſt viſited theſe parts found ſome nations entirely naked, and others with a coarſe cotton cloth, wove by themſelves, round their waiſt; but in the northern parts their whole bodies are in winter covered with ſkins.

The Indians are not deficient in natural underſtanding or ingenuity, many of them ſhewing a capacity for ſome art or ſcience.

One of their leading characteriſtics is revenge, to gratify which an Indian will travel on foot ſeveral hundred miles through woods in night and darkneſs, ſecreting himſelf during the day to avoid ſuſpicion. Notwithſtanding this revengeful diſpoſition, laudable qualities are attributed to them, and many are repreſented by writers as entertaining noble, ſpirited and juſt ideas. Generally ſpeaking, they have no great command over their ſenſual appetites, and are particularly addicted to inebriation.

Another leading trait of the character of theſe Indians is duplicity, in the art of which, notwithſtanding the uncultivated ſtate of their minds, they excel the moſt ſubtle of the whites. But the true cauſe of this complete diſſimulation ſeems to have ariſen from the treacherous and barbarous uſage they firſt received from the whites, the remembrance of which leads them to caution againſt future ſnares and treacherous deſigns. Their diſpoſition, however, whether hoſtile or amicable, is of little avail at preſent, as they are not ſufficiently powerful either to contend againſt the whites in arms, or to do them any material injury. It muſt, however, be granted, that though implacable enemies, they are zealous, ſteady friends, and that thoſe whites who behave to them with uprightneſs and affability are greatly reſpected by them, and gain an aſcendancy over them.

The Indians are much leſs averſe to Europeans than to the whites born in America. The white Americans alſo have the moſt rancorous antipathy to the whole race of Indians, who, in general, do not appear to entertain any diſlike to ſuch of the Britiſh or French that are natives of Europe; nor have the real Britiſh or French any particular averſion to them as the native Americans have.

Polygamy is practiſed in ſome nations; but it is not general. Though incontinent before wedlock, the chaſtity of their women after marriage is remarkable. The mothers are very fond of their children, and often thereby induced to ſhew them too much indulgence.

The men are remarkable for their indolence, on which they ſeem even to value themſelves, ſaying, that labour would degrade them, and belongs ſolely to the women.

The Indians, in general, poſſeſs great patience and equanimity, with the command of moſt paſſions except that of revenge. They are grave on ſerious occaſions, obſervant of what paſſes in converſation, and cool and deliberate in offering opinion.

The darling paſſion of theſe Indians is liberty in its fulleſt extent; to this they ſacrifice every conſideration. Though ſome tribes are found amongſt them with a head, whom they call king, his power is rather perſuaſive than coercive; and he is revered as a father, more than feared as a monarch. He has no guards, no priſons, no officers of juſtice. The great council is compoſed of heads of tribes and families, with ſuch whoſe capacity has raiſed them to the ſame degree of conſideration. In theſe councils, which are public, they propoſe all matters that concern the ſtate. Upon theſe occaſions they entruſt their ſentiments with a perſon who is called their ſpeaker or orator, there being one of this profeſſion in every tribe or town; and their manner of ſpeaking, in general, is natural, eaſy, and perſuaſive. The internal peace, and order of the ſtate, come under the cognizance of the ſame council. Their ſuits are few, and ſoon decided. Criminal matters, if flagrant, are brought before the ſame juriſdiction; but in ordinary caſes, the crime is either revenged or compromiſed by the parties concerned. Governed, as they are, by manners, not by laws, example and education inſpire them with a ſacred regard for their conſtitution, and the cuſtoms of their anceſtors.

They entertain the moſt exalted ſentiments of friendſhip, the band of which connects the whole ſociety; and the loſs of any of their people, whether by war or a natural death, is lamented by the whole town to which he belongs. No buſineſs, however important, is taken in hand, no rejoicing is heard, till all the ceremonies due to the deceaſed are performed, and theſe are always executed with the greateſt ſolemnity. The dead body is waſhed, anointed, and painted, and then interred in the moſt pompous ornaments of the deceaſed. After ſome time, the relations reviſit the grave, clothe the remains of the body in new ornaments, and repeat the ſolemnities of the firſt interment.

But the moſt ſtriking inſtance of their friendſhip, and, at the ſame time, the greateſt inſtance of their regard, to their deceaſed brethren, is what they call the feaſt of the dead, or the feaſt of ſouls, which is celebrated every eight or ten years. The day for this ceremony is appointed in the councils of their chiefs, who give orders for every thing neceſſary for celebrating it with pomp and magnificence. The riches of the nation are exhauſted on this occaſion, and all the ingenuity of the Indians diſplayed. The neighbouring people are invited to partake of the feaſt, and be witneſſes of the ſolemnity. All thoſe who had died ſince the laſt feaſt of ſouls are now taken out of their graves. Thoſe who have been interred at the greateſt diſtance from the villages are diligently ſought for, and, when all the bodies they can poſſibly collect, are brought to the great rendezvous of mortality, they are dreſſed in the fineſt ſkins they can procure. A feaſt is held on this ſolemn occaſion, when their great actions are celebrated, and all the tender intercourſes that took place between them are recounted. A large pit is dug in the ground, and the bodies re-interred with pomp, with mourning, and with lamentation. Though among theſe ſavage nations this cuſtom is impreſſed with ſtrong marks of the ferocity of their nature, it argues a reſpect for the memory of the dead, and a tender feeling of their abſence.

The chief occupations of theſe Indians are hunting and war. No man is conſidered as brave and uſeful among his tribe, till he has increaſed the ſtrength of his country with a captive, or adorned his hut with the ſcalp of an enemy. When their chiefs reſolve upon a war, the principal officer ſummons the youth of the town to which he belongs; the war-kettle is ſet on the fire; the war ſongs and dances commence; and the moſt hideous howlings, without intermiſſion, are heard over the whole track of country. All the warriors have their faces blackened with charcoal, intermixed with daſhes and ſtreaks of vermilion, which give them a moſt horrid appearance.

They never fight in the open field, but on very extraordinary occaſions. Secrecy is the ſoul of all their actions, and on this the ſucceſs of the expedition entirely depends. During their marches they light no fire to warm themſelves, or dreſs their food. They lie cloſe to the ground in the day-time, and march only in the night-time, and even then with the greateſt precaution. When they diſcover an army of the enemy, they throw themſelves flat on their faces among the withered leaves, the colour of which their bodies are painted exactly to reſemble. They generally let a part paſs unmoleſted, and then riſing a little, and ſetting up a tremendous ſhout, which they call the war-hoop, they pour a ſhower of muſket balls upon the enemy. The party attacked returns the ſame cry, and every man ſhelters himſelf behind a tree, and returns the fire of the adverſe party the moment they raiſe themſelves from the ground to give the ſecond fire. After fighting for ſome time in this manner, they leave their covert, and ruſh upon each other with ſmall axes, which they uſe with great dexterity. The conteſt is ſoon decided, and the conquerors ſatiate their ſavage fury, with the moſt horrid inſults and barbarities, on the dead bodies of the enemy, which they ſcalp and treat in a manner ſhocking to humanity.

But the fate of priſoners is ſtill more deplorable, when they are ſo unhappy as to be ſentenced to death, which depends on the caprice of the victors. In this caſe they firſt ſtrip the wretched victim, and fixing two poſts into the ground, faſten to them two pieces of wood, from one to the other; one about two feet from the ground, the other about five or ſix feet higher; then obliging him to mount upon the lower croſs piece, they tie his legs to it a little aſunder; and his hands are extended, and tied to the angles formed by the other piece. In this poſture they burn him all over the body, ſometimes daubing him firſt with pitch. The whole village, men, women, and children, aſſemble round him, every one torturing him in what manner they pleaſe, each ſtriving to exceed the other in cruelty, as long as he has life. This is the moſt uſual method of murdering their priſoners; but ſometimes they faſten them to a ſingle ſtake, and build a fire round them. At other times they cruelly mangle their limbs, cut off their fingers and toes, joint by joint, and ſometimes ſcald them to death.

Their military appearance is very odd and terrible. They cut off all their hair, except a ſpot on the crown of their head, and pluck off their eye-brows. The lock left upon the head is divided into ſeveral parcels, each of which is ſtiffened and intermixed with beads and feathers of various ſhapes and colours, the whole twiſted and connected together. They paint themſelves with pigment down to the eye-brows, which they ſprinkle over with white down. The griſtles of their ears are ſlit almoſt round, and hung with ornaments. Their noſes are bored, and hung with beads; and their faces painted with various colours. On their breaſts are medals of various metals; and, by a ſtring round their necks, is ſuſpended that horrid weapon called the ſcalping-knife.

The weapons uſed by thoſe who trade with the Europeans are commonly a firelock, hatchet, and ſcalping-knife; but the others uſe bows, tomahawks, and pikes. The head of the tomahawk is a round knob of ſolid wood, calculated to knock a man down. It has on the other ſide a point, bending a little towards the handle; and near the center, where the handle pierces the head, another point projects forward, of a conſiderable length, which ſerves to thruſt with like a ſpear. The tomahawk is ornamented with paintings and feathers, diſpoſed and variegated in many ſignificant forms, according to the occaſion and end for which it is uſed. When they ſolicit an offenſive or defenſive alliance with a whole nation, they ſend an embaſſy with a whole belt of wampum, and a bloody hatchet, inviting them to come and drink the blood of their enemies. The wampum-belt conſiſts of a kind of cylindrical beads, made of white and black ſhells, which are eſteemed among them as ſilver and gold are among us.

They

They dye the wampum of various colours and ſhades, and, as they are made, ſignificant of almoſt any thing they pleaſe. By theſe their records are kept, and their thoughts communicated to one another as ours are by writing. Thus the belts that paſs from one nation to another, in all important tranſactions, are carefully preſerved in the cabins of their chiefs, and ſerve both as a record or hiſtory, or as a public treaſure.

The calumet, or pipe of peace, is of no leſs importance, nor is it leſs revered among them. The bowl of this pipe is made of a kind of ſoft red ſtone, eaſily wrought, and hollowed out. The ſtem is of cane, or a kind of light wood, painted of different colours, and adorned with the head, tails, and feathers, of the moſt beautiful birds. The uſe of the calumet is to ſmoke either tobacco or ſome other herb, when they enter into an alliance, or any ſolemn engagement; this being eſteemed the moſt ſolemn oath that can be taken. The ſize and decorations of their calumets are commonly proportioned to the importance of the occaſion, to the quality of the perſons to whom they are preſented, and to the eſteem and regard they have for them.

Religion is little known, and as little practiſed, by the American Indians. There are, indeed, nations among them which ſeem to pay ſome homage to the ſun and moon; and as moſt of them have a notion of the exiſtence of inviſible beings, who intermeddle in their affairs, they often mention demons and other ſpirits, particularly one whom they call *Areſkoui*, or the god of war, whom they always invoke before they march againſt an enemy. Though deſtitute of religion, they abound in ſuperſtitions, are great obſervers of omens and dreams, and pry into futurity with the greateſt eagerneſs. Hence their country abounds in diviners, augurs, and magicians; and on their predictions they greatly rely, in all affairs relative to health, hunting, or war.

Theſe Indians formerly inhabited the ſea coaſts, where they were very numerous, but have ſince retired into the internal parts of the country; ſo that few of them are found within leſs than two or three hundred miles of the ſea. Some of them have had parcels of land allotted them in ſeveral of the colonies, where they have been formed into ſocieties; yet it has been found, that, in proportion as they lay by their ancient cuſtoms, and conform to our manner of life, they dwindle away, either becauſe the change is prejudicial to their conſtitutions, or becauſe they have then greater opportunities of procuring ſpirituous liquors, of which both ſexes are inordinately fond. Thus where, a few years ago, there were conſiderable ſettlements of them, their name is forgotten; and thoſe who ſtill remain, have, for the moſt part, joined themſelves to other nations in the interior parts of the country, on the banks of lakes and rivers.

We have been favoured by an intelligent correſpondent, long reſident in North America, with ſome anecdotes, which diſplay the hoſpitable diſpoſition of the Indians, and the opinion they entertain of ſome of the cuſtoms of the whites with whom they traffic.

When any of the Indians come into the towns belonging to the whites, the latter are generally obſerved to crowd around, gaze at, and incommode them, where they deſire to be private. The Indians deem this cuſtom very rude, and the higheſt breach of civility. They have remarked, upon the occaſion, that, though they have as much curioſity as the whites, when they come into their towns, they hide themſelves behind buſhes, where they are to paſs, and never intrude themſelves into their company.

They obſerve particular forms in entering one anothers villages. To enter a village abruptly, without notifying approach, is reckoned, in travelling ſtrangers, very uncivil. For this cauſe, as ſoon as they arrive within hearing, they ſtop and haloo, remaining there till invited to enter. Two old men uſually come out, and conduct them in. There is, in every village, a vacant habitation, called the ſtranger's houſe. Here they are placed, while the old men go round from hut to hut, to acquaint the inhabitants of the arrival of ſtrangers, who may be hungry and weary, and every one ſends them what he can ſpare, of food to eat, and ſkins to repoſe on. When the ſtrangers are refreſhed, pipes and tobacco are brought, and then, and not before, begins converſation, which uſually ends with offers of ſervice, if the ſtrangers have occaſion for guides, or any thing neceſſary for the proſecution of their journey. Nothing is exacted for the entertainment.

The following is a ſtriking proof of the hoſpitality of a private perſon. An Indian Interpreter, in going through the country, to carry a meſſage from a governor of one of the ſtates, called at the habitation of an old Indian friend, who embraced him, ſpread furs for him to ſit on, placed before him ſome boiled beans and veniſon, and mixed ſome rum and water for his drink. When he was well refreſhed, and had taken his pipe, his hoſt entered into converſation with him concerning particulars. The interpreter ſatisfied him; and when the diſcourſe began to flag, his Indian friend thus addreſſed him: "You have, my old acquaintance, lived long among the white people, and know ſomething of their cuſtoms. I have been ſometimes at Albany, and have obſerved, that, once in ſeven days, they ſhut up their ſhops, and aſſemble all in the great houſe. Tell me, what is it for? What do they there?" "They meet there (replied the interpreter) to hear and learn good things." "I do not doubt (ſaid the Indian) that they tell you ſo; they have told me the ſame; but I doubt the truth of what they ſay, and will tell you my reaſons. I went lately to Albany to ſell my ſkins, and buy blankets, knives, powder, rum, &c. When I called upon the merchant with whom I uſually deal, and aſked him what he would give for beaver, he replied, he could not give more than four ſhillings a pound; but deſired to wave all buſineſs then, as it was the day their people met together to learn good things, adding, that he was going to the meeting. Finding I could not tranſact any buſineſs with him that day, I went with him. There ſtood up a man in black, and began to talk to the people very angrily. I did not underſtand what he ſaid; but obſerving that he looked much at me, and at my merchant, imagined he was angry at ſeeing me there, therefore I withdrew, and waited near the houſe till the meeting ſhould break up. I then accoſted the merchant, intimating, that I hoped he would give more than four ſhillings a pound for beaver. He replied he could not give more than three ſhillings and ſixpence. I then applied to ſeveral other dealers, but their general tone was three and ſixpence, three and ſixpence. This confirmed my ſuſpicion, that, notwithſtanding their pretence of meeting to learn good things, the real purpoſe was to conſult how to cheat Indians in the price of beaver. Conſider but a little, my old friend, and you muſt be of my opinion. If they met ſo often to learn good things, they would certainly have learned ſome before this time. But they are ſtill ignorant. You know our practice. If a white man is travelling through our country, and enters one of our cabins, we all treat him as I treat you. We dry him, if he is wet; we warm him, if he is cold; and give him meat and drink, if he is hungry and thirſty; and we ſpread furs for him to repoſe on, demanding nothing in return. If I go into a white man's houſe at Albany, and aſk for victuals and drink, they ſay, Where is your money? And if I have none, they ſay, Get out, you Indian dog! You ſee they have not yet learned thoſe little good things that we need no meetings to be inſtructed in, becauſe our mothers taught them to us when we were children; and therefore it is impoſſible their meetings ſhould be, as they ſay, for any ſuch purpoſe, or have any ſuch effect. They are only to continue the cheating of Indians in the price of beaver."

SECTION

SECTION VII.

CAROLINA, NORTH AND SOUTH.

THE provinces of North and South Carolina, comprehending two of the United States of North America, are ſituated between 30 and 37 degrees of north latitude; and between 76 and 91 degrees of weſt longitude; being about 700 miles in length, and 380 in breadth. The boundaries are Virginia on the north, the Atlantic Ocean on the eaſt, Georgia on the ſouth, and the Apalachian mountains on the weſt.

In the two provinces of North and South Carolina are the following rivers, viz. Roanoke or Albemarle, Pamticoe, and New Clarendon, in North Carolina; Pedee and Santee, in South Carolina. Theſe rivers are all navigable, and contain fiſh in abundance, but have troubleſome cataracts, which obſtruct navigation. The capes of this country are Flatteras, Look-out, and Fear. The harbours are Roanoke and Pamticoe, in North Carolina; George-Town, Charles-Town, and Port-Royal, in South Carolina. Their reſpective rivers riſe in the Apalachian mountains, and fall into the Atlantic Ocean.

The climate of Carolina, like that of America in general, is ſubject to ſudden tranſitions, from heat to cold, and from cold to heat, but not to ſuch violent extremes as Virginia. The winters here are not ſo ſevere as in that province. The froſts never have ſufficient ſtrength to reſiſt the noon-day ſun; ſo that many tender plants, which do not ſtand the winter of Virginia, flouriſh in Carolina. This is the principal province on the continent of North America ſubject to hurricanes.

The ſoil here is various. The country near the ſea is little better than an unhealthy ſalt marſh, and, for eighty miles diſtant from it, is an even plain, not a hill, a rock, or ſcarcely a pebble, being to be met with. Beyond this it gradually improves; and at about one hundred miles diſtance from Charles Town, where it begins to grow hilly, the ſoil is very fertile, adapted to ſupply the neceſſaries of life, and exhibiting a pleaſing proſpect to the view. The worſt of the land, however, in the country, produces that valuable article of its commerce, indigo.

There is no kind of vegetable but, with proper cultivation, would flouriſh here. The ſoil, even when left to itſelf, yields flowers and flowering ſhrubs; and all the European plants are in a greater degree of perfection here than they attain to in their native ſoil.

The productions of theſe provinces are vines, ſome wheat, Indian corn, barley, oats, beans, peas, hemp, flax, cotton, ſarſaparilla, tobacco, and indigo. There are the olive, orange, lemon, citron, cypreſs, oak, and walnut-trees; beſides the pine trees, which afford turpentine, tar, and pitch, in abundance. There are ſeveral trees that yield gums. Of all theſe the three great ſtaple commodities are indigo, rice, and the produce of the pine. The two latter are confined to South Carolina. Rice is cultivated with peculiar attention there, and conſtitutes the greateſt part of the food of the people in common. The ground is not favourable for the cultivation of wheat, with which the inhabitants are ſupplied from New York and Pennſylvania, in exchange for rice. The trees here, as in every part of America, grow to an amazing ſize, their trunks being often from 50 to 70 feet high, without a branch or limb, and ſome upwards of 36 feet in circumference. The people of Charles-Town, as well as the Indians, hollow theſe into canoes, which ſerve to tranſport goods from place to place; and ſome of them, conſiſting of one entire piece of timber, are large enough to carry thirty or forty barrels of pitch. There is a tree in this country which diſtils an oil, very efficacious in the cure of wounds; and another which yields a very ſalutary balm. Theſe provinces produce large quantities of excellent honey, of which is made a fine ſpirit, and mead equal to Malaga ſack.

The original animals of this country are the ſame as thoſe of Virginia. European animals abound here: it is not uncommon for an individual to poſſeſs three hundred head of cattle; ſome are ſaid to have more than a thouſand. They are turned out in the morning, and range the foreſts for food; but their calves being kept in fenced paſtures, they return to them in the evening. The horſes and hogs are equally numerous.

The beavers are deſtroyed here, as in other places, by the encouragement the Indians receive to kill them for the profit ariſing from the ſale of their ſkins.

The Carolinians cultivated ſome tobacco; but their chief trade lay in proviſions; for they ſupplied Jamaica, Barbadoes, and the Leeward Iſlands, with beef, pork, grain, peas, butter, ſuet, raw hides, and leather. They likewiſe ſent to the ſame iſlands tar, turpentine, timber, maſts and furs; but the laſt were of an inferior kind. Maize, or Indian corn, thrives here exceedingly; but, in ſome other reſpects, the product has not been anſwerable to the expectation from the ſoil and climate.

Though many parts of Carolina, eſpecially on the ſea-coaſt, abound with vines, yet no progreſs worth mentioning has been made in producing wine. The manufactures of ſilk, notwithſtanding the great quantities of mulberry-trees they have, are not very conſiderable. Though cochineal is found here, the inhabitants ſeem to neglect the profits ariſing from that inſect; and, for ſome years, their attention has been chiefly turned towards making indigo.

The Carolinians import all kinds of woollen and linen drapery, hardware, ſtrong beer, cyder, raiſins, potters-earth, tobacco pipes, paper, coverlets, mattraſſes, hats, ſtockings, gloves, tin-ware, powder and ſhot, gun flints, cordage, looking-glaſſes and glaſs ware, thread, haberdaſhery and ſmall wares. From Jamaica, Barbadoes, and the Leeward Iſlands they had ſugar, rum, molaſſes, cotton, chocolate, negroes, and ſilver. From New England, New York, and Pennſylvania, wheat flour, wheat being very backward in the Carolinas; and hard wares and wine from Madeira, and the other iſlands in the weſtern ocean.

Before the late diſturbances the method of ſettling in this pleaſant country was, to pitch upon a void piece of ground, and either to purchaſe it at the rate of 20l. for 1000 acres, and 1s. quit-rent for every 100 acres, or elſe pay a penny an acre quit-rent yearly to the proprietors, without purchaſe money: the former method was the moſt common, and the tenure a freehold. The land being laid out, the purchaſer built upon it, raiſed ſtock, planted orchards, and made ſuch commodities as when ſold procured him ſlaves, houſhold goods, and other conveniences: after this he yearly increaſed his capital, and, by induſtry, became rich.

Both North and South Carolina are divided into diſtricts. The former contains thoſe of Wilmington, Newbern, Edenton, Halifax, Hilſborough and Saliſbury. Theſe diſtricts have their reſpective counties, but they contain nothing worthy of deſcription.

In the latter are included the diſtricts of Charles-Town, Beaufort, Orangeburgh, George-Town, Camden and Cheraws. The chief towns are, Charles-Town and Port Royal.

Charles-Town is ſituated in 79 deg. weſt longitude, and in 32 deg. north latitude; on a peninſula formed by Aſhley and Cowper rivers; the former of which is navigable for ſhips 20 miles above the town, and in it is a moſt ſecure and commodious harbour; but there is a bar which prevents veſſels of more than 200 tons from entering it. The town is well built, and pretty ſtrongly fortified both by nature and art. The ſtreets are wide and ſtrait, interſecting each other at right angles; thoſe running eaſt and weſt extend about a mile from one river to the other. Charles-Town contains about 1000 houſes, ſome of brick and others of wood, but in general handſome, elegant, and very high rented. The church is a ſpacious building, and executed in elegant taſte, and there are alſo ſeveral meeting-

meeting-houſes belonging to different ſects of diſſenters, ſome of which are very neat. This town was the ſeat of the governor, and the place where the aſſembly met. Its vicinity is beautiful beyond deſcription. Several handſome equipages are kept here. The planters and merchants are opulent and well bred, and before the war between Great Britain and the Colonies, were both ſhewy and expenſive in their dreſs and manner of living. It ought to be obſerved, to the honour of the people of Carolina, that when in common with the other Colonies they reſolved againſt the uſe of certain luxuries, and even neceſſaries of life, thoſe articles which improve the mind, enlarge the underſtanding, and correct the taſte, were excepted: the importation of books was permitted as uſual.

There are more white people in North than in South Carolina, though the former is not ſo wealthy as the latter.

In the year 1780, Charles-Town being beſieged by the king's troops, ſurrendered on capitulation with 6000 men in arms priſoners, after the ſiege had continued ſeven weeks. It was afterwards evacuated and reſtored to the Americans.

Port Royal, or Beaufort Town, is ſituated on the iſland of Port Royal, in 31 deg. north lat. 100 miles ſouth of Charles Town, having a capacious harbour, capable of receiving the royal navy of England, if they could get over the bar: however, ſhips of good burthen may enter, there being 18 feet depth at low water. George Town is about 50 miles north of Charles Town.

All attempts to form a ſettlement in Carolina proved abortive till the year 1663, in the reign of Charles II. At that time ſeveral Engliſh noblemen, and other perſons of diſtinction, obtained a charter from the crown, inveſting them with the property and abſolute juriſdiction of this country. They parcelled out the lands to ſuch as were willing to embark for the new ſettlement, and to ſubmit to a ſyſtem of laws compoſed by the celebrated Locke.

They began their firſt ſettlement at a point of land near the ſouthern limits of their diſtrict, between two navigable rivers, where they laid the foundation of the city, called Charles Town, in honour of king Charles. This town was deſigned to be, what it now is, the capital of the province. Obſerving what advantages the other colonies derived from opening an harbour for refugees, they reſolved to benefit by the example, ſo that they extended the ſcheme, and gave an unlimited toleration to people of all religious perſuaſions.

Religious diſputes, however, in proceſs of time, produced diſſentions, tumults and riots, whereby the colony was rent; and theſe, with ſome diſagreements among the proprietors, threatened its deſtruction. The legiſlature now thought it time to interpoſe, and an act of parliament was accordingly paſſed, by virtue of which this colony was put under the immediate protection of the crown. The proprietor accepted a recompence of about 24,000l. both for the property and juriſdiction; but earl Granville retained his ſhare, which continued in the poſſeſſion of his family. For the more convenient adminiſtration of affairs, Carolina was divided into two diſtricts and two governments, North and South. This happened in the year 1728, and from that time, peace being made with the Cherokees and other Indian tribes, the colony began to flouriſh, and wealth and internal tranquillity ſucceeded to poverty and commotions.

When the property of Carolina was purchaſed by his late majeſty, orders were iſſued for building towns here, each of which was to have a diſtrict of 20,000 acres of land ſquare, to be divided into ſhares of five acres for each man, woman, or child of one family, which was to be augmented, as the planters ſhould be in a condition to cultivate a larger quantity: each town was alſo to be formed into a pariſh, the extent whereof was to be about ſix miles round; and, as ſoon as the pariſh contained 100 maſters of families, it was qualified to ſend two members to the aſſembly of the province, and to enjoy the ſame privilege of any of the other provinces.

The government of North Carolina is now veſted in a governor, ſenate, and houſe of repreſentatives, all elected annually. The executive power is in a governor and ſeven counſellors. South Carolina is under a governor, ſenate of 23, and a houſe of repreſentatives of 202 members.

SECTION VIII.

GEORGIA.

THIS province is ſituated between 20 and 33 deg. north latitude, and between 80 and 85 deg. weſt longitude. It is about 700 miles in length and 120 in breadth. It is bounded by Carolina on the north, by Florida on the ſouth, by the Atlantic Ocean on the eaſt, and by the Apalachian mountains on the weſt. The rivers in Georgia are the Alatamaha, the Savannah and St. John's; the mouths of the two firſt form excellent harbours.

To the ſouth of the river Savannah is a capacious road called Teky-Sound, where a large fleet may anchor in between 10 and 14 fathoms water, being land-locked, and having a ſafe entrance over the bar.

The climate of this province is much the ſame as that of Carolina. The ſoil is in ſome parts leſs proper for cultivation than in others, but it is fertile in general.

Georgia produces Indian corn, wheat, oats and barley. Here are alſo potatoes, pumpkins, water and muſk melons, cucumbers, Engliſh and Italian peas, ſallading in general the year round, together with all kinds of ſweet herbs and pot herbs. Nectarines, peaches and plumbs are as plentiful as apples in England. The fruit of the mulberry trees are not comparable in flavour to thoſe of England, but the leaves are excellent food for ſilk worms. Olives abound here in perfection, and the oranges exceed thoſe of the provinces in general. The trees of Georgia are pines, oaks, hiccory, black walnut, cedar, black and white cypreſs, white and red laurels, bays, myrtles, of the berries of which they make candles; ſaſſafras, an infuſion of which makes good drink, beech trees, and many others.

In the winter ſeaſon, from November to March, the country abounds with game, ſuch as wild geeſe, ducks, teals, widgeons, woodcocks, and partridges, but they are ſmaller than thoſe in England. There is a creature between a rabbit and a hare, which is good eating, and in very cold weather there are vaſt flights of wild pigeons, which are eaſily ſhot. The ſummer game are deer and ducks. The fleſh of the bears cubs nearly reſembles in taſte that of young pigs.

Though the woods abound with ſnakes, none are venemous but the rattle-ſnake. The rivers abound with ſharks and alligators. Oyſters are innumerable, but not ſo well flavoured as the Engliſh. There are alſo crabs, muſcles, and large prawns.

The inhabitants export ſome corn to the Weſt Indies, raiſe ſome rice, and have made ſome progreſs in the cultivation of indigo.

Of all the manufactures none ſeems ſo practicable here, nor more beneficial, than the raiſing of ſilk, the ſoil being well adapted to the culture of mulberry-trees, and the climate highly benign to ſilk worms.

From the quay may be ſeen the whole courſe of the river towards the ſea one way, and, on the other, for about ſixty miles up the country. This river is navigable for large boats from Savannah to Auguſta, which are 200 miles diſtant from each other. Auguſta is ſituated in one of the moſt fertile parts of the province, and carries on a conſiderable trade with the Indians. Frederica is a regular fortreſs, mounted with ſeveral pieces of cannon. At Savannah the Rev. Mr. George Whitfield founded an orphan-houſe, which was afterwards converted into a college for the reception of ſtu-

dents in divinity. Savannah was in poſſeſſion of the Britiſh troops in October 1779, when being beſieged by the Americans and French, they repulſed them with great ſlaughter. It was, however, evacuated and reſtored to the Americans.

In 1732, a number of gentlemen formed a deſign of making that track of land called Georgia, which is ſituated between the rivers Savannah and Alatamaha, ſerviceable to Great Britain, by erecting it into a kind of bulwark, for the ſouthern Britiſh colonies, againſt the Spaniards; for producing great benefits to the mother country; but, above all, of giving employment to vaſt numbers of people who were burthenſome at home to their friends and pariſhes; and petitioned the king for a charter, which was accordingly granted them. This charter, which was dated that year, conſtituted them a corporation, by the name of truſtees for eſtabliſhing a colony in Georgia, including all that country ſituated in South Carolina, which lies from the moſt northern ſtream of the Savannah River, along the coaſt, to the moſt ſouthern ſtream of the Alatamaha, and weſt from the heads of the ſaid rivers, in a direct line, to the South Sea. The corporation was veſted with all the neceſſary powers, for the term of 21 years from the date of the charter, particularly to collect benefactions for fitting out the emigrants, and ſupporting them till their houſes could be built, and their lands cleared. General Oglethorpe, one of the truſtees, a gentleman of unbounded benevolence and public ſpirit, commanded the firſt embarkation to Georgia, to whom the Creek nation voluntarily relinquiſhed their right to all the lands lying between the above mentioned rivers, which they did not uſe themſelves. Upon this Mr. Oglethorpe laid out the town of Savannah, and erected ſeveral forts to cover the colony againſt any hoſtile attempts of the Spaniards or Indians. In the year 1734 a conſiderable number of Proteſtant Saltzburghers went over, who, with others of their countrymen, who followed, were ſettled in a town on the Savannah, which they called Ebenezer, and, by their habits of induſtry and ſobriety, they ſoon became a conſiderable ſettlement. In 1734 another embarkation, conſiſting of 300 men, 110 women, 102 boys, and 83 girls, arrived from England, moſt of them at the public expence. In 1735 about 160 Scotch Highlanders went over, and ſettled themſelves upon Alatamaha rivers, 16 miles by water from the Iſland of St. Simon. They gave the name of Darien to a ſmall fort they built there; and that of New Inverneſs to a ſmall town they afterwards added to it. In February, 1736, Mr. Oglethorpe, with about 300 paſſengers on board two ſhips, anchored in the road of Savannah, and ſoon after laid the foundations of the town and fort of Frederica. Beſides the private benefactions received by the truſtees during the term of their charter, large ſupplies were granted by parliament. In 1739 a ſpecimen of Georgian raw ſilk was exhibited in London, which the merchants, who dealt in that commodity, declared to be as good as any raw ſilk that came from Italy, and worth at leaſt 20s. per pound. In 1742, about 5 or 6000 Spaniards and Indians invaded Georgia, in about 50 veſſels of all kinds, but were repulſed by General Oglethorpe, at the head of the Engliſh forces, and a ſmall body of Indians. From that time it remained undiſturbed, but not out of danger from the Spaniards, till the reduction of St. Auguſtine by the Engliſh.

In proceſs of time new ſums were raiſed, and new inhabitants ſent over; ſo that before the year 1752, the ſettlers in the province were every where numerous. Diſſentions at length ſprang up, when government interpoſed, and placed Georgia on the ſame footing with Carolina. Since the revolt of the colonies, the government of Georgia has been veſted in a governor, executive council of 12, and houſe of aſſembly of 72 repreſentatives. It has a church, a courthouſe, a ſtorehouſe, a goal, a wharf, a guard-houſe, and other public buildings. There is alſo a conſtant watch. The houſes are regularly built at ſome diſtance from each other, for the ſake of being more airy, and form ſeveral ſpacious ſquares and ſtreets.

THE INDEPENDENT STATE OF VERMONT.

THE independent ſtate of Vermont contains an extenſive track of country, ſituated to the eaſtward of New Hampſhire and Maſſachuſetts Bay, and to the north of Connecticut, between the river of that name, and Hudſon's River. It was formed by emigrations from New Hampſhire and New-York. The emigrants having ſettled on lands to the weſtward, neither claimed or cultivated by the people of the provinces before-mentioned, ſoon grew numerous, and ſpread themſelves to a conſiderable extent.

The inhabitants of thoſe provinces had long been jealous of the riſing greatneſs of the colony of Vermont, and deſirous of cruſhing it, but never could effect their deſign, while the colonies were under the juriſdiction of the mother country. When the late diſſentions began, they repreſented the Vermonteſe to Congreſs as a diſaffected and encroaching people. The Vermonteſe, on their part, profeſſed their attachment to the general American cauſe, and requeſted repreſentation in congreſs, in common with the other ſtates. Congreſs, far from complying with the requeſt of the Vermonteſe, decided in favour of the colonies of New Hampſhire and New York, and contracted the boundaries of that of Vermont. In proceſs of time, however, congreſs relaxed in their ſeverity, and tranſmitted a favourable propoſal to the Vermonteſe, which being acceded to, matters were adjuſted in April, 1782. With reſpect to perſon, manners, cuſtoms, &c. it is reaſonable to conclude, that the people of this province bear reſemblance, in ſuch particulars, to thoſe of the provinces from which they emigrated. The climate, ſoil, and produce, are much the ſame as thoſe of New Hampſhire and New York.

Properly ſpeaking, there is no eſtabliſhed form of government. Ethan Allen, famous for the expedition he undertook againſt Ticonderago, in 1775, without any other aid than that of a body of volunteers who followed his fortunes, made himſelf chief of this country. This enterprizing genius formed there an aſſembly of repreſentatives. This aſſembly grants lands, and the country is ſubject to its own laws alone. The inhabitants were known, for a conſiderable time, by the name of "Green Mountain Boys;" but thinking that an ignominious appellation, they Frenchified Green Mountain, which made Verd Mont, and, by corruption, Vermont. Hence the origin of the name of this ſtate.

CHAP. VI.

SPANISH DOMINIONS IN NORTH AMERICA.

SECTION I.

FLORIDA, EAST AND WEST.

THIS country was diſcovered by Sebaſtian Cabot, ſome years before it was known to the Spaniards. That nation, in 1512, gave it a vaſt extent, comprehending, under the name of Florida, all the country from the 25th to the 39th degree of north latitude. But what is now properly called the Peninſula of Florida, is ſituated between 25 and 31 degrees of north latitude, and in about 85 degrees of weſt longitude. It is bounded on the north by Georgia, on the ſouth by the Gulph of Mexico, on the eaſt by the ſtraits of Bahama and the Atlantic Ocean, and on the weſt by the river Miſſiſſippi. It is about 500 miles in length, and 440 in breadth.

Of the mountains the moſt conſiderable are the Apalachian, which divide Carolina, and the reſt of the American States, from Florida. A vaſt number of noble rivers paſs through this country, the moſt of which riſe in the Apalachian mountains, and fall into the Gulph of Mexico, or the Atlantic Ocean. The chief are the Miſſiſſipi, the Ohio, the Coza, Couſſa, or Mobile, and the river St. John. The Miſſiſſippi, which the French call St. Louis, is, in many reſpects, the fineſt river in the world. It runs a very long courſe, free from ſhoals and cataracts, and is navigable within 60 leagues of its ſource. In theſe rivers is good ſtore of fiſh.

Florida, by the treaty of peace in 1763, was ceded by Spain to Great Britain, who divided it into two colonies, Eaſt and Weſt Florida, according to which we ſh ll conſider it, having premiſed, that, in the year 1780, it was taken by the Spaniards, and ceded to them by Great Britain by the treaty of 1783.

EAST FLORIDA comprehends about twelve millions of acres, which is about the quantity of Ireland. In the eaſtern and ſouthern parts are a number of iſlands, formed by narrow ſtraits and bays, which run in from the weſt, and join others from the ſouth and eaſt. One of the principal of the bays is called Laguna del Eſpiritu Santo, which extends, from north to ſouth, about 27 leagues, and is near 8 leagues wide. It has ſeveral communications with the bay on the weſt ſide of the peninſula, as well as with the Gulph of Florida. To the ſouth-eaſt of this part of the country is a chain of iſlands and rocks, called Cayos de los Martyrs, or the Keys of the Martyrs, which extend, in a circular form, at the diſtance of thirteen leagues from Punta Florida to the moſt ſouthern point. In 1773 a fleet of 14 galleons, on their return through the Gulph of Florida for Old Spain, ran foul of theſe rocks, through the ignorance or inattention of the commander in chief. One of the captains diſobeying the ſignals, avoided the danger, and ſaved his ſhip; but the other thirteen were entirely loſt, with great part of their treaſure.

The ſoil, except in the middle, is very low. The ſhores are ſandy or marſhy to a great diſtance within land.

The country abounds with all kinds of timber and fruit trees, eſpecially pines, laurels, palms, cedars, cypreſs, and cheſnut trees, which grow to an extraordinary length and ſize, and, with the oaks, afford nouriſhment to ſwine. But the wood moſt prized, and in greateſt plenty, is the ſaſſafras, of which remarkable quantities are exported. Excellent limes and prunes alſo grow here in great abundance, with vines of various ſorts, and cotton trees, hemp, flax, pulſe, roots, and herbs. The root called mendihoca, of which the caſſava flour and bread are made, is very common. Of the fruits there is one called tuna, ſo exquiſite and wholeſome, when ripe, that, among the Europeans, it goes by the name of the cordial julep.

There are woods which ſerve for dying, as fuſtic, braziletto, logwood, &c. There are ſhrubs, which may be of great conſequence in trade, ſuch as the myrtle-wax ſhrub, which grows in every ſoil, the opuntia, the imna ſhrub, &c. To this may be added, that Eaſt Florida has the greateſt part of the fruit trees of the New World. Eaſt Florida has alſo much of the plant called barilla, or kali, with which pearl-aſhes are made, and of which conſiderable quantities are imported into Europe for divers uſeful purpoſes. Here is a ſort of grain like our oats, and when rightly prepared exceeds our beſt oatmeal. It grows ſpontaneouſly in marſhy places, and by the ſides of rivers, like ruſhes. The Indians, when it is ripe, take handfulls and ſhake them into their canoes, and what eſcapes them, falling into the water, produces, without further trouble, the next year's crop.

But the moſt ſingular production in the vegetable ſyſtem, in this or in any other country, is the cabbage-tree, called by ſome naturaliſts the palmello royal. The trunk bulges out a little near the ground, which gives it the becoming appearance of a ſubſtantial baſis to ſupport its towering weight. It is ſtrait as an arrow, riſes above an hundred feet in height, and the trunk near the earth is about ſix or ſeven feet in circumference, the whole body growing tapering to the top. The inſide texture of the leaves appear as thread-like filaments, which being ſpun, are uſed in making cordage of every kind as well as fiſhing-nets. What is called the cabbage lies in many thin, white, brittle flakes, which, when raw, have ſomething of the taſte of almonds, and when boiled, ſomething of that of cabbage, but ſweeter and more agreeable.

Here is good beef, veal and mutton, with plenty of hogs, eſpecially on the ſea coaſt, and alſo not only cattle for draught of the Tartar breed, but horſes for the ſaddle, that may be purchaſed for any trifle of European commodity.

The wild beaſts of this country are panthers, bears, catamountains, buffaloes, deer, hares, goats, rabbits, beavers, otters, foxes, flying ſquirrels, &c.

The feathered creation is numerous, as cranes, wild geeſe and ducks, turtle doves, partridges, thruſhes, jays, hawks and crows. The maccoa, the humming-bird, and a great number of others, ſome of which are of beautiful plumage.

All the low lands on the coaſt, as far as they can be approached, are bordered with mangrove trees, to which adhere an incredible number of ſmall oyſters, of exquiſite flavour. Others, much larger, and not ſo delicious, are found in the ſea, and that in ſuch numbers, that they form ſhelves therein, which, at firſt view, ſeem like rocks level with the ſurface of the water.

The other products of Eaſt Florida are ambergris, cochineal, indigo, and ſilk-graſs. It alſo produces amethyſts, turquoiſes, lapis-lazuli, and other precious ſtones: likewiſe copper, quickſilver, pit-coal, iron ore, and a kind of ſtone pitch, called copea, which the Spaniards uſe as tar for their ſhipping.

The principal town in Eaſt Florida is St. Auguſtine, ſtanding on the eaſtern coaſt of the peninſula, about 70 leagues from the Gulph of Florida and Channel of Bahama, 30 ſouth of the river Alatahama or Alatumacha, and 47 from the town and river of Savannah. It is ſituated in latitude 30 degrees north, and lies along the ſhore, or the bottom of a hill, in the form of a parallelogram, the ſtreets cutting each other at right angles. The port is formed by an iſland and a long point

of

of land, almoſt divided from the continent by a river, which falls into the ſea two miles ſouth of the town. About a mile to the northward of the town ſtands the caſtle, called St. John's Fort, defended by four baſtions, and pretty ſtrong. The entrance into the port lies between the iſland and the point of land, and is about one mile and a quarter over, as is, indeed, moſt part of the coaſt of Florida. Down by the ſide, about three quarters of a mile ſouth of the town, ſtands the church and monaſtery of St. Auguſtine. The beſt built part of the town is on the north ſide, leading to the caſtle. On the north and ſouth are two Indian towns, without the city walls.

Weſt Florida is a long track of land of more than 80 leagues, extending from eaſt to weſt, along the coaſt of the Bay of Mexico. The climate is hot, damp, and unhealthy, particularly near the ſea. The ſtrand takes up a great depth, and is compoſed of white and dry ſand. On advancing into the country, which is pretty even, the climate is found to be more healthy, and the lands more fruitful. They have annually two harveſts of maize. They have alſo good paſturage, and plenty of cattle. The trees and plants are much the ſame as in Eaſt Florida; but the Weſt affords ſome articles which are wanted there. The inland parts are alſo much better.

Pearls are found here in great abundance; but the Indians prize the European beads more. Upon the whole coaſt, for 200 leagues, are ſeveral vaſt beds of oyſters, and in the freſh water lakes and rivers is a ſort of ſhell fiſh, between a muſcle and an oyſter, in which is found abundance of pearls, many of which are larger than ordinary.

The French inhabitants, who are numerous here, are chiefly employed in the building ſhips, and cultivating rice, cotton, and indigo. Their cotton is very fine, of a clear white, and their indigo is as good as that from St. Domingo.

On the banks of the Miſſiſſippi are ſeveral ſprings and lakes, which produce excellent ſalt. The plants producing hemp and flax abound here, as well as that ſort of ſilk-graſs of which are made ſuch ſtuffs as come from the Eaſt Indies, called herb ſtuffs. Vaſt flights of wild pigeons come here at ſome ſeaſons of the year, and rooſt on the trees in great numbers. In many places are mines of pit-coal; and iron ore is often found near the ſurface of the earth, whence a metal is extracted little inferior to ſteel. Here are alſo ſome mines of quick-ſilver, or rather the metal from which it is extracted. It is only uſed by the original natives to paint their faces and bodies in time of war, or at high feſtivals.

The inhabitants of Weſt Florida are more numerous than thoſe of Eaſt Florida, it being more healthy and inviting, eſpecially in the weſtern parts, near the banks of the Miſſiſſippi.

The chief town of Weſt Florida is Penſacola. The landing-place is within the bay, the town being ſituated on a ſandy ſhore, perfectly white, that can only be approached by ſmall veſſels. The road, however, is one of the beſt in all the Gulph of Mexico, as veſſels may lie there in ſafety againſt every kind of wind. The bottom affords excellent anchorage; and the ſea, which is ſeldom agitated, on account of being ſurrounded by the land on every ſide, is capable of containing a great number of ſhips. On the weſt ſide of the harbour ſtands the town, defended by a ſmall fort. A very fine river falls into the Bay of Mexico on the eaſt ſide of the harbour, after running above 100 miles through the country. The land here produces plenty of the trees fit for maſts of ſhips, and accordingly many of them are cut down and carried to Vera Cruz for that purpoſe.

As there are many particulars reſpecting perſon, dreſs, manners, and cuſtoms, which are peculiar to the original Indians of Florida, we ſhall preſent them to the reader. The bodies of theſe people are robuſt, and well proportioned. Both ſexes go naked, except having a deer ſkin round the waiſt. They ſtain their ſkin with the juice of plants, and have long black hair, which they have a method of twiſting and binding upon the head, ſo as to render it rather becoming. The women, who, in general have good features, and are well made, are ſo active that they will climb with amazing ſwiftneſs to the tops of the higheſt trees, and ſwim acroſs broad rivers with their children on their backs. The men make uſe of bows and arrows with great dexterity. The ſtrings of their bows are made of the ſinews of ſtags; and they point the ends of their arrows with ſharp ſtones, or the teeth of fiſhes. With reſpect to religion, they are idolaters.

Their œconomy in the management and diſtribution of their corn, which is accounted the common ſtock of the public, is well worthy of notice. The crop, which is calculated to ſerve only half the year, is collected into granaries appointed for that purpoſe, and afterwards regularly delivered out to every family, in proportion to the number of perſons it contains. The ſoil, is indeed, capable of affording much more corn than they are able to conſume; but they chooſe to ſow no more than will ſerve them for that term, retiring, for the remainder of the year, into the receſſes of the foreſts, where they build huts of palm trees, and live upon roots, wild fowl, and fiſh. They are very fond of the fleſh of alligators, which has a ſtrong muſky ſmell. Their meat is dreſſed in the ſmoak, upon a gridiron made of ſticks, and water ſerves for their common drink.

The people are, in general, ſatisfied with one wife, but the chiefs are indulged with more, though the children of only one of them ſucceed to the father's dignity.

The government of the original Floridas is in the hands of many chiefs, who are called caciques. They are frequently at war with each other. In their warlike expeditions they carry with them honey and maize, and ſometimes fiſh dried in the ſun. The chief marches at the head, carries a bow in one hand, and a bow and arrows in the other; his quiver hangs at his back; and the reſt follow tumultuouſly with the ſame arms.

In their warlike deliberations, if the matter be of great moment, their prieſts, who are alſo a kind of phyſicians, are called in, and their opinions particularly aſked. Then the cacique carries round a kind of liquor, like our tea, made by the infuſions of the leaves of a certain tree.

The funeral of a deceaſed cacique is celebrated with great ſolemnity. They place upon his tomb the bowl out of which he was accuſtomed to drink, and ſtick great numbers of arrows in the earth around him, bewailing his death for three days with faſting and loud lamentations. The generality of them cut off their hair as a ſingular teſtimony of their ſorrow. Their chieftains alſo ſet fire to, and conſume, all the houſehold furniture, together with the hut that belonged to the deceaſed, after which ſome old women are deputed, who every day, during the ſpace of half a year, at morning, noon, and evening, bewail him with dreadful howlings, according to the practice of ſome more civilized nations, and particularly the ancient Romans, who frequently hired women at the funerals of their relations and friends.

SECTION II.

LOUISIANA.

LOUISIANA, a country of conſiderable extent, is bounded on the north by the territories of the wild Indians, on the ſouth by the Gulph of Mexico, on the eaſt by Florida, and on the weſt by New Mexico. It extends from latitude 26 to lat. 40 deg. north.

Notwithſtanding the ſeveral attempts of the Spaniards and French to make ſettlements in this country, which generally miſcarried, it appears that the latter had hardly any ſettlements in it till 1720, except that of Iſle Dauphine, on the banks of the Mobile, about 80 leagues eaſt of the mouth of the Miſſiſſippi.

This

This country may be conſidered as comprehended under the government of Florida. It was ceded, in part, to the Engliſh by the treaty of 1763, and by them, together with Florida, ceded to the Spaniards, according to the treaty of 1783. Louiſiana is rendered exceedingly pleaſant and fertile by the overflowing of ſeveral rivers at certain ſeaſons. The meadows are delightful, and well adapted to agriculture. In ſome parts the ground yields two or three crops; for in the winter there are only heavy rains, without any nipping froſts. All the trees known in Europe flouriſh here, together with a great variety of others unknown to us; ſuch as the tall cedar, which diſtils an odoriferous gum; and the cotton tree, which is of a prodigious height. The ſoil, to the ſouthward, is adapted to the cultivation of indigo and rice; and, to the northward, to that of wheat. The whole country abounds with variety of game, fowl, and cattle, and all the neceſſaries of life.

The rivers of Louiſiana, beſides the Miſſiſſippi, are St. Francis, the Black River, and the Mobile, which waters a very fine tract of country, and forms at its mouth a noble bay.

In the Iſle of Orleans, at the mouth of the Miſſiſſippi, is the town of New Orleans, the capital of Louiſiana; both of which derived their names from the French. New Orleans is the reſidence of the governor, grand council, and courts of juſtice, as well as the emporium of Louiſiana.

The original inhabitants of this country differ, in general, from thoſe of Canada, being more ſprightly and active, and leſs thoughtful and moroſe. They knew nothing of any inſtruments made of iron and ſteel, much leſs of fire-arms, till the coming of the French, all their cutting tools being very ingeniouſly made of ſharp flints, and uſed with great dexterity. Their principal ornaments are bracelets, pendants, and collars; ſome of which are pearl, but ſpoiled for want of knowing in what manner to bore them.

SECTION III.

NEW MEXICO AND CALIFORNIA.

NEW Mexico, including California, is 2000 miles long, and 1600 broad. It is bounded on the eaſt by Louiſiana, on the ſouth by New Spain, or Mexico Proper, on the weſt by the Gulph of California, and on the north by high mountains. It is ſituated between 25 and 37 degrees of north latitude, and between 94 and 126 degrees of weſt longitude. The country is watered by rivers and rivulets. The principal rivers are thoſe called the Rio Solado, and the Rio del Norte. There are ſeveral ſmaller ones that fall into the Gulph of Mexico; and ſome bays, ports, and creeks on that coaſt, that might be converted into good harbours, were the Spaniards poſſeſſed, in any degree, of that active ſpirit which animates the other maritime powers of Europe. The lands are interſected with riſing grounds and fertile plains, covered with trees, ſome of which are fit for timber, and others produce various ſorts of fruits. Here are all kinds of wild and tame cattle, with variety of fowl; and the rivers are ſtored with the choiceſt fiſh.

Santa Fé, the capital of New Mexico, is ſituated 130 leagues from the ſea, near the ſource of the river Rio del Norte. It is an opulent city, regularly built, and the ſee of a biſhop, ſuffragan of Mexico, as well as the ſeat of the governor of the country, who is ſubordinate to the viceroy of Mexico.

New Mexico is inhabited by a great variety of different nations, entirely unconnected with each other; but the principal are the Apaches, the ſeveral tribes of whom are diſtinguiſhed by their towns and ſettlements. They are a reſolute and warlike people, fond of liberty, averſe to tyranny and oppreſſion, and formidable on account of the dexterity with which they handle their bows and arrows. When the Spaniards firſt entered the country, they found the natives pretty well cloathed, their lands cultivated, their villages neat, and their towns built of ſtone, in which they diſcovered ſome knowledge of architecture, not drawn from the rules of art, but the convenience dictated by nature. They were great lovers of mules fleſh, and, upon that account, frequently ſeized the mules of Spaniſh travellers, leaving their cheſts of ſilver upon the road, becauſe they ſet no value upon that metal. Their princes were little more than leaders of their armies, elected at the pleaſure of the people for their wiſdom or valour. Theſe people may now be ſaid to be rather the allies, than the ſubjects, of the Spaniards. The Spaniards have been rather ſparing in their accounts of this country, which muſt be imputed either to their ignorance or caution.

California, the moſt northern of all the Spaniſh dominions on the continent of America, towards the Pacific Ocean, was for a long time ſuppoſed to be an iſland, but at laſt was found to be only a peninſula, iſſuing from the north coaſts of America, and extending into the Pacific Ocean 800 miles from Cape Sebaſtian, in 43 deg. 30 min. north latitude; towards the ſouth-eaſt, as far as Cape St. Lucar, in 22 deg. 30 min. north latitude. The eaſtern coaſt lies nearly parallel with that of Mexico, oppoſite to it; and the ſea between is called the Gulph or Lake of California, or the Vermilion Purple or Red Sea.

The breadth of the peninſula is very unequal. Towards the north it is near 200 miles broad, but at the ſouthern extremity it tapers away, and is ſcarcely 50 miles over.

California was firſt diſcovered to be a peninſula by a German jeſuit, who landed in it from the Iſland of Sumatra, and paſſed into New Mexico, without croſſing any other water than Rio Azul, or the Blue River. The more ſouthern part was known to the Spaniards ſoon after the diſcovery of Mexico, for Cortez diſcovered it in 1535: but they did not penetrate far into it till ſome time after, contenting themſelves with the pearl fiſhery on the coaſt.

It was viſited by our countryman Sir Francis Drake in 1578, who called it New Albion, and took poſſeſſion of it in the name of Queen Elizabeth, ſince which time, however, the Engliſh have made no pretenſions to it.

In ſummer the heats are violent along the coaſts, but up the country the air is more temperate, and, in winter, ſometimes cold. However, in ſo extenſive a country, there muſt be great variations both of ſoil and climate; and though upon a general view, California appears rather rough, craggy, and unpromiſing, with due culture it would furniſh moſt of the neceſſaries of life.

The country produces timber fit for ſhip-building, and has moſt of the fruits to be found in other parts of America. Here is a ſpecies of manna, ſuppoſed to fall with the dew, and to become inſpiſſated on the leaves of the trees. Botaniſts are agreed that this manna is a juice oozing from the tree; though the natives think that it drops from heaven.

With reſpect to animals, here are deer, of which two kinds are peculiar to the country; a particular ſpecies of ſheep, buffaloes, beavers, or animals much reſembling them, a peculiar ſpecies of wild dogs, lions, wild cats, and many other wild beaſts. The horſes, mules, aſſes, oxen, ſheep, hogs, goats, and other quadrupeds, that have been imported hither from Spain and Mexico, multiply exceedingly. Of the two ſpecies of deer peculiar to California, that called by the natives taye is greatly eſteemed, and eat with the ſame reliſh as veniſon by many Europeans.

Of the feathered kind here is great variety; in particular, the coaſt is plentifully ſtocked with peacocks, buſtards, geeſe, cranes, vultures, gulls which are larger than geeſe, cormorants, mews, quails, linnets, larks, nightingales, and many other ſpecies.

The multitude and variety of fiſh with which the Gulph of California, the Pacific Ocean, and the rivers are ſupplied, is almoſt incredible. Salmon, turbot, barbel,

barbel, ſkate, mackarel, pilchards, thornbacks, ſoles, bonetas, and many other ſpecies, are caught here with very little trouble; together with pearl oyſters, common oyſters, cray-fiſh, lobſters, and a variety of exquiſite ſhell fiſh. However, of the teſtaceous or ſhell kind, the moſt remarkable and abundant is the tortoiſe, caught in the utmoſt plenty upon the coaſts. On the ſouth coaſt alſo is a ſhell fiſh the moſt beautiful that can be imagined, being of an elegant vivid blue colour, like the lapis lazuli.

California affords one of the richeſt pearl fiſheries in the world, and is likewiſe thought to have mines.

Inſects ſwarm here, as in moſt warm countries; yet they are neither ſo numerous or troubleſome as in ſome, on account of the dryneſs of the ſoil and climate.

There are two conſiderable rivers in California, viz. Rio Colloredo, and Rio du Carmel, with ſeveral ſmaller ſtreams, and fine ports, bays, creeks, and roads, both on the eaſt and weſt ſide.

In the heart of the country there are plains of ſalt, quite firm, and clear as cryſtal, which, conſidering the vaſt quantities of fiſh of all ſorts found here, might be of great advantage to any civilized nation.

The original Indians who inhabit California are, in general, well formed and robuſt, of a healthy countenance, but ſwarthy complexion. Their habitations are wretched huts, built near the few ſtreams, wells, and ponds found in the country. As they are under the neceſſity of frequent migrations in ſearch of food, they eaſily ſhift their reſidence, it requiring only the labour of a few hours to build a little habitation fitted for all their purpoſes; and it is uſual with them, in the ſeverity of winter, to live in ſubterraneous caverns. Their furniture and property conſiſts of implements for fiſhing, hunting, and war, in which moſt of their time is ſpent. Their boats are only rafts; and their arms are bows, arrows, and jagged clubs.

The dreſs of the men is little more than a girdle round the waiſt, with a few ornaments about their hair. The women wear their hair looſe. They have alſo a kind of cloak and petticoat, made of palm leaves; ſome wear fillets of neat net-work. Their arms are likewiſe frequently adorned with net work, or ſtrings of pearls in the form of bracelets. The love of ornament prevails among the women more than among the men.

Their greateſt ingenuity appears in their fiſhing nets, which are made with admirable ſkill, of various colours, and ſuch diverſity of texture and workmanſhip, as cannot be deſcribed.

They have a high feſtival at the gathering in of the fruits of the earth, when they indulge themſelves in feaſting, dancing, and mirth.

SECTION IV.

OLD MEXICO, OR NEW SPAIN.

Situation, Extent, Boundaries, Vegetables, Animals, Birds, Fiſh, Articles of Trade, Mines, Diviſions, chief Cities and Towns, Inhabitants, Perſons, Diſpoſitions, Manners, Cuſtoms, &c.

OLD Mexico, or New Spain, the firſt valuable acquiſition of the Spaniards on the continent of America, lies between 7 deg. 30 min. and 30 deg. 40 min. north latitude, is 2000 miles long, 600 broad, where wideſt, and has the iſthmus of Darien on the ſouth, New Mexico on the north, the Gulph of Mexico on the eaſt, and the Ocean on the weſt.

There are ſome mountains on the weſtern coaſt of New Spain, near the Pacific Ocean, moſt of which are ſaid to be volcanos. Several rivers riſe in theſe mountains, and fall ſome into the Gulph of Mexico, and ſome into the South Sea, on both of which there are ſeveral capes and bays. Among the bays on the gulph are thoſe of Campeachy and Honduras. In the Jucatan, a large peninſula in the Gulph of Mexico, the Spaniards firſt diſcovered that well-known plant called tobacco, in the year 1520.

The air of this country is temperate, conſidering its ſituation in the torrid zone. The rainy ſeaſon begins the latter end of April, and continues till September, being preceded by terrible ſtorms, which are ſo variegated, that the wind blows from almoſt every point of the heavens, increaſing their fury daily till the month of June, at which time the rain falls as if a ſecond deluge were to enſue.

No country under heaven abounds more with grain, delicious fruits, roots, and vegetables, many of which are peculiar to it, or at leaſt to America. Of theſe the moſt remarkable are bamboos, mangroves, and log-wood, which grow on the coaſts; red and white cotton trees, cedars, blood-wood, and maho, of which the natives make ropes and cables; light wood, of which they make floats, being as light as cork; white wood, the cabbage tree, the calabaſh, cocoa, and vanilla, which the Spaniards call bexuco, or bainilla; plantains, bananas, pine apples, ſapadillo, avogato pear, mammee, mammee-ſapota, grape, prickle, bibby, and other curious fruit-trees; beſides which, the Spaniards have introduced moſt of the European fruits. Mexico alſo produces the poiſonous manchineel apple, gourds of a prodigious ſize, melons, ſilk-graſs, tamarinds, and locuſt trees; the little black, white, and borachio ſapota trees, the laſt of which takes its name from the inebriating quality of the fruit. To theſe we may add the Grenadillo de China, creeping-plant, and the maybey, which furniſhes the natives with thread for linen and cordage, and alſo a balſam and liquor, which, when fermented, is as pleaſant and ſtrong as wine. From this, too, is diſtilled a ſtrong ſpirit, which is not unlike brandy.

Other valuable productions of New Spain are copal, aninie, tacamahaca, caranica, liquid amber, and oil of amber. Balſam of Peru is alſo found in Mexico, guaiacum, China-root, ſarſaparilla, and the root mechoacan, which are well known to druggiſts and apothecaries, and of excellent uſe in a variety of diſtempers. Beſides the maize, or native grain of Mexico, the Spaniards have introduced the uſe of barley, wheat, peas, beans, and other grain.

The numbers of horned cattle here are immenſe, many of them running wild. Their fleſh turns to little account by reaſon of the extreme heat; but their hides and tallow are productive of great advantages. Swine are very numerous, and their lard is much in requeſt, and uſed inſtead of butter throughout the country. Sheep are likewiſe numerous, but their wool is of no great conſideration, being hairy and ſhort. There are ſeveral ſorts of red and fallow deer, hares, rabbits, ſquirrels, foxes, jackalls, monkies, and divers other animals.

With reſpect to the feathered race, there are, in Mexico, tame poultry, turkies, pidgeons, parrots, paroquets, macaws, humming birds, eagles, vultures, pelicans, cormorants, bats, and a multitude of other ſpecies.

On the coaſts and banks of rivers are caught alligators, turtle, paracoad, gar fiſh, mullets, and mackarel, which reſemble thoſe of Europe, but are of a very large ſize. There are oyſters and muſſels of a prodigious ſize, alſo great plenty of lobſters, crabs, and ſhrimps.

The principal trading commodities of New Spain are wool, cotton, ſugar, ſilk, cochineal, chocolate, feathers, honey, balſams, drugs, dyeing woods, ſalt, tallow, hides, tobacco, ginger, amber, pearls, precious ſtones, jaſper, porphyry, exquiſite marble, and gold and ſilver.

The gold and ſilver mines are found in the rocky barren parts of the country. There are ſeveral, it is ſaid, of the former, and no fewer than 1000 of the latter. Gold is alſo found in grains, or duſt, in the ſands of rivers and torrents. Whoever diſcovers a mine of gold or ſilver is at liberty to work it, paying the king a tenth

a tenth of the product, and limiting himself within 50 yards round the place upon which he has fixed. All the silver and gold, either dug or found in grains, is entered in the royal exchequer; and it is reported, that, notwithstanding great quantities are run and concealed, no less than 2,000,000 of silver marks, weighing eight ounces each, are entered yearly, out of which they coin 700,000 marks, into pieces of eight, quarter pieces, rials, and half pieces; the value of the latter being about three-pence sterling.

The whole of the trade between Old Spain and the Spanish American dominions, is by means of a fleet called the flota, which is fitted out at Cadiz, and destined to La Vera Cruz. The ships are not permitted to break bulk, on any account, till they arrive there. When all the goods are landed and disposed of at La Vera Cruz, the fleet takes in the plate, precious stones, cochineal, indigo, cocoa, tobacco, sugar, and hides, which are the returns for Old Spain. From Vera Cruz they sail to the Havannah, which is the place of their rendezvous, where they meet the galleons. These are another fleet, which carry on all the trade of Terra Firma, by Carthagena; and of Peru, by Panama and Porto-Bello; in the same manner as the flota serves for New Spain. When the flota arrives at the Havannah, and joins the galleons and register ships, which assemble at the same port from all quarters, some of the cleanest and best sailing vessels are dispatched to Old Spain, with advice of the contents of these several fleets, as well as with treasure and goods of their own, that the court may judge what duty is proper to be laid on them, and what convoy is necessary for their safety.

Register-ships are sent out by merchants at Cadiz and Seville, when they judge that goods must be wanted at any particular ports in the West Indies. Their way is to petition the council of the Indies for a license to send a ship of 300 tons burthen, or under, to that port. They pay 40 or 50 dollars for this license, besides presents to the officers, in proportion to the connivance necessary to the design: for though the license runs only to 300 tons at most, the vessel fitted out is seldom less than 600. The ship and cargo are registered at the pretended burthen. It is required, too, that a certificate be brought from the king's officer at that port to which she is bound, that she does not exceed the size at which she is registered. All this passes of course. These are what they call register ships, and by these the trade of Spanish America has been carried on for some years past.

Old Mexico is divided into three districts or governments, called audiences, as having sovereign courts, which, though under the inspection of the viceroy, decide all civil and criminal cases. His employment, in point of trust and power, is one of the greatest the Spanish monarch has in his gift; and it is, perhaps, the richest government entrusted to any subject in the world. But neither the viceroy or any other officer is suffered to hold his post longer than three years. This being the case, the miserable inhabitants become a prey to the rapacity of every new governor. The districts are Guadalaxara, Mexico, and Guatimala, comprehending each their respective provinces as follow. Those of Guadalaxara are Cinaloa, Culiacan, Xalisco, Guadalaxara Proper, and New Biscay. Those of Mexico are Mechoacan, Mexico Proper, Tlascala, Guaxaca, and Jucatan. Those of Guatimala are Chiapa, Guatimala Proper, Honduras, Costa Ricca, and Veragua. These districts have their respective capitals. Guadalaxara is the capital of the province of that name, and is a large, populous, and neat city, containing spacious streets, several churches, a stately cathedral, and some convents for both sexes.

Mexico, the capital of the audience of Mexico, stands in the middle of a great lake of its own name, in latitude 19 deg. 40 min. about 170 miles west of the Gulph of Mexico. In point of regularity, it exceeds most cities in the universe; the streets being so straight, and exactly disposed, that from any part of the town the whole is visible. The want of gates, walls, and artillery, together with the five great causeways leading to the city, renders Mexico extremely remarkable. All the buildings are convenient; but the public edifices, especially the churches and convents, are magnificent. Here are 29 cathedrals and churches, and 22 monasteries and nunneries. Besides there are several hospitals, which are richly endowed, and amongst the rest is one for young maids who are left orphans. The several trades have their respective streets: a very spacious one, that runs from the square, belongs to the goldsmiths. The shops are furnished with such a variety of brilliant articles, as to exhibit a lustre not to be paralleled in any part of the known world. The city is supplied with fresh water from a hill at three miles distance, to which an aqueduct, supported on strong arches, extends from the city.

Another place worthy of notice in this district is Acapulco, which stands in 17 deg. north latitude, on a bay of the South Sea, about 210 miles south-east from Mexico. The haven is large and commodious, and the entrance secured by a flat island running across, at each end of which is a deep channel, sufficiently broad for the greatest vessels. The only inconvenience is, that ships must enter by the sea wind, and go out by the land breeze, which seldom fail to succeed each other alternately; so that they are frequently blown off to sea after repeated attempts to make the harbour. The town is large, but ill built; and a part of it consists of warehouses. The climate here is unhealthy, and earthquakes very common. During the fair, after the arrival of the Lima and Manilla ships, the town is so excessively crowded, that great numbers are obliged to pitch tents in the neighbourhood for their accommodation. It is supposed that the Manilla galleon carries off from Acapulco at least 10,000,000 of dollars, in return for the goods she brings thither, and for the payment of the Spanish garrisons in the Philippine Isles.

In the province of Tlascala, in this district, is the city of La Vera Cruz, or Ulva, situated on the Gulph of Mexico, about 70 leagues from the capital. It is very strong, both by art and nature, being the great mart of all the Spanish trade in the North Sea, and has a safe commodious harbour. The air, however, is so unhealthy, that few Spaniards of distinction make their common residence in it.

Guatimala, the capital of the audience and province of that name, is situated on a beautiful plain, and is well built and inhabited. The cathedral and parish churches are elegant and sumptuous; and here are two fine monasteries, a nunnery, and an hospital.

In the province of Jucatan is the town of Campeachy. It has a fine appearance, being built of stone, and encompassed with a good wall, and has a strong citadel.

The present inhabitants of Mexico are a mixed people, composed of the native Indians and the Negroes, and the descendants of these are divided and distinguished by various names, as Creoles, Mestizes, Mestiches, Terceroons, and Quarteroons. The issue of an European and Negro is called a Mulatto: besides which there is a mixed breed of Negroes and Indians, which is generally deemed the lowest rank of the people.

With respect to the persons, dispositions, customs, and, indeed, general character of the Mexicans, or Free Indians, we are enabled, through favour of a correspondent, to present our readers with the following most genuine, as well as modern, account that can possibly be given.

The Mexicans are, in common, of good stature, and well-proportioned form. Their complexion is a deep olive. They have narrow foreheads; black eyes; firm, regular, black teeth; black, coarse, glossy hair; thin beards; and generally no hair on their legs, thighs, and arms. Some tribes look upon flat noses as a great beauty. Almost all the Mexicans paint their bodies with the figures of various birds and beasts, and anoint them with oil or fat. Some tribes are cloathed; but the men of others go almost quite naked. The Mexicans,

cans, in general, have their noſes, lips, ears, necks, and arms, adorned with pearls and other jewels, or trinkets made of gold, ſilver, or ſome other metal.

There are very few deformed perſons in Mexico, where it would be more difficult to find a ſingle hump-backed, lame or ſquint-eyed man among a thouſand of the natives, than among an hundred of any other nation. When their perſonal defects and excellencies are poiſed impartially, they can neither be called very beautiful, or the contrary, but ſeem to hold a middle place between the extremes. Their appearance neither engages or diſguſts. Among the young women there are many highly attracting, from the union of accompliſhments perſonal and mental. Their ſenſes in general are acute, but particularly ſo that of ſight, which they enjoy to a great age unimpaired. Their conſtitutions are robuſt. They are free from many diſorders common to the Spaniards; but to the epidemical diſeaſes to which their country is occaſionally ſubject, they fall the principal victims: with them theſe diſeaſes begin, and with them they end. They are rarely affected with that nauſeouſneſs of breath which is occaſioned in other people by the corruption of the humours or indigeſtion. They become grey-headed and bald earlier than the Spaniards, and although moſt of them die of acute diſeaſes, yet they ſometimes attain to the age of one hundred years.

They are moderate in eating, but their paſſion for ſtrong liquors is carried to the greateſt exceſs, which expoſes them to all the baneful impreſſions of diſeaſe, and is, undoubtedly, the principal cauſe of the havock made among them by epidemical diſorders. Their minds, like the children of Adam in general, are ſuſceptible of cultivation, and experience has actually ſhewn, that their faculties are adapted to every kind of ſcience.

The Mexicans are not violently tranſported by their paſſions: they are ſlow in their motions, and diſcover a wonderful tenacity and ſteadineſs in thoſe works which require long-continued attention. They are patient of injury and hardſhip, and grateful for kindneſs ſhewn where they ſuſpect no evil intention. By nature taciturn, ſerious and auſtere, they ſhew more anxiety to puniſh crimes than to reward virtues.

The principal characteriſtics of the Mexicans are generoſity and diſintereſtedneſs: hence gold with them loſes its value, and they ſeem to give, without reluctance, what has coſt them the utmoſt labour to acquire.

The reſpect paid by parents to their children, and by the young to the old, ſeems to ariſe from congenial principles. Parents are fond of their children, but the affection which huſbands bear to their wives is certainly leſs than that borne by wives to their huſbands; and it is too common for the men to love their neighbours wives better than their own.

Their minds are ſo alternately affected by reſolution and fear, that it is often difficult to determine which of them bears the ſway. Dangers which proceed from natural cauſes they encounter with intrepidity, but the freedom of a Spaniard thrills them with horror.

To ſum up the whole, the character of the Mexicans, like that of every other people in the world, is a mixture of good and bad; but the bad qualities may be corrected by a proper education, as hath been demonſtrated by frequent experience.

As it is our deſire by no means to omit any ſubject that can conduce to the entertainment of our readers, we ſhall preſent them with a deſcription of the ſacrifices of the people of that part of the world previous to their being conquered by the Spaniards.

The ſacrifices of the ancient Mexicans were various, and horrid beyond expreſſion. In general the victims ſuffered death by having their breaſts opened; ſometimes they were drowned in a lake; ſometimes they died with hunger ſhut up in caverns of the mountains; and ſometimes they fell in what was called the gladiatorian ſacrifice.

The place for the performance of the common ſacrifice was the temple, in the upper area of which ſtood the altar. The miniſters were the prieſts, the chief of whom, on ſuch occaſions, was cloathed in a red habit fringed with cotton. On his head he wore a crown of green and yellow feathers. The other miniſters, which were five in number, were dreſſed in habits of the ſame make, but embroidered with black, and their bodies were dyed all over with the ſame colour. Theſe barbarous miniſters carried the victim naked to the upper area of the temple, and having pointed out to the byeſtanders the idol to whom the ſacrifice was made, extended him upon the altar. Four prieſts held his legs and arms, and another kept his head firm with a wooden inſtrument made in the form of a coiled ſerpent, and put about his neck. The body of the victim lay arched, the breaſt and belly being raiſed up and totally prevented from moving. The inhuman chief prieſt then approached, and with a cutting knife made of flint dexterouſly opened the breaſt, and tore out the heart, which while yet palpitating, he offered to the ſun, and afterwards threw it at the feet of the idol: he then took it up and burnt it, and the aſhes were preſerved as a precious relic. If the idol was of large ſize and hollow form, it was cuſtomary to introduce the heart of the victim into its mouth with a golden ſpoon. It was uſual alſo to anoint the lips of the idol, and the cornices of the door of the temple, with the blood of the victim. If the victim was a priſoner of war, they ſevered the head from the body, to preſerve the ſkull. The body was carried by the officer, or ſoldier, to whom the priſoner had belonged, to his houſe, to be boiled and dreſſed for the entertainment of his friends. If he was not a priſoner of war, but a ſlave purchaſed for ſacrifice, the proprietor carried off the body from the altar for the ſame purpoſe. They eat only the legs, thighs and arms, burning the reſt, or preſerving it for food for wild beaſts and birds of prey. Some ſects among them having ſlain the victim, tore the body in pieces, which they ſold at market. Others ſacrificed men to their gods, women to their goddeſſes, and children to the inferior deities. This was the moſt common mode of ſacrifice: there were others leſs frequent; ſuch as putting the victims to death by fire, drowning children of both ſexes in the lake, ſhutting them up in a cavern, and ſuffering them to periſh with fear and hunger.

The principal ſacrifice among the ancient Mexicans was that called by the Spaniards the Gladiatorian. This was an honourable death, and only priſoners diſtinguiſhed by their valour were permitted to die by it. The priſoner was placed on a ſtone in a conſpicuous part of the city, armed with a ſhield and a ſhort ſword, and tied by one foot. A Mexican officer, or ſoldier, better armed, mounted the ſtone to combat with him. If the priſoner was vanquiſhed, he was carried by a prieſt, dead or alive, to the altar of the common ſacrifices, where his breaſt was opened, and his heart taken out, while the victor was applauded and rewarded with ſome military honour. If the priſoner conquered ſix different combatants, who ſucceſſively engaged him, he was granted his life, his liberty, and diſmiſſed with honour to his native country.

HISTORY *and* CONQUEST *of* MEXICO.

THE great and extenſive empire of Mexico was under the ſole government of its own monarchs, till the Spaniards, under the command of Fernando Cortez, invaded and conquered it. This expedition was undertaken with only 508 foot, 16 troopers, and 108 ſeamen. Cortez with his forces landed on the coaſt of the Bay of Campeachy, and having diſperſed the natives with his artillery, marched to the city of Tabaſco, which he ſeized upon. The next day the Indians aſſembled an army of 40,000 men, with which they attacked the Spaniards; but Cortez, at the head of the horſe, attacking them in the flank, they retired.

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The day after the battle the cacique, or prince, ſent a ſolemn embaſſy to Cortez, to implore peace, attended with a preſent of ſuch fruits and proviſions as his country afforded, together with jewels, plumes, and painted cotton linen, and whatever he thought moſt acceptable to the conquerors. The ambaſſadors approached Cortez as they uſed to do their gods, with golden pads or cenſers, in which they burnt aromatic gums, and other incenſe: the cacique afterwards came in perſon, and made his ſubmiſſion, bringing him 20 beautiful Indian virgins, which he made Cortez a preſent of. One of theſe, whom the general afterwards cauſed to be baptized by the name of Donna Marina, ſerved him, during the whole expedition, in the double capacity of concubine and interpreter; for ſhe was a native of Mexico, a female of ready wit, and underſtood the cuſtoms of the country and the language perfectly well; and indeed to her merit and addreſs the Spaniards aſcribe the ſucceſs of their arms in a great meaſure. When the cacique of Tabaſco came to make his ſubmiſſion, Cortez let him know, that he came from a powerful prince; and that his principal view was to make them all happy in this world and the next, by making them ſubjects of the ſame ſovereign, and converting them to the true religion. To this the frighted cacique anſwered, that he and his people ſhould think themſelves happy in obeying a king, whoſe power and greatneſs appeared to ſuch advantage in the valour of his ſubjects; but as to the point of religion, he gave very little hopes of their converſion.

Cortez, being about to advance ſtill farther with his fleet on the Mexican coaſt, was under the greateſt concern that he muſt leave thoſe people before he had fully inſtructed them in the Catholic religion; and on Palm-Sunday, the day he appointed to embark his troops, he firſt cauſed an altar to be erected in the open field, where he celebrated high maſs in the preſence of the Indians, and all his troops marched in their ranks to the altar, with boughs or palms in their hands, to celebrate that feſtival: the proceſſion ſeemed to excite in the natives the utmoſt awe and reverence, inſomuch that ſome of them cried out, "This muſt be a great God, that ſuch brave men adore." Cortez ſailed to the port of St. John de Ulva, where he landed, and Donna Marina acted as interpreter. When the general was informed that Montezuma, the emperor of Mexico, had ſent to know the reaſon of the Spaniards invading his country, he anſwered ambiguouſly, but ſtill preſerved his deſign of penetrating into the country. Montezuma, in all his meſſages, tried to prevent the Spaniards from coming to Mexico, and Cortez as inflexibly perſiſted in that intent.

Cortez foreſaw that the Mexicans would not be able to prevent his approaching Mexico, eſpecially as he was joined about this time by a cacique, or prince of the country, named Zempoala, who offered to enter into an alliance with Cortez againſt Montezuma, whom he repreſented as a cruel tyrant and oppreſſor.

The cacique furniſhed him with 400 men to carry his baggage, and others to draw his artillery, there not being any beaſts in this part of the country fit to draw carriages; but every thing of this kind was done by the ſtrength of men.

The general continuing his march by the ſea-coaſt to Vera Cruz, was joined there by about 30 caciques from the mountains, who reinforced his troops with 100,000 men; and ſome parties of Europeans hearing of the ſucceſs of Cortez alſo voluntarily followed him thither, and joined his troops: whereupon he became ſo confident of his ſucceſs, that he burnt all his ſhips, and having fortified Vera Cruz, in which he left a ſmall garriſon, he began his march directly for the city of Mexico, being joined by the people of Tlaſcala, a country of great extent, who offered to become ſubjects of the king of Spain; at which Montezuma was ſo alarmed, that he offered to pay the Spaniards an annual tribute, amounting to one half of his revenues; and when he found it in vain to oppoſe the general's march, he thought fit to give him an invitation to his capital: but Cortez, who was determined to have the plunder of the capital city, pretended that the Mexicans were not ſincere in their invitation, but had entered into a conſpiracy to ſurprize the Spaniards, when they had drawn them into an ambuſcade, and maſſacre them; and, therefore, immediately began hoſtilities, and cut to pieces ſome thouſands of Montezuma's ſubjects.

After this, the Spaniards, continuing their march, were attended by ſeveral other caciques and lords of the country, who complained of the intolerable oppreſſions of Montezuma; telling Cortez that they looked upon him as their deliverer, ſent from heaven to reſtrain and puniſh the injuſtice and cruelty of tyrants; to whom he promiſed his protection: and drawing near to Mexico, in order to ſtrike the greater terror into the natives, he ordered his artillery and ſmall-arms to be diſcharged; and cauſed ſeveral Indians to be ſhot, that approached too near his quarters, while he lay encamped at Amemeca, on the borders of the Mexican lake.

Here prince Cacumatzin, the nephew of Montezuma, attended by the Mexican nobility, came to the general, and bid him welcome; aſſuring him that he would meet with a very kind and honourable reception from the emperor; but intimated, that there having been lately a great ſcarcity of proviſions in the city of Mexico, occaſioned by unſeaſonable weather, they could not accommodate them as they deſired; and, therefore, entreated he would defer his entrance into that capital, if he did not think fit entirely to decline going thither. But Cortez appearing determined to advance, the prince ſeemed to acquieſce; and the preparations for the reception of the Spaniards were continued.

Cortez being arrived at Quitlavaca, a city ſituated on an iſland in the great lake, five or ſix leagues from Mexico, had ſome apprehenſions that the Mexicans would break down the cauſeway, and remove the bridges on it; which would very much have embarraſſed him, becauſe he could neither have advanced or retired in that caſe, eſpecially with his horſe and artillery. But the cacique of Quitlavaca, who appeared to be a friend of the Spaniards, very much encouraged the general, telling him, he had nothing to fear; that the prodigies in the heavens, the anſwers of the oracles, and the fame of the great actions and ſurprizing arms of the Spaniards, had perfectly diſpirited their emperor, and diſpoſed him to ſubmit to whatever the general ſhould impoſe on him.

Soon after Cortez entered Mexico, at the head of 450 Spaniards, and 6000 Tlaſcalans; when they were met by Montezuma himſelf, who was brought in a chair of beaten gold, on the ſhoulders of his favourite courtiers.

The conference between the emperor and the general was ſhort, their ſpeeches were ſuitable to the occaſion, and the emperor commanded one of the princes, his relation, to conduct the general to the palace aſſigned for his reſidence, and then returned to his own palace.

It was about noon that the Spaniards were brought to the royal houſe appointed for their reception, which was ſo ſpacious, as to contain all the Europeans and their auxiliaries: it had thick ſtone walls, flanked with towers: the roof of the palace was flat, and defended by battlements and breaſt-work; inſomuch that when the general had planted his artillery, and placed his guards, it had very much the appearance of a fortreſs.

Hither Montezuma came the ſame evening, and was received by Cortez in the principal ſquare of the palace; and that monarch having entered the room of ſtate, and ſeated himſelf, ordered a chair for Cortez, and a ſignal was made for his courtiers to retire to the wall; whereupon the Spaniſh officers did the ſame; and Cortez being about to begin his ſpeech by his interpreters, Montezuma prevented him, by ſpeaking as follows:

"Illuſtrious and valiant ſtranger! Before you diſcloſe the important meſſage the great monarch you

came from has given you in command, it is neceſſary ſome allowance be made for what fame has reported of us on either ſide. You may have been informed by ſome, that I am one of the immortal gods; that my wealth is immenſely great, and my palaces covered with gold: and on the other hand, you may have heard that I am tyrannical, proud and cruel. But both the one and the other have equally impoſed upon you: you ſee I am a mortal of the ſame ſpecies with other men; and though my riches are conſiderable, my vaſſals make them much more than they are; and you find that the walls of my palaces are nothing more than plain lime and ſtone. In like manner, no doubt, has the ſeverity of my government been magnified: but ſuſpend your judgment of the whole, till you have an opportunity of informing yourſelf concerning it; and you will find that what my rebellious ſubjects call oppreſſion, is nothing more than the neceſſary execution of juſtice.

"After the ſame manner have your actions been repreſented to us: ſome ſpeak of you as gods; affirming that the wild beaſts obey you; that you graſp the thunder in your hands, and command the elements: while others aſſure me, you are wicked, revengeful, proud, and tranſported with an inſatiable thirſt after the gold our country produces.

"I am now ſenſible ye are of the ſame compoſition and form as other men, and diſtinguiſhed from us only by accidents which the difference of countries occaſions.

"Theſe beaſts (horſes) that obey you are, probably, a large ſpecies of deer, that you have tamed and bred up in ſuch imperfect knowledge as may be attained by animals: your arms are made of a metal, indeed, unknown to us, and the fire you diſcharge from them, with ſuch an aſtoniſhing ſound, may be ſome ſecret taught by your magicians. As to your actions, my ambaſſadors and ſervants inform me, that you are pious, courteous, and governed by reaſon: that you bear hardſhips with patience and chearfulneſs, and are rather liberal than covetous; ſo that we muſt, on both ſides, lay aſide our prejudices and prepoſſeſſions, and rely only on what our eyes and experience teach us."

To this the general anſwered, "That it was true, various were the reports they had heard: ſome endeavoured to defame and aſperſe him, while others adored him. But the Spaniards, who were endowed with a penetrating ſpirit, eaſily ſaw through the different colours of diſcourſe, and the deceit of the heart; that they neither gave credit to his rebellious ſubjects, or thoſe that flattered him; but came in his preſence, aſſured that he was a great prince, and a friend to reaſon; but very well ſatisfied, however, that he was a mortal, as they themſelves were: that the beaſts which obeyed him were not deer, but fierce and generous animals, inclined to war, and ſeemed to aſpire after the ſame glory as their maſters; that their fire-arms were, indeed, the effect of human induſtry, and owed nothing to the ſkill of the magician, whoſe arts were abominated by the Spaniards."

Having thus given ſome anſwer to the emperor's ſpeech, Cortez proceeded to inform him, "That he came ambaſſador from the moſt potent monarch under the ſun, to deſire his friendſhip and alliance: that there might be a communication and intercourſe between their reſpective dominions; and by that means, the Chriſtians might have an opportunity of convincing them of their errors, and, inſtead of blocks of wood, (the works of men's hands) inſtruct them to worſhip and adore the true God, the Creator of the whole univerſe. That this was the firſt and principal thing the king his maſter commanded him to inſiſt on, as the moſt likely means of eſtabliſhing a laſting amity; that, being united in principles of religion, their alliance might become indiſſoluble."

Montezuma replied, that "he accepted the alliance propoſed by the king of Spain; but as to the overture concerning religion, he totally objected to it;" and making Cortez a rich preſent, returned to his palace.

Cortez continued, for ſome time, very intimate with Montezuma, often viſiting the Mexican court; and that monarch frequently came to the Spaniſh quarters, making preſents to the general, and to his officers and ſoldiers, exhibiting ſhows and entertainments for their diverſion. The Mexicans ſtill treated the Spaniards with a reſpect that ſavoured of great humility and condeſcenſion. Montezuma ſpoke of their king with the greateſt veneration. His nobility paid a profound reſpect to the Spaniſh officers, and the people bowed the knee to the meaneſt Spaniſh ſoldier. But an accident happened which very much leſſened the eſteem, or rather dread, the Mexicans at firſt entertained of theſe foreigners.

One of the emperor's generals, levying the annual tax impoſed on the vaſſal princes in that part of the country which lay in the neighbourhood of the Spaniſh garriſon of Vera Cruz thoſe caciques who had thrown off their ſubjection to the Mexican empire, and entered into an alliance with the Spaniards, applied themſelves to John de Eſcalante, governor of Vera Cruz, for protection; who thereupon marched out of that fortreſs, with 40 Spaniards, and 3 or 4000 confederate Indians, to their aſſiſtance; and though he had the good fortune to defeat the Mexican general, yet one of the Spaniards was killed, and his head ſent up to the court; and the governor, with five or ſix more of his garriſon, were mortally wounded. This news being brought to Cortez, gave him great uneaſineſs; and the more, becauſe he was informed, by the confederate Indians, that the Mexicans were conſulting how to drive him out of their territories, which they did not apprehend to be impracticable ſince the engagement near Vera Cruz.

The Spaniſh general therefore, finding it impoſſible to maintain his authority among the Indians any longer without entering on ſome action that might give them freſh cauſe of aſtoniſhment, and recover that reputation they ſeemed to have loſt by that unfortunate accident, reſolved to ſeize the perſon of Montezuma, and bring him priſoner to his quarters; and accordingly, at an hour when the Spaniards were uſed to pay their court to that prince, Cortez, having given orders for his men to arm themſelves without noiſe, and poſſeſs themſelves of all the avenues leading to the palace in ſmall parties, that no notice might be taken of it, went to the Mexican court attended by ſeveral of his officers, and 30 ſoldiers, whoſe reſolution he could rely on, and being admitted to the emperor's preſence, he complained of the violation of the peace between them, by one of the Mexican generals falling upon his confederates, and afterwards killing a Spaniard he had taken in cold blood. To which Montezuma anſwered, "That if any thing of that nature had been done, it was without his orders; and he was ready to make ſatisfaction for any injury that might have been done undeſignedly, either to the Spaniards or their allies." But Cortez gave him to underſtand, that nothing would ſatisfy them but his ſurrendering himſelf into their hands, and reſiding with them in the palace aſſigned to the Spaniards for their quarters.

Montezuma at firſt ſeemed aſtoniſhed at the inſolent demand, and remained for ſome time ſilent; but recovering from his ſurprize, he ſaid, that princes of his rank were not accuſtomed to yield themſelves up to a priſon; nor would his ſubjects permit this, even if he ſhould forget his dignity ſo far. Cortez anſwered, "If he would go along with them voluntarily, they were not afraid of any oppoſition his ſubjects ſhould make; and they would treat him with all the regard due to his dignity: he might continue to exerciſe his authority as formerly, and no reſtraint ſhould be put on his actions; only, for their ſecurity, he inſiſted that the emperor ſhould reſide among them." Montezuma, ſtill refuſing to put himſelf into their hands, was given to underſtand, that if he would not, they would carry him off by force, or murder him if they were oppoſed; whereupon he ſubmitted to do what he found it was impoſſible to avoid; and gave orders to his officers to prepare

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for his removal to the Spaniſh quarters, whither he went in the uſual ſtate, and voluntarily, to all appearance, except that he was attended by a company of Spaniards, who ſurrounded his chair.

Montezuma, as muſt be eaſily ſuppoſed, was rendered very miſerable by this indignity; and his ſervants, lamenting their emperor's hard fate, threw themſelves at his feet, endeavouring to eaſe him of the weight of his fetters; and though, when he recovered from his firſt amazement, he began to expreſs ſome impatience, yet, correcting himſelf, he acquieſced in his misfortunes, and waited the event, not without apprehenſions that there was a deſign againſt his life: but Cortez having ſeen his plan performed, by which he found he had ſtruck ſuch a terror into the Mexicans that little was to be feared from them, he returned to Montezuma's apartment, and ordered his fetters to be taken off; and, as ſome writers relate, he fell on his knees, and took them off with his own hands; for which favour the emperor embraced and thanked him. But what is ſtill more difficult to be believed, they aſſure us, that Cortez gave the emperor leave to return to his palace, and that he refuſed the offer out of regard to the Spaniards; telling them, he knew very well that as ſoon as he was put out of their power, his ſubjects would preſs him to take up arms againſt them, to revenge the wrongs he had ſuffered: nay, the Spaniſh hiſtorians poſitively affirm, that, notwithſtanding all the injuries and indignities they had offered to Montezuma, he expreſſed a more than ordinary friendſhip and regard for them, preferring their intereſt to that of his own ſubjects.

De Solis, the Spaniſh hiſtorian, ſays, that Cortez gave Montezuma leave to go whither he pleaſed, which he ſeems to contradict in a very few lines afterwards: for he tells us, when that prince only deſired to perform his devotions in one of his temples, it was granted upon certain conditions, namely, that he ſhould give his royal word to return to the Spaniſh quarters again, and from that day aboliſh human ſacrifices; and we make no doubt but they inſiſted on a third, viz. that he ſhould take a guard of Spaniards with him; for they acknowledge that a body of Spaniards actually attended him to the temple, which they could do with no other view than that of ſecuring their priſoner: though De Solis ſays, indeed, it was at the requeſt of Montezuma, that they went with him; nor did he ever go abroad without a Spaniſh guard, or without aſking leave of Cortez; or ever lay one night out of their quarters, by their own confeſſion; which they would have us aſcribe purely to choice, and his affection to the Spaniards, who had put ſuch indignities upon him. They add, that Cortez was now become his prime miniſter; that all poſts of honour or profit were diſpoſed of by him and his principal officers, who were courted by the Mexican nobility, when they ſaw that no places or preferments could be had but by their intereſt; which poſſibly might be true; but ſurely it is much more probable that Montezuma was influenced more by his fears than his affection for the Spaniards. And we may obſerve from hence, that, with all theſe advantages, Cortez and his Spaniards might have eſtabliſhed their power upon ſuch a foundation, as could not eaſily have been overthrown, without ſuch a deluge of blood as they ſpilt afterwards, if Cortez had been as able a politician as he was a ſoldier; or if his benevolence and humanity had exceeded his cruelty and avarice.

He ſeems to have left ſcarce any means untried for his ſecurity and eſtabliſhment but the principal, namely, gaining the affection of the Indians, and winning them over to his party, as well as to the Chriſtian religion, by acts of generoſity and beneficence. He was ſo careful of himſelf, that he cauſed ſome brigantines to be built on the lake of Mexico, whereby he entirely commanded the lake, and the cauſeways leading to the city; and at the ſame time he increaſed his reputation with the Mexicans by the artful management of thoſe veſſels; for the Indians were, at this time, ignorant of the uſe of ſails and rudders.

Don Diego Velaſques, governor of Cuba, being informed that Cortez had met with great ſucceſs in Mexico, and was endeavouring to render himſelf independent of him, declared him a rebel, and ſent Pamphilio de Narvaez, with 800 men, to reduce him, and take upon him the command of the Spaniſh forces in Mexico. Whereupon Cortez leaving a garriſon in the city of Mexico, and confining Montezuma there, marched to meet Narvaez his rival, ſurpriſed him in the night-time, made him priſoner, and ſo corrupted the officers of the troops that came over with Narvaez, by the rich preſents he made them, that they agreed to join Cortez. Thus reinforced, he returned to the city of Mexico again; and now imagining himſelf powerful enough to ſubdue that empire by force, without courting Montezuma or his ſubjects, he treated that monarch with great contempt. But ſome of the Spaniſh hiſtorians obſerve, that in this he committed a very great error: for had the general, on his returning in triumph with ſuch an addition of forces, entered into a treaty with that emperor and his nobility, they would have yielded to almoſt any terms; and he might have gained the dominion of that empire for the king of Spain, his maſter, without any bloodſhed. But he was too much elated with ſucceſs to think of pacific meaſures. On the contrary, he reſolved to give the Mexicans all manner of provocations, and even rendered them deſperate, that he might have a colour to deſtroy them, and ſeize all their poſſeſſions, whether lands or treaſure. He found a garriſon of 80 Spaniards able to repel the whole force of Mexico; and he did not doubt, now he ſaw himſelf at the head of 1100 Spaniſh horſe and foot, with a multitude of confederate Indians, he ſhould be able, by force, to reduce the Mexicans, and make ſlaves of them. But he was near paying very dear for his preſumption; for ſending out a detachment of 400 Spaniards and confederate Indians in ſearch of the enemy, who were retired to the fartheſt part of the city, they were ſurrounded, and in danger of having their retreat cut off; and he himſelf, with the reſt of his troops, very narrowly eſcaped being ſtarved or cut in pieces; for the Mexicans, rendered brave by their deſpair, were not afraid to attack Cortez in his quarters, tho' defended by a numerous garriſon, and a train of artillery; and when, at any time, he made a ſally, he found intrenchments in the ſtreets, and the bridges broken down, which rendered his cavalry, in a manner, uſeleſs; and though he uſually came off victorious, he found he had committed a very great error in ſhutting himſelf up in Mexico, from whence it was almoſt impoſſible to make his retreat, and where he found it impracticable to fetch in proviſions; the enemy being maſters of all the cauſeways that lead to the town, and of all the boats upon the lake; ſo that if his people were not deſtroyed by the continual attacks of the enemy, they muſt certainly, in a ſhort time, be reduced by famine.

In this diſtreſs Cortez thought fit to endeavour a reconciliation with Montezuma, and make uſe of the authority he ſtill retained among his ſubjects to induce them to lay down their arms, and permit the Spaniards to march out of Mexico, which, it was preſumed, they would readily have come into, that they might get rid of a people ſo much dreaded, as well as hated, by them. Accordingly, a parley being propoſed and agreed to, Montezuma appeared on the battlements of the palace, and ſome of the Mexican nobility advancing to hear what overtures he would make them, the Spaniards tell us, their emperor made a ſpeech to his ſubjects, wherein he greatly reprimanded them for taking up arms without his leave, though it was with an intention to obtain the liberty of their prince, declaring that he was, in reality, under no manner of reſtraint, but remained with the Spaniards from choice; that he thought himſelf obliged to ſhew the Spaniards this favour on account of the reſpect they had always paid him, and out of duty to the prince that had ſent them; that their embaſſy being diſpatched, he was about to

diſmiſs

diſmiſs theſe foreigners from his court, and deſired his ſubjects would lay down their arms, and not interrupt their march, and he ſhould readily pardon their having taken up arms, or to that effect.

The Mexicans paid little regard to this ſpeech. Whatever their emperor's words were, they knew they were put into his mouth by the Spaniards, whoſe priſoner he was, and tended only to procure them a ſafe retreat; and they were ſenſible, if they loſt the advantage they had, they muſt never expect ſuch another opportunity of getting rid of theſe unwelcome gueſts. They had them now cooped up in this fortreſs, where no relief could be brought them, and from whence it was ſcarce poſſible for them to retreat, if the Mexicans broke down the bridges and cauſeways upon the lake, and made ſuch ditches and trenches in the ſtreets, as the Spaniards themſelves had taught them; but foreſaw, if ever their enemies got over the lake again, they might not only receive freſh reinforcements from Spain and their Indian allies, but they muſt engage them to great diſadvantage in their open country, having nothing to oppoſe their horſe and artillery. The Mexicans reſolved, therefore, not to conſent to a ceſſation of arms, but rejected the overture with diſdain, as being framed only to give their mortal enemies an opportunity of eſcaping out of their hands, and reinforcing themſelves to the deſtruction of their country; and they were ſo enraged at the overture, that they ſhot at their emperor for making it to them, and mortally wounded him.

Cortez, finding the Mexicans were not to be amuſed with inſidious propoſals, from what hand ſoever they came, that his proviſions were almoſt ſpent, and that it would be impracticable to make his retreat in the day-time, reſolved to attempt it in the dark night. Having divided the treaſure, therefore, amongſt his men, with which they were pretty well loaded, for it amounted to an immenſe ſum, he iſſued out of his quarters at midnight, the weather being extremely tempeſtuous, whereby his march was for ſome time concealed; but he had not advanced a mile upon the cauſeway, before he found himſelf attacked on every ſide by the Mexicans, both by land and water, the lake being filled with their canoes or boats; and as they had broke down the bridges, and cut the cauſeways through in ſeveral places, the Spaniards were in great danger of being entirely cut off. Cortez, indeed, had foreſeen this, and provided a portable bridge to paſs the breaches in the cauſeways, which was of great uſe to him in ſeveral places: but the Indians found means to deſtroy this bridge before they were all paſſed over, and their rear-guard, conſiſting of 2 or 300 Spaniards, and 1000 confederate Indians, were cut in pieces. They alſo loſt their artillery, priſoners, baggage, and treaſure, with 46 horſes. Cortez, however, with the beſt part of his force, broke through the Indians, and eſcaped to the other ſide of the lake. Some impute this loſs to the avarice of his ſoldiers, who were ſo loaded with gold and ſilver, that they could ſcarce make uſe of their arms; and poſſibly there may be ſome truth in it; but we believe every one who conſiders his circumſtances, muſt be of opinion, that he was very fortunate in eſcaping ſo well. Had the enemy provided a body of forces to oppoſe him on the further ſide of the lake, he muſt inevitably have periſhed; but they did not expect his ſallying out ſo ſuddenly, eſpecially in that tempeſtuous ſeaſon, and were not, therefore, provided to attack him.

De Solis, the hiſtorian, endeavours to give us a particular account of this action, admires the valour and conduct of Cortez and his officers, and informs us how every one diſtinguiſhed himſelf in this memorable retreat. He proceeds to inform us, that they arrived juſt as it was day-light on firm land, and thought themſelves very happy that there was no army to oppoſe them there, and that they were purſued no further, till they had time to form and recover themſelves from their conſternation.

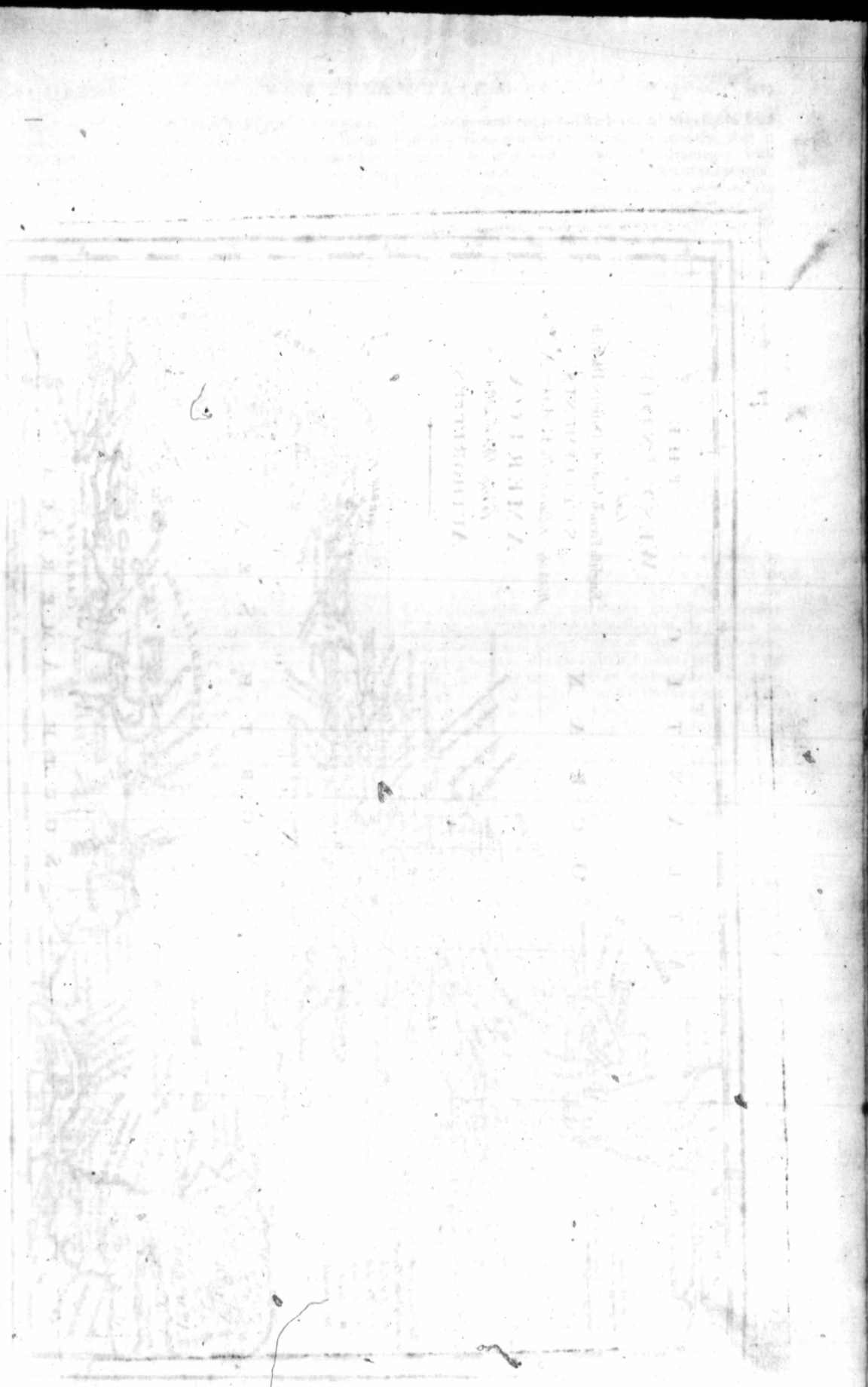
This good fortune, it ſeems, was owing to the compaſſion the Mexicans expreſſed for the two ſons of Montezuma, and ſeveral princes of the royal blood, whom they found ſlaughtered among the Spaniards, when the day-light appeared. The Mexicans relate, that Montezuma himſelf was of this number; and that the Spaniards murdered both him and his ſons, when they found they could not carry them off. The Spaniards, on the other hand, ſay, that Montezuma was killed before by the arrows of the Mexicans; and that the princes, alſo, were accidentally killed in the engagement while it was dark, and they could not diſtinguiſh friends from foes. But however that was, it is agreed the princes were found dead, pierced through with many wounds: and the Mexicans deferred the purſuit of the Spaniards, to ſolemnize the obſequies of thoſe two princes, or of Montezuma himſelf; to which piece of piety Cortez and the Spaniards, who were left alive, in a great meaſure owed their ſafety.

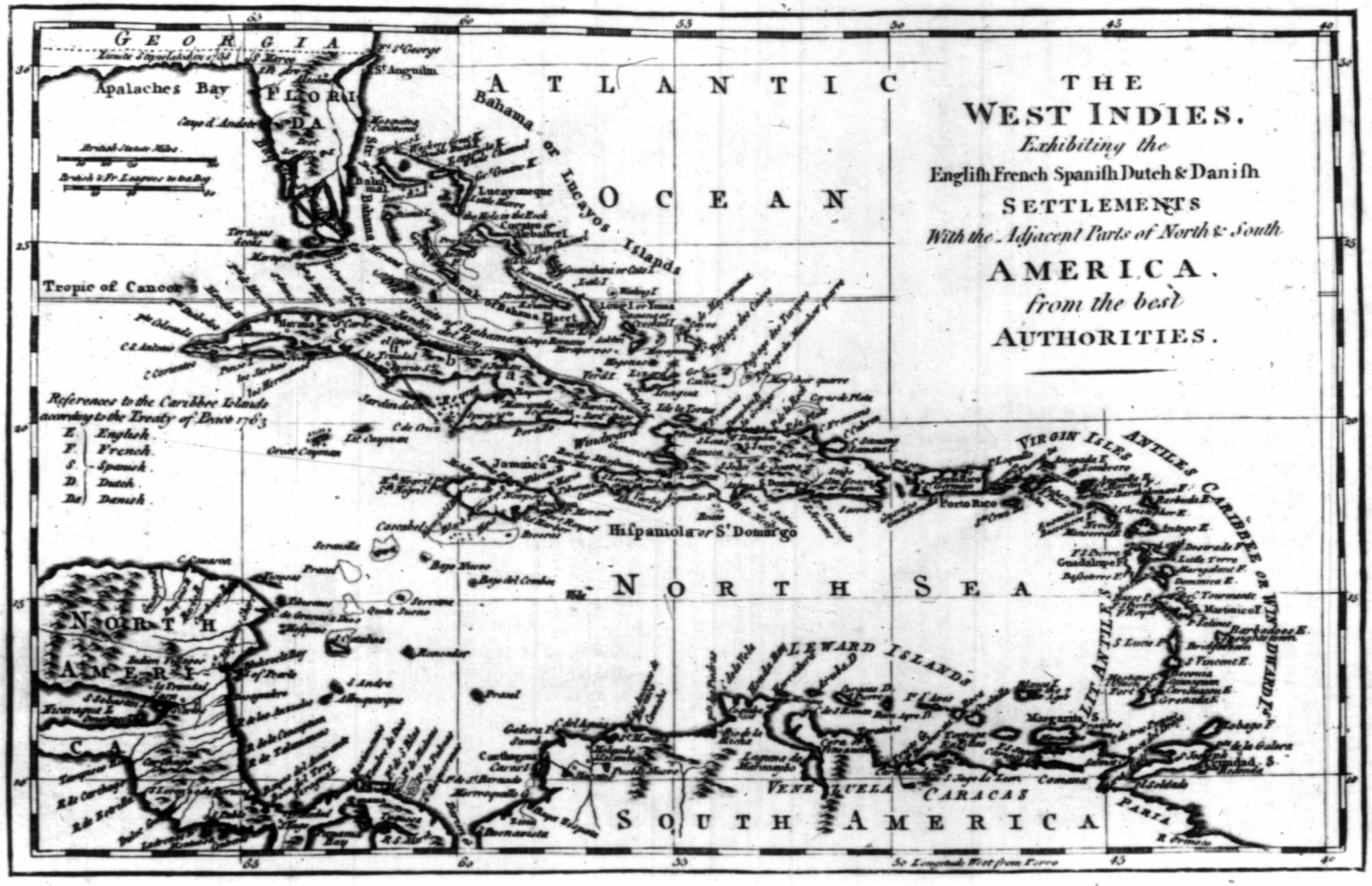
The Spaniards, having halted ſome time to refreſh themſelves, and take care of their wounded men, continued their march towards Tlaſcala, the country of their faithful allies and confederates: but they had not advanced many leagues before they were again overtaken, and attacked by the Mexicans, at a time when they were ſo fatigued and harraſſed, that had not Cortez taken poſſeſſion of a temple, that very fortunately lay in his way, he would have found it difficult to have repulſed the enemy. But the Mexicans, finding they could make no impreſſion on the Spaniards, as they lay intrenched within thoſe walls, thought fit to ſound a retreat. However, Cortez, apprehending he ſhould be diſtreſſed here for want of proviſions, began his march again at midnight, with great ſilence, in hopes to have got the ſtart of the enemy ſo far, that he ſhould have reached the Tlaſcalan territories before they could have overtaken him; but, to his great ſurprize, being arrived on the top of a very high mountain, he diſcovered the whole forces of the Mexicans, conſiſting of 200,000 men, drawn up in battalia in the valley of Otumba, through which it was neceſſary to paſs, in his way to Tlaſcala: whereupon Cortez made only this ſhort ſpeech to his officers, "We muſt either die or conquer;" and finding an uncommon ardour in his ſoldiers to engage, he immediately led them on. The fight was, for ſome time, bloody and obſtinate; and Cortez, apprehending his men would be wearied out by the continual ſupplies of freſh forces, which the Indians poured in upon him, gave a ſurpriſing turn to the battle, by attacking the imperial ſtandard, carried by the Mexican general, who was ſurrounded by the nobility; but having routed them, killed the general, and taken the ſtandard, the reſt of their troops turned their backs and fled, and were purſued with incredible ſlaughter by the Spaniards and their Indian allies, who made themſelves ample amends with the ſpoils of the enemy, for the treaſure they loſt on retiring from the city of Mexico.

Cortez now found it neceſſary to cultivate a good underſtanding with the caciques and princes of the country, and to take their troops into his ſervice, and made himſelf maſter of ſuch poſts as might be of moſt advantage to him in reducing the city of Mexico; and as he could not approach it by land but on the cauſeways, he built 13 brigantines and ſloops, whereby he became maſter of the navigation of the lake, and then attacked the town by water as well as on the land ſide, having about 1000 Spaniards in his army, and 200,000 Indian allies. He took the city by ſtorm on the 13th of Auguſt, 1521.

One hundred thouſand Mexicans periſhed in defence of the city; and this conqueſt was attended with the ſubmiſſion of moſt of the neighbouring provinces, who conſented to acknowledge themſelves ſubjects to the king of Spain (the then emperor Charles V.).

The city of Mexico being thus reduced, Cortez diſtributed the plunder among his ſoldiers, reſerving only a fifth, with the moſt remarkable curioſities, for the king,




THE
WEST INDIES.
Exhibiting the
English French Spanish Dutch & Danish
SETTLEMENTS
With the Adjacent Parts of North & South
AMERICA.
from the best
AUTHORITIES.
GEORGIA
Apalaches Bay
FLORIDA
ATLANTIC
OCEAN
Bahama or Lucayos Islands
Tropic of Cancer
References to the Caribbee Islands according to the Treaty of Peace 1763
E. English.
F. French.
S. Spanish.
D. Dutch.
Da. Danish.
Jamaica
Hispaniola or S. Domingo
Porto Rico
VIRGIN ISLES
ANTILLES CARIBBEE OR WINDWARD Is.
LEWARD ISLANDS
NORTH SEA
NORTH AMERICA
VENEZUELA
CARACAS
PARIA
SOUTH AMERICA
Tobago
Trinidad
Barbadoes
Martinico
Grenada
St Vincent
St Lucia
Guadalupe
Antigua
Montserrat
Nevis
St Christophers
Dominica
Tortuga
Margarita
Curaçoa
Bonaire
Aruba
St Eustatia
St Martin
St Bartholomew
St Croix
St Thomas
St John
Anguilla
St Kitts
Barbuda
Mona
Caicos
Bahama
Lucayonique
Providence
Eleuthera
Cuba
Jamaica
Hispaniola
Porto Rico
Trinidad
Tobago

king, which he ſent to Spain by ſome of his principal officers, together with an account of his conqueſt, and the ſtate of that country, deſiring his Majeſty would confirm the magiſtrates he had appointed to govern it, with the grants of the conquered lands, and Indian ſlaves he had made, to his ſoldiers. Among the rich jewels Cortez ſent to the emperor, it is ſaid, there was a fine emerald, of a pyramidal form, as large as the palm of a man's hand at the biggeſt end; a noble ſet of gold and ſilver veſſels; ſeveral things caſt in gold and ſilver, viz. beaſts, birds, fiſhes, fruits, and flowers; bracelets, rings, pendants, and other ornamental pieces of plate and jewels; ſome of their idols, cotton veſtments of their prieſts, furs, and feathers of various colours.

The general requeſted his Imperial Majeſty to ſend over perſons qualified to ſurvey the country, that it might be improved to the beſt advantage, with prieſts and miſſionaries for the converſion of the people; as alſo cattle, with ſeeds and plants to improve the lands: but it is ſaid, he provided particularly againſt the ſending over phyſicians or lawyers. What could have been his reaſon againſt ſending phyſicians is not eaſy to be conceived; but he had certainly all the reaſon in the world to deſire that neither laws or lawyers ſhould be admitted there, having determined to treat the natives as ſlaves, and ſeize both their perſons and poſſeſſions, and, indeed, to uſurp an arbitrary dominion over both Spaniards and Indians in the New World.

CHAP. VII.

BRITISH ISLANDS IN THE WEST INDIES AND AMERICA.

General Deſcription of the WEST-INDIES.

IN the extenſive gulph between the two continents of America lie a great number of iſlands, called by the general appellation of the Weſt Indies. They are diſtinguiſhed by ſeamen into the Windward and Leeward Iſlands, merely with regard to their ſituation either to the eaſt or weſt. Some geographers diſtinguiſh them by the names of Great and Little Antilles, while others call them the Caribees, from their firſt inhabitants. They lie in a ſemicircular form, ſtretching from the coaſt of Florida to the main continent of South America, near the river Oroonoko.

The climate of 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, they are continually ſubject to an extreme of heat, which would be intolerable, if the trade wind, riſing gradually as the ſun gathers ſtrength, did not blow in upon them from the ſea, and refreſh the air in ſuch a manner as to enable them to follow their neceſſary occupations 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 its 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, as ſhield them from his direct beams, and, diſſolving into rain, cool the air, and refreſh the country, thirſty with the long drought, which generally continues from the beginning of January till the latter end of May. Theſe rains are rather floods of water poured from the clouds with vaſt impetuoſity: the rivers riſe in a moment; new rivers and lakes are formed; and, in a ſhort time, all the low country is under water. Hence it is, that the rivers which have their ſources 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 in the world have their courſe within its limits; and the moiſture is one of the greateſt inconveniences of the climate in ſeveral places.

The only diſtinction of ſeaſons in the Weſt Indies ariſes from the rains. The trees are green the whole year round. They have no cold, no froſt, no ſnow, and ſeldom any hail; but when ſtorms of that kind happen, they are very violent, and the hail-ſtones are exceeding large and heavy.

It is in the rainy ſeaſon that they are aſſaulted by hurricanes, the moſt terrible calamity to which the inhabitants of theſe iſlands are ſubject. One of theſe hurricanes deſtroys, at one ſtroke, the labours of many years, and baffles all the endeavours of the planter. It is a ſudden and violent ſtorm of wind, rain, thunder, and lightning, attended with a furious ſwelling of the ſea, and ſometimes with an earthquake; in ſhort, with every circumſtance which the elements can aſſemble, that is terrible and deſtructive. Firſt, they ſee as the prelude to the enſuing havock, whole fields of ſugar-canes whirled into the air, and ſcattered over the face of the country. The ſtrongeſt trees 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 being torn off at one blaſt; whilſt the rain, which riſes five feet in an hour, ruſhes in upon them with irreſiſtible violence.

The hurricane comes on either in the quarters, or at the full change of the moon. If it comes on at the full moon, the following ſigns precede it. That day you will ſee the ſky very turbulent; you will obſerve the ſun more red than at other times; you will perceive a dead calm, and the hills clear of all thoſe clouds and miſts which uſually hover about them. In the clefts of the earth, and in the wells, you hear a hollow rumbling ſound, like the ruſhing of a great wind. At night the ſtars ſeem much larger than uſual, and ſurrounded with a ſort of burs; the north-weſt ſky has a black and menacing look; the ſea emits a ſtrong ſmell, and riſes into vaſt waves, often without any wind; the wind itſelf now forſakes its uſual ſteady eaſterly ſtream, and ſhifts about to the weſt, from whence it ſometimes blows, with intermiſſions, violently and irregularly, for about two hours at a time. The moon herſelf is ſurrounded with a great bur, and ſometimes the ſun has the ſame appearance. Theſe are ſigns which the Indians of theſe iſlands taught our planters, by which they can prognoſticate the approach of an hurricane.

Sugar, the grand ſtaple commodity of the Weſt-Indies, was not known to the Greeks and Romans; though it was made in China in very early times, from whence we had the firſt knowledge of it: but the Portugueſe were the firſt who cultivated it in America, and brought it into uſe as a luxury in Europe. It is not ſettled whether the cane from which this ſubſtance is extracted, be a native of America, or brought hither 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, ſugar which comes to market in this part of the world. The juice within

the ſugar cane is the moſt lively, elegant, and leaſt cloying ſweet in nature; and which, ſucked raw, has proved very nutritive and wholeſome. From the molaſſes rum is diſtilled, and from the ſcummings of the ſugar, a meaner ſpirit is procured. Rum finds its market in North America, where it is conſumed by the inhabitants, or employed in the Indian trade, or diſtributed from thence to the fiſhery of Newfoundland and other parts, beſides what comes to Great Britain and Ireland. The tops of the cane, and the leaves which grow upon the joints, make very good provender for cattle, and the refuſe of the cane, after grinding, ſerves for fire; ſo that no part of this excellent plant is without its uſe.

When things are well managed, the rum and molaſſes are computed to pay the charges of the plantation, and the ſugars are clear gain. However, the expences of a plantation in the Weſt Indies are, doubtleſs, very great, and the profits, at the firſt view, precarious: for the chargeable articles of the windmill, the boiling, cooling, and diſtilling houſes, and the buying and ſubſiſting a ſuitable number of ſlaves and cattle, will not ſuffer any man to begin a ſugar plantation of any conſequence, not to mention the purchaſe of the land, which is very high, under a capital of at leaſt 5000l. Nor is the life of a planter, if he means to acquire a fortune, a life of idleneſs and luxury; at all times he muſt keep a watchful eye on his overſeers, and even overſee himſelf occaſionally. But at the boiling ſeaſon, if he is properly attentive to his affairs, no way of life can be more laborious, and more dangerous to the health; from a conſtant attendance day and night, in the extreme united heats of the climate, and ſo many fierce furnaces: add to this, the loſſes by hurricanes, earthquakes, and bad ſeaſons; and then conſider, when the ſugars are in the caſks, that he quits the hazard of a planter, to engage in the hazards of a merchant, and ſhips his produce at his own riſk. Notwithſtanding theſe conſiderations, there are no parts in the world in which great fortunes are got in ſo ſhort a time, from the produce of the earth, as in the Weſt Indies. The products of a few good ſeaſons generally provide againſt the ill effects of the worſt, as the planter is ſure of a ſpeedy and profitable market for his produce, which has a readier ſale than perhaps any other commodity in the world.

The larger plantations are generally under the care of a manager, or chief overſeer, who has a good ſalary, with overſeers under him in proportion to the extent of the plantation: ſome plantations have a ſurgeon, at a fixed ſalary, employed to take care of the negroes which belong to it. But the courſe which is the leaſt troubleſome to the owner of the eſtate is, to let the lands, with all the works, and the ſtock of cattle and ſlaves, to a tenant, who gives ſecurity for the payment of the rent, and keeping up repairs and ſtock. The eſtate is generally eſtimated to ſuch a tenant at half the net produce of the beſt years; ſuch tenants, if induſtrious and frugal men, ſoon make good eſtates for themſelves.

The negroes in the plantations are ſubſiſted at a very eaſy rate. This is generally by allotting to each family of them a ſmall portion of land, and allowing them two days in the week (Saturday and Sunday) to cultivate it: ſome are ſubſiſted in this manner, but others find their negroes with a certain portion of Guinea and Indian corn, and to ſome a ſalt herring, or a ſmall portion of bacon or ſalt pork per day. All the reſt of the charge conſiſts in a cap, a ſhirt, a pair of breeches, and a blanket, the whole not exceeding 40s. a-year, and the profit of their labour yields 10 or 12l. The price of men negroes, on their firſt arrival, is from 33 to 36l. women and grown boys about 50s. leſs; but ſuch negro families as are acquainted with the buſineſs of the Iſlands generally bring about 40l. on an average one with another, and there are inſtances of a ſingle negro man, expert in buſineſs, bringing 150 guineas; and the wealth of a planter is generally computed from the number of ſlaves he poſſeſſes.

Traders here make a very large profit upon all they ſell; but from the numerous ſhipping conſtantly arriving from Europe, and a continual ſucceſſion of new adventurers, each of whom carries out more or leſs as venture, the Weſt India market is frequently overſtocked; money muſt be raiſed, and goods are ſometimes ſold at prime coſt, or under. Thoſe who can afford to ſtore their goods, and wait for a better market, acquire fortunes equal to any of the planters. All kinds of handicraftſmen, eſpecially carpenters, bricklayers, braziers, and coopers, get very great encouragement.

Previous to our deſcription of the Britiſh Iſlands in America, we ſhall preſent our readers with the following Table of the

WEST-INDIA ISLANDS.

Iſlands.	Leng.	Bred.	Chief Towns.	Belonging to
Jamaica	140	60	Kingſton	Great Britain
Barbadoes	21	14	Bridgetown	Ditto
St. Chriſtopher	20	7	Baſſe-terre	Ditto
Antigua	20	20	St. John's	Ditto
Nevis and Montſerrat	Each of theſe is 18 miles in circumf		Charles-Town Plymouth	Ditto Ditto
Barbuda	20	12		Ditto
Anguilla	30	18		Ditto
Dominica	28	13		Ditto
St. Vincent	24	18	Kingſton	Ditto
Grenada	30	15	St. George's	Ditto
Tobago	32	9		France
Cuba	700	70	Havannah	Spain
Hiſpaniola	450	150	St. Domingo	Do. & Fran.
Porto Rico	100	40	Porto Rico	Spain
Trinidad	90	60		Ditto
Margaretta	40	24		Ditto
Martinico	60	30	St. Peter's	France
Guadaloupe	45	38	Baſſe-terre	Ditto
St. Lucia	23	12		Ditto
St. Bartholomew, Defeada, and Marigalante	All of them inconſiderable.			Ditto Ditto Ditto
St. Euſtatia	29	circ.	The Bay	Holland
Curaſſao	30	10		Ditto
St. Thomas	15	circ		Denmark
St. Croix	30	10	Baſſe-End	Ditto

AMERICAN ISLANDS.

Newfoundland	350	200	Placentia	Great Britain
Cape Breton	100	80	Louiſbourg	Ditto
St. John's	60	30	Charlotte Town	Ditto
The Bermudas	20,000 acres		St. George	Ditto
The Bahamas	very numer.		Naſſau	Ditto
Falklands				
Juan Fernandes	14	6	Uninhabited	
Fuera			Ditto	
Chiloe	112	21	Caſtro	

JAMAICA.

JAMAICA, which is the largeſt of the Britiſh Weſt Indian iſlands, was firſt diſcovered by the great Columbus in the year 1694, but at that time he did not attempt to make any ſettlement there. Some years after, in his fourth expedition, he was caſt aſhore here by a ſtorm; the loſs of his ſhips putting it out of his power to get away, he implored the humanity of the ſavages, and received from them all the help of a natural compaſſion: but theſe people, who planted only for their own neceſſities, were tired with maintaining ſtrangers who put them in danger of ſtarving by a famine, and therefore removed themſelves inſenſibly from the neighbourhood. The Spaniards no longer kept any meaſure with the Indians, and ſoon grew ſo mutinous as to take up arms againſt their commander. Columbus, forced to yield to their threats to get out of a deſperate ſituation, took the advantage of one of thoſe appearances of nature where a man of genius ſometimes finds a reſource, pardonable through neceſſity. His aſtronomical knowledge informed him that there would ſoon be an eclipſe of the moon; and

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he desired all the caciques to assemble together to hear from him some things very important to their safety. When he was in the midst of them, after having reproached them for their cruelty with which they suffered him and his companions to perish, "To punish you for it," said he with an air of great importance, "the God whom I adore is going to inflict on you one of his most terrible strokes: this evening you will see the moon redden, grow dark, and refuse you light: this is only the prelude of your misfortunes, if you persist in refusing to give me provisions." Columbus had hardly ceased speaking, when his prediction was accomplished: the fright was general among the savages: they thought themselves going to be destroyed, begged for mercy, and promised every thing. He then declared to them, that Heaven, touched with their repentance, had appeased its wrath, and that Nature was going to resume its course. After this moment provisions arrived from all parts, and Columbus had every thing he could wish for till his departure.

The court of Spain had granted the property of Jamaica to Columbus, who gave it the preference to all other parts, on account of its populousness and happy situation: he called it the Sicily of the Indies. Don Diego his son was the first governor of it, with the title of duke de la Vega, from the city of St. Jago de la Vega, founded by him, and which became its capital. Don Diego had caused about 100 Indians to go over from St. Domingo, under the conduct of Juan d'Esquimel; others soon followed them, but in a few years after they all deserted the island.

The Spaniards had built several other cities here, but all their settlements, erected on the dead remains of the Indians, fell to decay as fast as the depopulation increased; and as the ravagers were convinced the island produced no gold, they were soon reduced to that of St. Jago de la Vega, which then consisted of 1100 houses, four churches, and an abbey. The inhabitants of this city, plunged into that indolence which follows tyranny after devastation, contented themselves to live on some plantations, whose overplus they sold to the ships which passed by their coasts. The whole people of the island, collected into a small territory which nourished this useless race of destroyers, was confined to 1500 slaves commanded by their tyrants; when the English coming at last to attack their capital, made themselves masters of it, and settled there in 1655.

At first their new colony had only 3000 inhabitants, part of that fanatical militia which had fought and triumphed under the rebellious standard of Cromwell. They were soon joined by a number of royalists, who went to America to meet with some alleviation for their defeat, and to enjoy the calm of peace. The spirit of division which had so long and so cruelly rent the two parties in Europe, followed them beyond the seas; there was enough to renew in the New World the scenes of horror and bloodshed so often repeated in the Old. But admiral Penn and colonel Venables, after conquering Jamaica, had left the command to one of the wisest and bravest men, who by good luck was the senior officer: it was D'Oyley, a friend to the Stuarts. Cromwell twice substituted some of his party in his place, and both times their deaths restored D'Oyley to the head of affairs. His manner of ruling was quite military: he had to keep in order and govern an infant colony entirely composed of soldiers, and to prevent or repel the invasions of the Spaniards, who might try to recover what they had just lost. But when Charles the Second was restored to the throne, a civil government was established at Jamaica, formed, like those in the other islands, after the model of the mother-country; but the first attempts were confined to compiling, without any method, some provisional regulations for the police, justice, and finances. It was not till 1682 that the body of the laws was formed by which the island is at present governed.

This colony was so increased after the Reformation, that it contained 18,000 persons, who had almost no other trade but their depredations on the Spaniards. Sir Thomas Modiford, a rich planter of Barbadoes, was then governor, who came to Jamaica to increase his possessions; he introduced into this island the art of making sugar, and of planting cocoa trees; and erected salt works. His attention to encourage culture and industry could not make the people of Jamaica give up their maritime expeditions; adventurers of all kinds increased the croud of these romantic pirates, who often deserved the appellation of heroes, known by the name of Free-booters and Buccaneers: they infested the whole West Indian Sea, and laid waste all the coasts of the New World. The plunder of Mexico and Peru was always carried to Jamaica, both by the natives and strangers: they found in this island a greater felicity, received more protection and liberty than elsewhere, both to disembark and to spend, at their own pleasure, the booty they had acquired in their courses. There the extravagance of their debaucheries soon plunged them into distress. This only sting of their cruel and bloody industry made them fly to new combats and to new prey. Thus the colony profited by their continual changes of fortune, and enriched itself by the vices which were the origin and ruin of their treasures: and when this lawless race was destroyed by its own activity, these same treasures became the base of a new opulence, by the help they offered to increase the plantations and productions, or to open a contraband trade with the Spaniards. On the whole, in whatever point of view any one considers Jamaica, it will be found that England owes the possession of it, as well as the means which determined the grandeur of its settlement, to the Buccaneers.

This island extends from 75 deg. 57 min. to 78 deg. 37 min. west longitude, and from 17 deg. 48 min. to 18 deg. 50 min. north latitude. It is about 140 miles in length, and 60 in breadth, where broadest; but being of an oval form, it grows narrower at each end. It is near about 36 leagues to Cuba, and 39 leagues to the west of St. Domingo: these two large islands defend it from the winds which desolate the Atlantic, whilst the number and disposition of its harbours put it in a condition to carry on a great trade with either these and the other islands of the West Indian Sea, or with the continent. There are about 16 principal harbours, besides 30 bays, roads, or good anchoring places. Though this situation may expose it to the insults of its too powerful neighbours, it at the same time facilitates the entrance of the succours the mother-country has at all times lavished on it.

There is no country between the tropics where the heat is more moderate, being constantly cooled with refreshing breezes, frequent rains, and night dews: however, it is unwholesome, especially on the sea-coast, and excessively hot in the mornings all the year round, till about eight o'clock, when the sea breeze begins, increasing gradually till about twelve, when it is commonly strongest, and lasts till two or three, when it begins to die away, and so continues till about five o'clock, when it is quite spent, and returns no more till next morning. About eight in the evening begins a land breeze, which blows four leagues into the sea, and continues increasing till twelve at night, after which it decreases till four in the morning, when it ceases, and returns again at night. The sea breeze is stronger at some times than at others, and more so near the coast than within land; whereas it is just the reverse with the land breeze. Sometimes the sea breeze blows day and night for a week or two. In December, January, and February, the north wind blows furiously, checking the growth of the canes, and all other vegetables, on the north side of the island; but the south side is sheltered from them by the mountains.

The dews here are so great within land, that the water drops from the leaves of the trees in the morning as if it had rained; but there are seldom any fogs, at least in the plain, or sandy places near the sea.

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There is a ridge of hills, called the Blue Mountains, that run through the iſland from eaſt to weſt: the tops are covered with different kinds of trees, particularly cedar, lignum-vitæ, and mahogany, which render them equally pleaſant and profitable to the inhabitants. Several fine rivers, well ſtored with fiſh, and navigable by canoes, take their riſe from theſe mountains. A lower ridge runs parallel to the greater; and the vallies, or ſavannahs, are exceeding level, without ſtones, fit for paſture, and fruitful, when cleared of wood, eſpecially on the ſouth ſide of the iſland. After the rains, or ſeaſons, as they are called, the ſavannahs are very pleaſant, and produce ſuch quantities of graſs, that the inhabitants are ſometimes forced to burn it; but, after long droughts, they are quite parched and burnt up.

Though this iſland abounds with rivers and lakes, water is very ſcarce in ſome places, and in others ſo mixed with ſand and ſediment, that it is not fit for uſe till it is purified for ſome days in earthen jars; and, in ſome years, many cattle periſh for want of water. In the iſland are ſeveral ſalt ſprings, which form a ſalt river, and ſeveral lakes. Near the ſea, as well as at Port-Royal, the well water is brackiſh and unwholeſome.

In the mountains, not far from Spaniſh Town, is a hot bath, of great medicinal virtue. It affords relief in the dry belly-ach, which, excepting the bilious and yellow fever, is one of the moſt terrible diſtempers of Jamaica.

Though the ſoil of Jamaica, in general, is exceeding fertile, yet it is thought not one fourth of the ſugar ground upon the iſland is cultivated. Even the grounds lying near the rivers and the ſea are, in many places, over-run with wood, inſomuch that a planter who has planted 3 or 4000 acres, has ſeldom above 500 well cultivated.

The moſt valuable production of this iſland is ſugar. The cane from whence it is extracted, is a kind of reed, which riſes commonly about eight or nine feet, taking in the leaves growing out of the top; and the moſt common thickneſs is from two to four inches. It requires a light, porous, and deep ſoil, and is uſually cut at the end of eighteen months. Within 24 hours after the canes are cut down, they break them between two rollers of iron or copper, which are put in motion by a horizontal wheel, turned by oxen or horſes. The juice, with which the inner part of the cane is filled, is received in a reſervoir, from whence it is ſucceſſively carried to ſeveral boilers, to reduce it into cryſtals. This liquor is called treacle, or molaſſes. After the draining, they have muſcovada, or rough ſugar, which is greaſy, brown, and ſoft. This ſugar does not become white, ſhining, and hard, till it is refined, which is generally done in Europe; though there are two refining-houſes at Kingſton. The molaſſes are uſually the twelfth part of the value of the ſugar. A great deal of this article is conſumed in the North of Europe, and in North America, where they ſupply the place of butter and ſugar to the common people. The Americans uſe them to produce a fermentation; and they give an agreeable taſte to a drink called Pruſs, which is nothing more than the infuſion of the bark of a tree. Theſe molaſſes are likewiſe prodigiouſly uſeful, ſince the ſecret has been diſcovered to convert them, by diſtillation, into a ſpirituous liquor, known by the name of rum. The operation is performed by mixing one third of ſyrup with two thirds of water. When theſe two ſubſtances have ſufficiently fermented, at the end of twelve or fifteen days they are put into a ſtill, where the diſtillation is carried on with great facility. The annual exports of Jamaica in theſe ſeveral articles, the produce of ſugar-canes, come to upwards of 100,000 hogſheads of ſugar, between 30 and 40,000 puncheons of rum, and 300,000 gallons of molaſſes.

After ſugar, the moſt conſiderable production of this iſland is Pimento, great quantities of which are annually exported. There are ſeveral kinds, more or leſs ſtrong, and more or leſs acrid. The tree which produces that kind of pimento known by the name of Jamaica Pepper, was not cultivated in regular plantations till the year 1668. It commonly grows on the mountains, and riſes above 30 feet high. It is very ſtraight, and covered with a grey, cloſe, ſhining bark. The leaves are, in all reſpects, like the laurel; and at the end of the branches grow the flowers, to which ſucceed berries a little larger than juniper. They are gathered green, and laid to dry in the ſun, when they grow brown, and get that ſpicy ſmell which has given to pimento the name of All-Spice. Its uſe is excellent in ſtrengthening the cold ſtomach ſubject to crudities.

To the culture of pimento the people on this iſland join that of ginger. This is the root of a ſmall plant about 18 or 20 inches high. It was greatly in vogue about the middle of the laſt century; but, ſince that time, it has by degrees grown out of faſhion, and is now only a ſecondary article of trade.

This iſland alſo produces a number of trees, ſhrubs, and uſeful plants, ſome of them natives of the ſoil, and others brought from the other iſlands of the continent. Among theſe are the following: the mahogany, the ſilk cotton tree, the dog-wood, the bitter wood, the baſtard mammea, or Wood of St. Mary, and the lignum-vitæ. The trees are the oil-nut tree, the cocoa-tree, the tamarind-tree, and others which have their reſpective uſes both for wood, convenience, and profit.

Here are likewiſe various ſorts of dying woods, gums, and medicinal drugs. Among the latter are guaiacum, china-root, ſarſaparilla, caſſia, vanillas, aloes, and the wild cinnamon-tree, which is eſteemed a ſovereign remedy for diſpelling wind and aſſiſting digeſtion.

The fruits of Jamaica are oranges, lemons, citrons, palms, pomegranates, ſhaddocks, momies, ſour ſops, papas, pine-apples, cuſtard ditto, ſtar ditto, prickly pears, Alicada ditto, melons, plantains, tamarinds, and guavas, beſides berries of ſeveral kinds.

This iſland alſo produces ſome tobacco, but of a coarſe kind, and cultivated only for the ſake of the negroes, who are fond of it; Indian and Guinea corn, with peas of various kinds, but none reſembling thoſe of Great Britain, except ſuch as are reared with great care and tenderneſs in gardens, together with cabbages and a variety of roots, particularly caſſava, of which they make bread, yams and potatoes.

The cattle of this iſland are but few: what they have are very ſmall, and the fleſh tough and lean. Their ſheep, however, are tolerable, and their fleſh very good; but the wool, which is long and full of hairs, is of little uſe. They have great plenty of hogs, and their fleſh is ſweet and delicate. Horſes, aſſes, and mules are very plentiful: the former are ſmall, mettleſome and hardy, and, when well made, fetch a good price.

Here are various ſorts of fowl, both wild and tame, and in particular more parrots than in any of the other iſlands; beſides parroquets, pelicans, ſnipes, teal, Guinea hens, geeſe, ducks and turkies; the humming-bird, and a great variety of others.

In the bays and rivers is plenty of excellent fiſh; but the tortoiſe, or turtle, is by much the moſt valuable, both for its ſhell and fiſh, the latter being accounted the moſt delicious, and at the ſame time the moſt wholeſome in all the Indies. The manatee, or ſea-cow, which is often taken in calm bays, is reckoned by the Indians very good eating.

In the mountains are numberleſs adders, and other noxious animals, and in the fens and marſhes the guana and gallewaſp; but theſe laſt are not venomous.

The inſects called the ciror, or chegoe, eat into the nervous and membranous parts of the fleſh of the negroes; and the white people are ſometimes plagued with them. Theſe inſects get into any part of the body, but chiefly the legs and feet, where they breed in great numbers, and ſhut themſelves up in a bag. As ſoon as the perſon feels them, which is not, perhaps, till a week after they have been in the body, they pick them out with a needle, or the point of a pen-knife,

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taking care to deſtroy the bag entirely, that none of the breed, which are like nits, may be left behind. Theſe inſects ſometimes get into the toes, and eat the fleſh to the bone.

The inhabitants of Jamaica conſiſt of Engliſh, or thoſe of Engliſh extraction, born on the iſland, Indians, Negroes, Mulattos, or their deſcendants. The better ſort of the Engliſh, on Sundays, or particular days, appear very gay. At other times they generally wear thread ſtockings, linen drawers, a veſt, a Holland cap, and a hat upon it. Men ſervants wear a coarſe linen frock, with buttons at the neck and hands, long trowſers of the ſame, and a check ſhirt. The negroes, except thoſe who are immediately employed in domeſtic ſervices, go naked. The morning habit of the ladies is a looſe night-gown, careleſsly wrapped about them. Before dinner they put off their diſhabille, and appear with a good grace, in all the advantages of a rich and becoming dreſs. There is no country in the world where luxury is carried to a higher pitch than in this iſland Equipages, clothes, furniture, tables, all bear the marks of the greateſt affluence and profuſion.

The common drink of perſons in affluent circumſtances is Madeira wine mixed with water, ſherbet, or weak punch. Ale and claret are extravagantly dear; and London porter ſells for more than 1s. per bottle. But the general drink, eſpecially among thoſe of inferior rank, is rum punch, which they call *kill-devil*, becauſe, being frequently drank to exceſs, it heats the blood, and brings on fevers, which, in a ſhort time, ſend them to their graves, eſpecially thoſe who are juſt come to the iſland, which is the reaſon that ſo many die here ſoon after their arrival.

The current coin of the iſland is Spaniſh. There is hardly any place where ſilver is more plentiful, or has a quicker circulation. Notwithſtanding proviſions are, in general, tolerably reaſonable, yet a perſon cannot dine decently for leſs than a piece of eight; and the common rate of boarding is three pounds per week.

Learning is here at a very low ebb. There are, indeed, ſome gentlemen well verſed in literature, and who ſend their children to Great Britain, where they have the advantage of a polite and libeſal education. But the bulk of the people take little care to improve their minds, being generally engaged in trade, or riotous diſſipation.

The eſtabliſhed religion here, as well as in all the Britiſh iſlands, is that of the church of England; but there are no biſhops. The biſhop of London's commiſſary is the principal eccleſiaſtic in theſe iſlands.

The adminiſtration of public affairs in this iſland is by a governor, who repreſents the king, a council of 12, and 43 repreſentatives of the people. The government, next to that of Ireland, is the beſt in the King's gift.

The miſery and hardſhips of the negroes in general are great; and though the utmoſt care is taken to make them propagate, the ill treatment they receive ſo ſhortens their lives, that, inſtead of increaſing by the courſe of nature, many thouſands are annually imported, to ſupply the place of thoſe who pine and die by the hardſhips they receive. Many of them, however, who fall into the hands of humane maſters, find their ſituations eaſy and comfortable: and it has been obſerved, that in North America, where, in general, theſe poor wretches are better uſed, there is a leſs waſte of negroes, they live longer, and propagate better.

On their firſt arrival from the coaſt of Guinea, they are expoſed naked to ſale, and are then generally very ſimple and innocent; but they ſoon become roguiſh from example. They believe every negroe returns to his native country after death. This thought cheers their ſpirits, and renders the burthen of life eaſy, which would otherwiſe be intolerable. They look on death as a bleſſing; and it is ſurpriſing to ſee with what courage and intrepidity ſome of them meet it. They are tranſported to think their ſlavery is near at an end, that they ſhall reviſit their native ſhores, and ſee their old friends and acquaintance When a negro is about to expire, his fellow ſlaves embrace him, wiſh him a good journey, and ſend their hearty good wiſhes to their relations in Guinea. They make no lamentations when he is dead, but, with great joy, inter his body, believing he is gone home, and happy.

Jamaica is divided into three counties, Surry, Middleſex, and Cornwall. Theſe contain 19 pariſhes, over each of which preſides a magiſtrate called a Cuſtos. There are but few towns in the iſland, and the reaſon is, that the greater part of the inhabitants are diſperſed on their plantations, which form ſo many villages or hamlets. The following are the chief:

St. Jago de la Vega, commonly called Spaniſh-Town, in Middleſex, is a ſmall city, pleaſantly ſituated. It is the reſidence of the governor, of the courts of juſtice, and the place where the aſſembly is held. The greater part of the inhabitants are perſons of fortune or rank, which gives it an air of ſplendor and magnificence. The principal building is the governor's houſe, which is one of the moſt handſome in America. Here are alſo a handſome church, a chapel, and a Jewiſh ſynagogue.

Between this town and that of Kingſton, is Fort-Paſſage, a village of but few houſes, and ſo called, becauſe thoſe who go from one town to the other, land or embark there.

Kingſton, in the county of Surry, is the moſt conſiderable in the whole iſland, and at preſent the capital, being the reſidence of the merchants, and the chief place for trade. It is about a mile and a half long, and half a mile broad. All the ſtreets, which are broad and regular, croſs each other at right angles. The houſes are much more elegant than thoſe of St. Jago de la Vega, but the air is far from being ſo healthy. The Jews, who are very numerous here, have a fine ſynagogue. This town received conſiderable damage by a dreadful hurricane, which happened in the month of Auguſt, 1781. Many houſes were blown down, and numbers of veſſels that lay in the harbour, as well as at Port Royal, were driven aſhore, ſome of which were ſunk, and many others greatly damaged.

Kingſton harbour is one of the moſt commodious in America, and ſo capacious, that 1000 ſail of ſhips may ride in ſafety. It is the ſtation of the Britiſh fleet.

The ſmall town of Port-Royal was the moſt conſiderable and richeſt on the iſland at the time of the Buccaneers, whoſe ravages it encouraged. It contained at that time 2000 houſes, of which 1600 were ſwallowed up, or overturned, by a terrible earthquake, that happened in 1692. They had rebuilt a great part of them, when they were conſumed by a fire in 1703. The excellence of the ſituation engaged the people to rebuild them a ſecond time, when a hurricane, in 1722, made them an heap of ruins. Theſe were again raiſed, but again deſtroyed, in 1744, by another hurricane, but never rebuilt. In October, 1780, was a dreadful hurricane, which almoſt overwhelmed the little ſea-port town of Savannah-la-Mar, and part of the adjacent country.

The commerce of this iſland is very conſiderable. The articles of exportation are ſugar, rum, molaſſes, cotton, coffee, pimento, ginger, medicinal drugs, mahogany, and manchineel planks. Thoſe of importation are linen, ſilk and woollen cloathing of all kinds, wrought iron, braſs and copper, all ſorts of hardware, toys, houſehold furniture, and great quantities of flour.

To the north-weſt of Jamaica are three ſmall iſlands dependent on this, and known by the name of the Caymans. The moſt ſoutherly is diſtinguiſhed by the name of Great Cayman: the other two, which are diſtant from it about 20 leagues, are called little Cayman and Cayman-Brack. Great Cayman is the only one that is conſtantly inhabited: it is very low, and covered with high trees. It has not any harbour for ſhips of burthen, only a tolerable anchoring place on the ſouth-weſt. The inhabitants, who amount to about 200, are deſcended from the old Buccaneers. They have given themſelves a ſet of laws, and chooſe a chief to ſee them executed,

in conjunction with the juſtices of peace appointed by commiſſion from the governor of Jamaica. As they have no clergyman among them, they go to Jamaica to be married. This colony is undoubtedly the moſt happy in the Weſt Indies; the climate and the kind of food, which are of a ſingular ſalubrity, rendering the people healthy and vigorous, and making them live to a very advanced age. Their little iſland produces plenty of corn and vegetables, hogs and poultry, much beyond what is required for their own conſumption. They have, beſides, ſugar-canes, and ſome ſprings of pretty good water. Being quite hardened to the ſea, they are excellent pilots for the neighbouring coaſts; and their iſland, as well as their activity and humanity, have been many times a relief to ſhips which were diſtreſſed in this part of the ſea. Their principal employment is fiſhing for turtle. Inſtinct every year leads a prodigious number of turtles to theſe iſlands, to lay their eggs, the greater part of which come from the Bay of Honduras. The low and ſandy ſhores of theſe iſlands, particularly of the Great, are perfectly commodious to receive and cover their eggs. A female lays ſome hundreds. When they have done laying, the turtles retire towards the Iſle of Cuba, and the other large iſlands, where they recover themſelves in the ſubmarine paſtures, and, in about a month's time, acquire that fatneſs which makes them ſo much eſteemed on the tables of the great. The inhabitants of Great Cayman ſhut them up, as ſoon as they are caught, in encloſures, which they call *cralls*, made with ſtakes, in a ſmooth water, between the ſhore and a reef of rocks on the north-eaſt coaſt. Theſe turtles ſerve for all the traffic which they carry on with Port-Royal. It is an article of food which is very wholeſome; and the ſhell of the hawk's-bill kind is a commodity which has a place among the exportations to Great Britain.

BARBADOES.

WHEN the Engliſh firſt landed here in 1625, having obtained a grant through the intereſt of the Earl of Carliſle, they found the iſland uncultivated, and uninhabited. At firſt they applied themſelves to the planting of tobacco, which not thriving as they expected, they planted cotton and indigo, which turned to a tolerable good account. Little ſugar, however, was made till 1647, when other adventurers, living uneaſy in England under the uſurpation of Cromwell, converted their eſtates into money, and tranſported themſelves to Barbadoes, where they erected ſugar-works, and acquired very great poſſeſſions. In the year 1650, the white inhabitants of the iſland were increaſed to upwards of 30,000, with twice that number of negroes. King Charles II. purchaſed the property of the iſland in 1661, ever ſince which time it has been a royal government; and the colony granted a duty on their ſugars for maintaining the forces and fortifications of the iſland.

Barbadoes, the moſt conſiderable of all the Britiſh ſugar iſlands next to Jamaica, lies in between 59 deg. 50 min. and 60 deg. 2 min. weſt longitude; and between 12 deg. 56 min. and 13 deg. 16 min. north lat. extending 21 miles from north to ſouth, and 14 from eaſt to weſt.

The climate is hot, eſpecially for eight months in the year, but not unwholeſome; for though there are no land breezes, there are others ariſing from the ſea, which increaſes as the ſun advances to, and decreaſe as he declines from the meridian. A temperate regimen renders it as ſafe to live in as any climate in Europe, ſouth of Great Britain. The days are very near equal, the ſun riſing and ſetting about ſix o'clock all the year round.

Barbadoes is, in general, a plain level country, with ſome ſmall hills. The woods have been all cut down to make room for the plantations of ſugar-canes, which now take up the major part of the iſland, and render it the moſt valuable plantation to Great Britain, of its ſize, that it ever poſſeſſed. The ſoil is various, being in ſome places ſandy and light, in others rich, and in others ſpongy: but all of them are cultivated according to their ſeveral natures. The moſt valuable productions of this iſland are ſugar, rum, molaſſes, cotton, indigo, and ginger. The rum which it produces is next in eſteem to that of Jamaica.

The fruits here are various, and very plentiful; particularly pine-apples, guavas, plaintains, oranges, lemons, citrons, limes, tamarinds, mangroves, cedars, prickled apples, pomegranates, papays, cuſtard apples, figs, bullies, cocoa, and cocoa-nuts. Indian corn can be imported from North America cheaper than it can be ſold for when growing upon the iſland.

Here are great quantities of hogs; alſo oxen, cows, horſes, aſſes, goats, monkies, and racoons, with a few ſheep and rabbits; but the mutton is greatly inferior to that of England.

The wild fowl are teals, curlews, plovers, ſnipes, wild-pigeons, wild ducks, and a kind of bird called a man-of-war. The tame pigeons, pullets, ducks, and poultry of all kinds, that are bred in Barbadoes, have a fine flavour, and are accounted more delicious than thoſe of Europe.

Inſects are very numerous here, but they are not venemous; nor do either their ſnakes or ſcorpions ever ſting.

The ſurrounding ſea abounds with fiſh, ſome of which are almoſt peculiar to itſelf, as parrot-fiſh, ſnappers, grey cavellos, tarbums, and coney-fiſh. Their mullets, lobſters, and crabs, are excellent; and the green turtle are caught here in vaſt quantities.

This iſland has two ſtreams that are called rivers on each ſide, with wells of good water all over it, and large ponds or reſervoirs for rain water. In its center it 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 inhabitants of Barbadoes, like thoſe of the other iſlands, may be divided into three claſſes, viz. the maſters, the white ſervants, and the black ſervants. The former of theſe are either Engliſh, Scotch, or Iriſh, with ſome Dutch, French, Portugueſe, and Jews. The white ſervants lead more eaſy lives than the common day-labourers in England; and when they come to be overſeers, their wages, and other allowances, are conſiderable. As to the black ſervants, it is the intereſt of every planter to be more careful of them than even of the white; the former, unleſs they ſhould happen to be made free, being his perpetual property. Moſt of the negroes are employed in the field; but ſome of them work in the ſugar-mills and ſtorehouſes; while thoſe of both ſexes, who are moſt likely, are employed as houſemaids and menial ſervants. Every negroe family has a cabbin, and a ſmall piece of ground adjoining to it, by way of garden, in which the more induſtrious ſort plant potatoes, yams, and other roots, and rear live ſtock, which they are at liberty to eat, or convert into money for their own uſe. They are fond of rum and tobacco.

The governor of Barbadoes has a conſiderable ſalary. The council conſiſts of twelve members, and the aſſembly of 22, choſen yearly, out of the ſeveral pariſhes, viz. two for each, by a majority of votes. Moſt of the civil officers are appointed by the governor, who alſo collates rectors to the pariſhes of the iſland. Their perquiſites are very conſiderable. The church affairs of Barbadoes are governed by a ſurrogate of the biſhop's appointment. There are upon the iſland ſome Jews and quakers, but very few other diſſenters.

The inhabitants of this iſland ſupport their own military eſtabliſhment, which is reſpectable, with great credit.

The iſland is divided into five diſtricts. In each of the diſtricts is a judge and five aſſiſtants, who hold a court of common pleas every month, from January to September, and if any difficult matter ariſes, it is referred to the arbitration of the governor.

Bridge-

Bridge-Town, the capital, is ſituated on Carliſle-Bay, in the ſouth-weſt part of the iſland, and has the beſt, or rather the only harbour in it. It is reckoned the fineſt and largeſt town in all the Caribbee Iſlands, if not in all the Britiſh Weſt-Indian colonies. Bridge-Town takes its name from a bridge in the eaſt part of it, erected over the waters that come from the neighbouring marſhes; but a dreadful fire, which happened ſome years ago, deſtroyed a great part of it. It is the ſeat of the governor, council, and aſſembly, and alſo of the court of chancery. The governor's houſe is about a mile out of the town, which is not reckoned very healthy, on account of the neighbouring marſhes. There are ſeveral forts and batteries about the town and bay.

There is a college in the town, which was founded and liberally endowed by Colonel Codrington, who was a native of this iſland.

With reſpect to the commerce of Barbaboes, the principal articles of exportation are aloes, cotton, ginger, ſugar, rum, and molaſſes. Thoſe of importation are timber of various kinds, bread, flour, Indian corn, rice, tobacco, ſome ſalt beef and pork, fiſh, pulſe, and other proviſions, from the northern colonies; ſlaves from the coaſt of Africa; wine from Madeira, Tercera, and Fial, as alſo ſome brandy; beef and pork from Ireland; ſalt from Curaſſao; linen of all ſorts, broad cloth, kerſeys, ſilks and ſtuffs, red caps, ſtockings, and ſhoes of all ſorts, gloves and hats, millenery ware and perriwigs, laces, peas, beans, oats, ſtrong beer, pale ale, pickles, candles, butter and cheeſe, iron ware for their ſugar works, leaden ware, powder and ſhot, braſs and copper wares, &c.

This iſland, as well as Jamaica, ſuffered the greateſt calamities by the dreadful hurricane which happened in the month of October, 1780. The plantations were almoſt all deſtroyed; and Bridge-Town was reduced to a mere heap of ruins, ſcarce a building in it being left ſtanding. No leſs than 11 pariſh churches, and 2 chapels, were levelled with the ground, among which was the fine church of St. Michael. The ſtreets were covered with the ruins of the houſes; and it was ſuppoſed that no leſs than 3000 perſons periſhed. The ſhips in Carliſle Bay were driven out to ſea, and ſeveral of them caſt aſhore and loſt. The damage was ſo immenſe throughout the iſland as not to be eſtimated; and the whole formed a ſcene more melancholy and deplorable than it is poſſible for words to deſcribe.

ST. CHRISTOPHER.

THE Iſland of St. Chriſtopher, called by mariners St. Kitt's, is ſituated in 17 deg. north latitude about 14 leagues from Antigua, and is about 20 miles long, and 7 broad. It had its name from Columbus, in his firſt voyage to America The French and Engliſh arrived here the ſame day in 1625, and divided the iſland between them. Three years after their ſettling, the Spaniards drove them out of it. They ſoon returned, and continued to live in harmony till 1666, when war being commenced between the two nations, St. Chriſtopher became, at different periods, the ſcene of war and blood-ſhed for half a century. In 1702 the French were entirely expelled, and the peace of Utrecht confirmed this iſland to the Engliſh. In February, 1782, it was taken by the French, but reſtored again to Great Britain by the late treaty of peace.

The aſſemblage of a great number of high and barren mountains make St. Kitt's appear, to thoſe who approach it by ſea, like one huge mountain covered with wood; but they find, as they come nearer, that the coaſt grows more eaſy, as well as the aſcent of the mountains, which, riſing one above another, are cultivated as high as poſſible.

The climate of St. Chriſtopher is hot, though, from the height of the country, much leſs than might be expected. The air is pure and healthy; but the iſland is ſubject to frequent ſtorms, hurricanes, and earthquakes. The ſoil is, in general, light and ſandy, but very fruitful, and well watered by ſeveral rivulets, which run down both ſides of the mountains. The animals, vegetables, &c. are the ſame with thoſe of Barbadoes. The whole iſland is covered with plantations, whoſe owners (noted for the ſoftneſs of their manners) live in agreeable, clean, and convenient habitations, adorned with fountains and groves. Moſt of their houſes are built of cedar, and the lands hedged with orange and lemon trees.

The moſt conſiderable town upon the iſland is Baſſe-terre, formerly the capital of the French part: the other is called Sandy-Point, and always belonged to the Engliſh. There is no harbour: on the contrary, the ſurf is continually beating on the ſandy ſhore at the few places fit to land, which not only prevents the building any quay or wharf, but renders the landing or ſhipping of goods always inconvenient, and very often dangerous. They have been, therefore, obliged to adopt a particular method to embark, or put the heavy goods, ſuch as hogſheads of ſugar or rum, on board. For this purpoſe they uſe a ſmall boat of a peculiar conſtruction, called a *moſes:* this boat ſets off from the ſhip with ſome very active and expert rowers: when they ſee what they call a *lull*, that is, an abatement in the violence of the ſurge, they puſh to land, and lay the ſides of the *moſes* on the ſtrand; the hogſhead is rolled into it, and the ſame precautions are uſed to carry it to the ſhip. It is in this inconvenient and very hazardous manner, that the ſugars are conveyed on board by ſingle hogſheads. Rum, cotton, and other goods that will bear the water, are generally floated to the ſhip both in going and coming.

The public affairs at St. Chriſtopher's are adminiſtered by a governor, a council, and an aſſembly choſen from the nine pariſhes into which the iſland is divided, and which have each a large handſome church.

The Iſland of St. Chriſtopher ſuſtained great damage by a violent hurricane, which happened in the month of October, 1780. All the goods in the warehouſes and cellars near the beach were totally deſtroyed, and upwards of 100 veſſels were driven out to ſea, many of which were loſt, and the crews periſhed.

ANTIGUA.

ANTIGUA was diſcovered by Chriſtopher Columbus, but not ſettled upon till the year 1632, when the Engliſh took poſſeſſion of it. It is ſituated in 17 deg. north latitude, and is of a circular form, about 20 miles each way, and near 60 in circumference. It is more noted for good harbours than all the Engliſh iſlands in theſe ſeas, yet ſo encompaſſed with rocks, that it is of dangerous acceſs in many parts, eſpecially to thoſe that are not well acquainted with the coaſt.

The climate is hotter than Barbadoes, and very ſubject to hurricanes. The ſoil is ſandy, and much of it overgrown with wood. There are but few ſprings, and not ſo much as a brook in the whole iſland; ſo that the principal dependance of the inhabitants ariſes from the water ſupplied by caſual rains, which they ſave in ciſterns.

The capital of Antigua is St. John, a regular built town on the weſtern ſhore, with a good harbour of the ſame name, whoſe entrance is defended by Fort James. It is the reſidence of the governor-general of the Caribbee Leeward Iſlands, the place where the aſſembly for this iſland is held, and the port where the greateſt trade is carried on. It was a very flouriſhing town before the fire in 1769. The beſt port in the iſland is Engliſh Harbour, on the ſouth-ſide. At much trouble and expence, it has been made fit to receive the greateſt ſhips of war. There are alſo a dock-yard with ſtores, and all the materials and conveniencies neceſſary to repair and careen. Engliſh Harbour is at a ſmall diſtance from the town and harbour of Falmouth. There are, beſides, Willoughby Bay, to the windward of Engliſh Harbour; Nonſuch Harbour, on the eaſt point;

point; and the town and harbour of Parham, on the north ſide; alſo a great number of creeks and ſmaller bays; but, in general, the ſhore being rocky, whereever the landing would be practicable, it is defended by forts and batteries; and there is commonly one regiment of regular troops quartered there for the defence of the iſland.

The governor-general, when he thinks proper, calls a general aſſembly of the repreſentatives of the other iſlands. Antigua has, beſides, a lieutenant-governor, a counſel, and its own aſſembly, compoſed of 24 members. It is divided into 6 pariſhes and 11 diſtricts, of which 10 ſend each two repreſentatives, and that of St. John four.

NEVIS.

NEVIS, which is no more than a vaſt mountain riſing to a very conſiderable height, is ſituated about four miles to the ſouth of St. Chriſtopher's. The ſoil is fruitful, and the ſtaple commodity ſugar, which ſerves all the purpoſes of money. Here are ſometimes violent rains and hurricanes, as in the other iſlands, and the air is even hotter than that of Barbadoes.

On this iſland are many remarkable inſects and reptiles, particularly the flying-tyger, the horn-fly, and a kind of ſnail called the ſoldier. The ſea abounds with a variety of excellent fiſh, as groopers, rock fiſh, old wives, cavallies, welch-men, mullets, wilks, cockles, lobſters, &c. Land-crabs are very common here; they are ſmaller than ſea-crabs, and make little burrows, like rabbits, in the woods, towards the tops of the mountains. The only venomous creatures are ſcorpions and centipedes.

They have plenty of aſparagus here; and there is a tree called diddle-doo, which bears a lovely bloſſom of the fineſt yellow and ſcarlet colours, and is eſteemed a ſovereign remedy in ſome diſorders. The liquorice buſh runs wild along the ſtone walls of common fields, like the vine. The butter here is not good, and their new cheeſe far worſe. The ſheep have neither horns or wool, but are cloathed with ſmooth hair, and generally full of ſmall red or black ſpots, reſembling thoſe of a fine ſpaniel. They breed twice a year, if not oftener, and generally bring two, three, or four lambs at a time, and, what is more extraordinary, ſuckle them all. The rams are of a pale red colour, with a thick row of long, ſtrait, red hair hanging down from the lower jaw to the breaſt, as far as the fore legs. The hogs, being fed with Indian corn, Spaniſh potatoes, and ſugar-cane juice, are exceeding ſweet food, white, and fat; as are the fowls and turkies, which are fed with the ſame diet. The ground doves here are about the ſize of a lark, of a chocolate colour, ſpotted with a dark blue, their heads like that of a robin-red-breaſt, and their eyes and legs of a moſt pure red. They have excellent game cocks and fierce bull dogs, beſides large cur-dogs, but no hounds or ſpaniels.

Nevis was formerly much more flouriſhing than at preſent, and, before the revolution, contained 30,000 inhabitants. The invaſion of the French about that time, and ſome epidemical diſorders, have ſtrangely diminiſhed the number to what they then were.

Here are three tolerable roads or bays, on which are as many little towns, viz. Newcaſtle, Littleborough on Moreton-Bay, and Charles-Town the capital, with a fort called Great Fort, that defends the anchoring-place, where the governor, council and aſſembly meet: the laſt is compoſed of five members for each of the three pariſhes into which the iſland is divided.

Here, as in ſome of the other Caribbees, if a white man kills a black, he cannot be tried for his life for the murder; and all that he ſuffers is a fine of 30l. currency to the maſter for the loſs of his ſlave. If a negro ſtrikes a white man he is puniſhed with the loſs of his hand; and if he ſhould draw blood, with death. A negro cannot be evidence againſt a white man.

The inhabitants have three public annual faſts, to implore the Divine Protection againſt hurricanes; and if none happen in July, Auguſt or September, they appoint a public thankſgiving in October.

The trade of Nevis conſiſts in molaſſes, rum, and a prodigious quantity of lemons.

This iſland, as well as the following, was taken by the French in the year 1782, but reſtored at the peace in 1783.

MONTSERRAT.

MONTSERRAT was diſcovered by Columbus in 1493. It lies in 16 deg. 37 min. north latitude, and 62 deg. 13 min. weſt longitude. It is 25 miles almoſt ſouth ſouth-eaſt from Nevis; 20 weſt ſouth-weſt from Antigua; 40 north weſt-from Guadaloupe; and 240 from Barbadoes. It is of an oval figure; about three leagues in length; the ſame in breadth; and 18 in compaſs. The Spaniards gave it the name of Montſerrat from a fancied reſemblance it bore to a mountain of that name near Barcelona in old Spain. It was ſettled in 1632 by Sir Thomas Warner, and taken in the beginning of the reign of Charles II. by the French, who reſtored it to England at the peace of Breda. The firſt ſettlers were Iriſhmen, and the preſent inhabitants are principally compoſed either of their deſcendants, or natives of Ireland.

The climate, ſoil, and produce of Montſerrat are much the ſame as thoſe of the other Engliſh Caribbee iſlands. The mountains yield cedars, the cypreſs-tree, the iron tree, with other woods, and ſome odoriferous ſhrubs. It is well watered and fruitful; and the planters formerly raiſed a great deal of indigo. The ſurrounding ſeas produce ſome hideous monſters, particularly two, which, from their remarkable uglineſs, as well as the poiſonous quality of their fleſh, are called ſea devils. The lamanture, by ſome called the ſea-cow, is found in this iſland, and generally at the entrance of freſh water rivers. According to the accounts we have of it, it is an amphibious animal; and lives moſtly on herbage. Its fleſh is reckoned very wholeſome food, when ſalted; and they are ſo large that two or three of them load a canoe.

The government of Montſerrat is compoſed of a lieutenant-governor, a council, and an aſſembly of eight repreſentatives, two for each of the four diſtricts which divide the iſland.

Monſerrat has not any harbour, only three roads, namely, at Plymouth (which is the chief town in the iſland) Old Harbour, and Ker's Bay, where the ſhipping and landing of goods is attended with the ſame inconveniences as in the iſland of St. Chriſtopher.

BARBUDA.

BARBUDA is a ſmall iſland in 18 deg. north lat. and 61 deg. 35 min. weſt long. 15 miles north-eaſt of Montſerrat; its length being about 20 miles, and its breadth 12. It is the property of the Codrington family, who have the appointment of the governor. Part of the eſtate ariſing from it, amounting, as is ſaid, to 2000l. a year, with two plantations in Barbadoes, were bequeathed, in 1710, by Chriſtopher Codrington Eſq. governor and captain-general of Barbadoes, to the ſociety for propagating the goſpel, towards the inſtruction of the negroes, in the Caribbee Iſlands, in the Chriſtian religion, and the erection of a college at Barbadoes, for teaching the liberal arts.

The land of this iſland lies low, but is fertile: the inhabitants apply themſelves chiefly to the breeding of cattle, and raiſing proviſions, with which they ſupply the neighbouring iſlands. Many of the commodities, however, which are raiſed in the other Weſt India iſlands, may be alſo raiſed here, ſuch as citrons, pomegranates, oranges, raiſins, Indian figs, maize, cocoa-nuts, cinnamon, pine-apples, and the ſenſitive plant, with various kinds of woods and drugs, ſuch as Braſil, ebony, pepper, indigo and the like. There are ſome large

large ſerpents on the iſland, but they are ſo far from being poiſonous or noxious, that they deſtroy rats, toads and frogs; though the ſting or bite of others is mortal, unleſs an antidote is quickly applied. On the weſt ſide of the iſland is a good well-ſheltered road, clear from rocks and ſands.

ANGUILLA

IS ſituated in 19 deg. north lat. and 62 deg. 57 min. weſt longitude, about 75 miles north-weſt of St. Chriſtopher's. It is very long and narrow, which induced the Spaniards to give it the name of Anguilla, or "Eel." It is ſo low and flat, that the French, who were there firſt, did not think it worth cultivating, or even keeping. The Engliſh adopted the ſame opinion when they took poſſeſſion of it, and the iſland was a long time in their hands before they perceived the contrary. Within a few years, induſtry, and the indefatigable labours of the planters of Anguilla, have convinced them that their iſland produces not only all the neceſſaries of life, but, beſides, many proviſions which they ſell to their neighbours, as well as ſugar and cotton. The climate is very healthy, and the inhabitants ſtrong and vigorous. Their exportations are ſugar, rum, and cotton.

To the north of Barbuda are ſeveral ſmall uninhabited iſlands. The moſt remarkable of them lies at ſix leagues diſtance, and is about a league long. It conſiſts of an eminence, in which the Spaniſh diſcoverers, finding ſome reſemblance to a hat, they gave it the name of Sombrero, which it has always preſerved.

To the weſt of Barbuda and Sombrero, after having croſſed a channel of eight leagues, begin the Virgin Iſlands. Theſe take up a ſpace, from eaſt to weſt, of about 24 leagues long, quite to the eaſtern coaſt of Porto Rico, with a breadth of about 16 leagues. They are compoſed of a great number of iſles, whoſe coaſts, rent throughout and ſprinkled with rocks, every where dangerous to navigators, are famous for ſhipwrecks, and particularly of ſeveral galleons. Happily for the trade and navigation of theſe iſlands, nature has placed in the middle of them a large baſon of three or four leagues broad, and ſix or ſeven long, the fineſt that can be imagined, and in which ſhips may anchor land-locked, and ſheltered from all winds. The Buccaneers called it The Virgins' Gangway; but its true name is The Bay of Sir Francis Drake, who firſt entered it in 1580, when he made his expedition againſt St. Domingo.

One of theſe iſlands is called The Tropic Keys, from the aſtoniſhing quantity of tropic birds which breed there. Theſe birds are about the ſize of a pigeon, but round and plump like a partridge, and very good to eat. Their plumage is quite white, except two or three feathers in each wing, which are of a clear grey. Their beaks are ſhort, thick, and of a pale yellow. They have a long feather, or rather quill, about ſeven inches long, which comes out of their rump, and is all the tail they have. They obtained their name from not having been ever ſeen but between the tropics

The Virgin Iſlands are all of them ſmall, and the greateſt part uninhabited.

DOMINICA.

THIS iſland was diſcovered by Columbus, who called it Dominica, becauſe he firſt ſaw it on a Sunday. It is ſituated in 16 deg. north latitude, and 62 deg. weſt longitude; lies about half way between Guadaloupe and Martinico; and is about 28 miles in length, and 13 in breadth. The ſoil is thin, and better adapted to the rearing of coffee than ſugar: but the ſides of the hills bear the fineſt trees in the Weſt Indies; and the whole iſland is well ſupplied with rivulets of fine water. Here, as in ſome other of the Caribbees, is a ſulphur mountain, and hot ſpring, equal, in ſalubrity, to thoſe of Bath, in England; and the fine fruits, particularly the pine-apples, are ſuperior to any that grow on the French iſlands. At the north-weſt end of the iſland is a deep, ſpacious, ſandy bay, called Prince Rupert's, which is well ſecured from the winds by mountains on all ſides.

The moſt diſtinguiſhed place in this iſland is the town of Roſeau, ſituated on a ſpacious harbour. The houſes are low and irregularly placed; and the town is ſheltered by the circumjacent mountains, ſome of which riſe to a conſiderable height. The moſt advantageous view of the town is from the bay or harbour, where ſhips of conſiderable ſize ride at anchor with the greateſt ſafety.

The French have ever exerted their efforts to prevent the Engliſh from ſettling on this iſland, as it muſt cut off their communication, in time of war, between Martinico and Guadaloupe. By the treaty, however, in 1763, it was ceded to the Engliſh; afterwards taken by the French, in 1778, and reſtored to Great Britain in 1783.

ST. VINCENT.

ST. Vincent, ſituated in 13 deg. north latitude, and 61 deg. weſt longitude, is about 24 miles in length, and 18 in breadth, lying about 50 miles north-weſt of Barbadoes. Out of the ridge of mountains, which croſſes it from ſouth to north, riſe a great number of rivers, which are well ſtored with fiſh. Theſe mountains are, in general, of an eaſy aſcent; and the vallies and plains, ſome of them of a large extent, are exceeding fertile, producing moſt of the neceſſaries of life, particularly ſugar, coffee, cocoa, and anatta.

When this iſland was ceded to Great Britain, by the treaty of Verſailles in 1763, there was a great number of a mixed breed of the ancient Caribbees, and of ſhipwrecked or runaway negroes; but theſe have been all long ſince exterminated.

The moſt remarkable place in St. Vincent's is Kingſtown, ſituated on a bay of the ſame name at the ſouth-weſt end of the iſland. It is the reſidence of the governor, and the place where the aſſembly meet. About three miles from Kingſtown, towards the ſouth-eaſt, is the town of Calliagua, whoſe harbour is the moſt conſiderable in the whole iſland.

GRENADA, AND THE GRENADINES.

GRENADA is ſituated in 12 deg. north latitude, and 62 deg. weſt longitude, about 30 leagues ſouth-weſt of Barbadoes, and almoſt the ſame diſtance north of New Andaluſia, or the Spaniſh Main. This iſland is about 30 miles long, and 15 broad. The climate is good, and the ſoil rich and fertile, and particularly adapted for producing ſugar, coffee, tobacco, and indigo. A lake on the top of a hill in the middle of an iſland, ſupplies it plentifully with fine rivers, which adorn and fertilize it. Several bays and harbours lie round the iſland. Some of theſe may be fortified with great advantage, which renders it very convenient for ſhipping; and it has the happineſs of not being ſubject to hurricanes. St. George's bay has a ſandy bottom, and is extremely capacious, but open. In its harbour, or careening-place, 100 large veſſels may be moored with perfect ſafety.

Near Grenada is a cluſter of ſmall iſlands, called the Grenadines. Theſe iſlands produce very fine timber, ſugar, indigo, tobacco, peaſe, millet, but the cocoa-tree does not thrive ſo well in them as in the other iſlands. Theſe iſlands were all diſcovered by Columbus, but never ſettled by the Spaniards. The French firſt eſtabliſhed a colony here, but were diſturbed by the natives, who carried on a long and bloody war with their invaders. At length, however, they were compelled to ſubmit to ſuperior force, and then the ſettlements of the French rapidly increaſed.

In the laſt war but one, when Grenada was attacked by the Engliſh, the French inhabitants, who were not very numerous, were ſo amazed at the reduction of Gaudaloupe and Martinico, that they loſt all ſpirit, and ſurrendered without making the leaſt oppoſition; and the full property of this iſland, together with the Grenadines, were confirmed to the crown of Great Britain by the treaty of peace in 1763. But in July, 1779, the French made themſelves maſters of it; though it was reſtored by the treaty of 1780.

The Iſland of Grenada, with all thoſe adjoining to it, ſuſtained conſiderable damage by a dreadful hurricane that happened in the month of October, 1780. Many of the houſes were levelled with the ground, the plantations deſtroyed, and ſeveral ſhips which lay in the harbour totally loſt.

CHAP. VIII.

BRITISH AMERICAN ISLANDS.

HAVING deſcribed the Britiſh Iſlands in the Weſt-Indies, we ſhall next ſurvey the other American Iſlands belonging to us, which are ſituated in different parts of the ocean; and as we ſhall begin at the northern extremity, Newfoundland will firſt engage our attention.

NEWFOUNDLAND.

THIS iſland, which was diſcovered by Sebaſtian Cabot, in 1507, is ſituated to the eaſt of the Gulph of St. Lawrence, between 46 and 52 deg. north latitude, and between 53 and 59 deg. weſt longitude. It is about 350 miles in length, and 200 in breadth; and is bounded on the north by Belleiſle Strait, on the ſouth and eaſt by the Atlantic Ocean, and on the weſt by the Gulph of St. Lawrence. It has many excellent harbours.

The climate of Newfoundland is intolerably hot in ſummer, and intenſely cold in winter. For four or five months in the winter the ground is covered with ſnow, frozen as hard as cryſtal. The ſouthern and eaſtern coaſts ſeldom enjoy a very ſerene ſky, from their neighbourhood to the Great Bank, which is almoſt conſtantly covered with a thick fog; but in the northern and weſtern parts the ſky is very clear, both in ſummer and winter. The ſoil is, in general, barren. Moſt of the meadows and vales produce nothing but a kind of moſs. Many ſpecies of timber, however, grow here in the utmoſt perfection; and the firs are as fit for maſts as thoſe of Norway. There are ſome fruitful ſpots, and a kind of rye which grows naturally without culture, and is very nouriſhing, with wild ſtrawberries and raſpberries. The iſland abounds with wild fowl, deer, hares, rabbits, foxes, ſquirrels, bears, beavers, wolves, otters, and other quadrupeds; and the ſea is plentifully ſtocked with different kinds of delicious fiſh, beſides cod, the ſtaple commodity. It is certain, however, that the inhabitants would be in the utmoſt diſtreſs for bread, and many other neceſſaries, but from the exports thither from the mother country, or the continent of America, from which they have almoſt every thing, except fiſh, veniſon, and wild fowl.

The value of Newfoundland conſiſts in the trade for fiſh, of which there is ſuch plenty on the coaſts of the iſland, that the whole world almoſt might be ſupplied from it, all ſorts being taken in immenſe quantities: but the principal fiſhery is of cod, wherewith a great number of ſhips are laden every year, for England, France, Spain, Portugal, Italy, and other parts. The main fiſhery is on the Great Bank, and the other banks about this iſland, as alſo along the coaſt. The Great Bank is a vaſt mountain under water, extending, in length, according to the moſt accurate ſea-charts, from the 41ſt deg. of north latitude, to 49 deg. 25 min. and, in breadth, from 42 deg. 30 min. to 51 deg. 30 min. of weſt longitude. Its depth of water is from 5 to 60 fathoms. This bank is covered with a vaſt quantity of ſhells, and ſeveral kinds of fiſh of all ſizes, moſt of which ſerve for food to the cod-fiſh, whoſe number is immenſe. Great numbers of veſſels have loaded here annually for two centuries, yet this vaſt conſumption has produced no very apparent diminution of their numbers.

The Green Bank is about 120 miles long, and about 50 over where broadeſt. It lies off the ſouth coaſt of Newfoundland. There are ſeveral other banks, but they are not conſiderable enough to deſerve particular notice.

The Great Strand, or drying-place for fiſh, which is about a league in extent, lies between two ſteep hills, one of which is ſeparated from the Strand by a ſmall rivulet, which forms a kind of lake, called the Little Bay, abounding with ſalmon. The Great Strand may contain at once wherewithal to load 60 ſhips. There is another leſſer Strand for the uſe of the inhabitants, who fiſh all along the coaſt. The fiſhing ſeaſon is from Spring to September. All the train oil that comes from Newfoundland is drawn chiefly from the livers of the cod. The principal towns are Placentia, Bonaviſta, and St. John.

The Indians, or natives, of this iſland, are ſaid to be a gentle, mild, tractable people, eaſily gained by civility and good uſage. They paint their bodies, and, in winter, are clad in ſkins and furs.

The following is the proceſs in catching the fiſh, preparing them, &c. The cod is caught with a harpoon, the beſt bait being a little fiſh, called capelau, but, for want of this, they ſometimes make uſe of the inteſtines of the cod itſelf. As ſoon as the fiſherman has caught a fiſh with his line, he pulls out its tongue, and gives the fiſh to another man, whom they call the beheader. This man, with a two-edged knife, like a lancet, ſlits the fiſh from the vent to the throat, which he cuts acroſs to the bones of the neck: he then lays down his knife, and pulls out the liver, which he drops into a kind of tray, through a little hole made on purpoſe in the ſcaffold he works upon, he then guts it, and cuts off the head. This done, he delivers the fiſh to the next man, who ſtands over againſt him. This man, who is called the ſlicer, takes hold of it by the left gill, and reſts its back againſt a board, a foot long, and two inches high: he pricks it with the ſlicing knife on the left ſide of the vent, which makes it turn out the left gill: then he cuts the ribs, or great bones all along the vertebræ, about half way down from the neck to the vent, he likewiſe does the ſame on the right ſide; then cuts aſlant three joints of the vertebræ through to the ſpinal marrow; laſtly, he cuts all along the vertebræ and ſpinal marrow, dividing them into two; and thus ends his operation. A third helper then takes this fiſh, and, with a kind of wooden ſpatula, ſcrapes all the blood that has remained along the vertebræ that were not cut. When the cod is thus thoroughly cleanſed (ſometimes waſhed) he drops it into the hold, through a hole made for that purpoſe, and the ſalter is there ready to receive it. This aſſiſtant crams as much ſalt as he can into the inner part of the fiſh, lays it down, the tail end loweſt, rubs the ſkin all over with ſalt, and even covers it with more ſalt; then goes through the ſame proceſs with the reſt of the cod, which he heaps up one upon another till the whole is laid up. The fiſh, thus ſalted and piled up in the hold, is never meddled with any more till it is brought home and unloaded for ſale.

The

The cod intended for drying is caught and beheaded in the ſame manner; but the operation of ſalting varies in ſome few particulars.

This iſland, after various diſputes, was ceded to England in 1713; but the French were left at liberty to dry their nets on the northern ſhores. By the treaty of 1763, they were permitted to fiſh in the Gulph of St. Lawrence, on condition that they did not approach within three leagues of any of the coaſts belonging to Great Britain. The ſmall iſlands of St Pierre and Miquelon, to the ſouth of Newfoundland, were ceded to the French by the ſame treaty, for curing their fiſh; but they engaged not to erect any fortifications, and to keep only 50 ſoldiers to enforce the police. By the laſt treaty of peace, the French are to enjoy the fiſheries on the north and weſt coaſts of Newfoundland.

CAPE BRETON.

THIS iſland is ſituated in the Gulph of St. Lawrence, between 45 and 57 deg. north latitude, and between 61 and 62 deg. weſt longitude, being about 100 miles long, and 80 broad. It lies about 20 leagues ſouth-weſt from Newfoundland, and is ſeparated by the Strait of Cauſo from Nova Scotia. The north coaſt is high, and almoſt inacceſſible; but the ſouth coaſt contains ſeveral excellent harbours, more particularly that of Louiſburgh, one of the fineſt in America. The climate here is much the ſame with that of Quebec, only more ſubject to fogs. The air, however, ſeems to be pretty wholeſome.

The iſland abounds with lakes and rivers, coals, and lime-ſtone; and though there are many barren ſpots in it, apples, pulſe, wheat, and other corn, flax and hemp, are, or may be raiſed in it. The moſt common trees are oaks of a prodigious ſize, pines fit for maſts, aſh, maple, plane, and aſpin trees. There is no occaſion for digging deep, or draining the waters, to come at the coals here, as in other countries.

Of animals there are horſes, hogs, oxen, ſheep, goats, and poultry, on the iſland, but game is ſcarce. The partridges are almoſt as big as pheaſants, and not unlike them in the colour of their feathers. The quantities of cod and other fiſh on the coaſt is almoſt incredible; and there are numbers of whales, ſea-wolves, porpoiſes, and ſeals.

The French began a ſettlement on this iſland in 1714, which they continued to increaſe, and fortified it in 1720. They were diſtreſſed by the Engliſh in 1745; but reinſtated by the treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle, in 1748. It was afterwards reduced in 1758, by the Britiſh troops and ſeamen, under General Amherſt and Admiral Boſcawen. It was ceded to the crown of Great Britain by the treaty of 1763, ſince which the fortifications of Louiſburgh have been demoliſhed.

There are ſeveral ſmall iſlands lying round Cape Breton, particularly thoſe of St. Peter and Madame, or Maurepas.

ST. JOHN.

THE Iſland of St. John is alſo ſituated in the Gulph of St. Lawrence, about 40 miles north-weſt of Cape Breton, in between 45 and 47 deg. of north lat. being about 60 miles in length, and upwards of 30 in breadth. The air is clear and healthy, and the ſoil in moſt places rich, producing Indian corn, and a great variety of garden plants. Great part of the country was cleared, and ſo well improved, by the French, that it was called the Granary of Canada, from its ſupplying that colony with corn. The animals are the ſame as in Cape Breton. It abounds in excellent timber.

This iſland was ceded to the crown of Great Britain by the treaty of 1763.

THE BERMUDAS, OR THE SUMMER ISLANDS.

THESE are a cluſter of very ſmall iſlands, and were diſcovered by John Bermudez, a Spaniard, from whom they received their firſt name, as they did their ſecond from Sir George Summer, who was caſt away upon them in 1609, ſince which they have belonged to Great Britain. They are ſituated in the Atlantic Ocean, in 32 deg. north latitude. They have a clear temperate air, with plenty of fleſh, fiſh, poultry, fruits, herbs, roots, &c. The climate, however, of late years, is altered for the worſe. Cedars grow here, ambergris is found on the ſhores, and whales and turtles are caught on the coaſt. Here is a breed of black hogs which are much valued. White chalk-ſtones and tobacco are exported. Oranges and palmettos abound; and many things are found in great plenty, water excepted; for the inhabitants have none but what falls from the clouds.

The chief iſland is St. George, which takes its name from George-Town, and is a pleaſant place, 16 miles in length, and three in breadth, and contains handſome buildings. The chief employment of the inhabitants is building ſmall veſſels.

Theſe iſlands are thus deſcribed by Waller, the celebrated poet, who reſided here during the civil wars of England.

BERMUDAS wall'd with rocks; who does not know
That happy iſland, where huge lemons grow,
And orange trees, which golden fruit do bear;
Th' Heſperian gardens boaſt of none ſo fair;
Where ſhining pearl, coral, and many a pound,
On the rich ſhore, of ambergris is found.
The lofty cedar, which to heav'n aſpires,
The prince of trees, is fewel for their fires;
The ſmoak by which their loaded ſpits do turn,
For incenſe might on ſacred altars burn;
Their private roofs on odorous timber borne,
Such as might palaces for kings adorn.
Their ſweet palmettos a new Bacchus yield,
With leaves as ample as the broadeſt ſhield;
Under the ſhadow of whoſe friendly boughs,
They ſit carouſing where their liquor grows.
Figs there unplanted thro' the field do grow,
Such as fierce Cato did the Romans ſhew,
With the rare fruit inviting them to ſpoil
Carthage, the miſtreſs of ſo rare a ſoil.
The naked rocks are not unfruitful here,
But, at ſome conſtant ſeaſons ev'ry year,
Their barren tops with luſcious food abound,
And with the eggs of various fowl are crown'd.
Tobacco is their worſt of things, which they
To Engliſh landlords as their tribute pay.
Such is the mould that the bleſt tenant feeds
On precious fruits, and pays his rent in weeds.
With candied plantains and the juicy pine,
On choiceſt melons and ſweet grapes they dine,
And with potatoes fat their wanton ſwine.
Nature theſe cates with ſuch a laviſh hand
Pours out among them, that our coarſer land
Taſtes of that bounty, and doth cloth return,
Which not for warmth, but ornament, is worn:
For the kind ſpring, which but ſalutes us here,
Inhabits there, and courts them all the year.
Ripe fruits and bloſſoms on the ſame trees live;
At once they promiſe what at once they give.
So ſweet the air, ſo moderate the clime,
None ſickly lives, or dies before his time.

THE BAHAMAS, OR LUCAYA ISLANDS.

THESE iſlands are ſituated in the Atlantic Ocean, to the north of the Iſland of Cuba, and not far from the coaſt of Florida, ſtretching from the north-weſt to the ſouth-eaſt, between 21 and 27 deg. north latitude, and between 73 and 81 deg. weſt longitude. They are very

very numerous, and twelve of them pretty large. Bahama, which is the largeſt, being about 50 miles in length, though very narrow, and gives name to the reſt; lies 25 leagues from the continent of Florida. It enjoys a ſerene temperate air, with a fruitful ſoil, well watered every where with ſprings and rivulets

Though theſe were the firſt lands diſcovered in America by Columbus, the Spaniards never thought of ſettling in them. The Engliſh knew nothing of them till 1667, when Captain William Seyle, being bound to Carolina, was forced among them by a ſtorm, which gave him an opportunity of examining them carefully, particularly that which at preſent is known by the name of Providence. At his return he reported the benefit they might be made of to the ſtate; upon which grants of them were made out to proprietors, called the Bahama Company; but the government was reſerved in the hands of the crown.

The Straits of Bahama, which the Britiſh fleet ſo happily cleared in the laſt expedition againſt the Havannah, are well known to navigators, for the danger and difficulties that attend the paſſing them.

Theſe iſlands lie near to Hiſpaniola, and to the noted port of the Havannah, in the Iſland of Cuba, where the Spaniſh galleons and flota always rendezvous before they return to Europe, having the Gulph of Florida to the weſt, and the Windward Paſſage to the eaſt of them. In times of peace they are capable of great improvement in point of trade, and have always been a good retreat for diſabled ſhips, blown from different parts of the continent of America. In times of war, the Britiſh cruizers and privateers, ſtationed at the Bahama Iſlands, are more capable to obſtruct and annoy the Spaniſh trade, homeward bound, than any that are ſtationed at the reſt of the Britiſh colonies in America.

The Bahamas were captured by the Spaniards during the laſt war, but they were retaken by the Britiſh arms in 1783.

FALKLAND ISLANDS.

THESE iſlands were firſt diſcovered by Sir Richard Hawkins in 1594, the principal of which he named Hawkins Maidenland, in honour of Queen Elizabeth. The preſent Engliſh name of Falkland was probably given them by Captain Strong, in 1639, and being adopted by Halley, it has from that time been received in our maps.

In the year 1764 the admiralty revived the ſcheme of a ſettlement in the South Seas, and Commodore Byron, who was ſent to take poſſeſſion of Falkland Iſlands in the name of his Britannic Majeſty, in his journal repreſents them as a valuable acquiſition. On the other hand, they are repreſented by Captain Macbride (who in 1766 ſucceeded that gentleman) as the outcaſts of nature. "We found (ſays he) a maſs of iſlands and broken lands, of which the ſoil was nothing but a bog, with no better proſpect than that of barren mountains, beaten by ſtorms almoſt perpetual. Yet this is ſummer; and if the winds of winter hold their natural proportion, thoſe who lie but two cables length from the ſhore, muſt paſs weeks without having any communication with it." The plants and vegetables which were planted by Mr. Byron's people, and the fir-tree, a native of rugged and cold climates, had withered away. But the goats, ſheep, and hogs, that were carried thither, were found to thrive and increaſe as in other places. Geeſe, of a fiſhy taſte, ſnipes, foxes, ſea-lions, penguins, plenty of good water, and, in the ſummer months, wild celery and ſorrel, are the natural productions of theſe parts.

Falkland Iſlands can hardly be deemed Britiſh, as they ſeem to have been rather abandoned by the Engliſh, in order to avoid giving umbrage to the court of Spain.

CHAP. IX.

THE FOX ISLANDS.

UNDER the general denomination of the Fox Iſlands (which were diſcovered by a Ruſſian navigator) are compriſed the Iſles of Ooneemak, Oonanſka, Amoghta, Saivoogham, Arnluk, Acootan, Oonella, Ataka, Kannaton, and Onoolaſhka. Of the latter we have given a particular deſcription from the account of our much-eſteemed countryman Captain Cook.

This group of iſlands (called by the Ruſſians, Lyſſie Aſtrova, or Fox Iſlands, from their abounding in foxes of divers colours) lies in about 42 deg. north latitude, and 150 deg. weſt longitude. The winters are milder here than in the more eaſtern climes, and continue, in general, only from the beginning of November to the end of March. The produce is, underwood, and ſmall ſhrubs and plants, for the moſt part ſimilar to thoſe found in Kamtſchatka. Warm ſprings and native ſulphur are to be found in ſome parts.

Great numbers of ſea animals, as ſea lions, ſea bears, and ſea otters, reſort to the ſhores. The foxes, during the day, lie in caves and cliffs of rocks. Towards the evening they come to the ſhore in ſearch of food. They have long ago extirpated the brood of mice, and other ſmall animals. They are not in the leaſt afraid of the natives, but diſtinguiſh the Ruſſians by ſcent, having found the effects of their fire arms.

The Fox Iſlands are, in general, populous. The natives live in ſeparate communities, compoſed of fifty, and ſometimes of two and even three hundred perſons. Their habitations are in large caves from 40 to 80 yards long, from 6 to 8 broad, and from 4 to 5 high. The roof of theſe caves is a kind of wooden grate, which is firſt ſpread over with earth. In the top are ſeveral openings, through which the inhabitants go up and down by means of ladders. In each cave is a number of partitions, appropriated to the ſeveral families, and theſe partitions are marked by means of ſtakes driven into the earth. The men and women ſit on the ground, and the children lie down, having their legs bound together under them, in order to make them learn to ſit upon their hams.

Theſe caves are generally ſo warm, that both ſexes often ſit naked. The natives obey the calls of nature openly, without deeming it indecent. They waſh themſelves firſt with their own urine, and afterwards with water. In winter, and when they want to warm themſelves, eſpecially before they go to ſleep, they ſet fire to dry graſs, and walk over it.

Their habitations being almoſt dark, they uſe, particularly in winter, a ſort of large lamps made by hollowing out a ſtone, into which they put a ruſh wick, and burn train oil.

With reſpect to their perſons, the natives have black hair, flat faces, and are of good ſtature. The men ſhave, with a ſharp ſtone or knife, the circumference and top of the head, and let the hair which remains hang from the crown. The women cut their hair in a ſtrait line over the forehead. Behind they let it grow to a conſiderable length, and tie it in a bunch. Some of the men wear their beards, others ſhave or pull them out by the roots. They mark and colour their faces with different figures. They make three inciſions in the

the under lip. They place in the middle one a flat bone, or a ſmall coloured ſtone: in each of the ſide ones they fix a long, pointed piece of bone, in ſuch a manner as to keep the noſtrils extended. They alſo pierce holes in their ears, and wear in them what little ornaments they can procure.

The men wear a kind of ſhirts made of the ſkins of cormorants, ſea-divers, and gulls; and, in order to keep out the rain, they have upper garments of the bladders and inteſtines of divers ſea-animals. Some of them wear common caps, of a party-coloured bird ſkin, upon which they leave part of the wings and tail. On the fore part of their hunting and fiſhing caps they place a ſmall board like a ſcreen, adorned with the jaw-bones of ſea bears, and ornamented with glaſs beads, which they receive in barter from the Ruſſians. At their feſtivals and dancing parties they wear a much more ſhowy ſort of caps.

The womens dreſs is made of the ſkins of ſea otters, and ſea bears. Theſe ſkins are dyed with a ſort of red earth, and neatly ſewed with ſinews, and ornamented with various ſtripes of ſea otter ſkins and leathern fringes. They have alſo upper garments, made of the inteſtines of the largeſt ſea calves and ſea lions.

Their food chiefly conſiſts of fiſh, and other ſea animals, and they generally eat it raw. When they dreſs their food they uſe a hollow ſtone. Having placed the fiſh or fleſh therein, they cover it with another, and cloſe the chink with lime or clay. They then lay it upon two ſtones, and light a fire under it. The proviſion which is intended for keeping is dried in the open air, without ſalt. Their greateſt delicacies are wild lilies and other roots, together with different kinds of berries. They eat at any time of the day without diſtinction; but, in caſes of neceſſity, are capable of faſting ſeveral days together.

They do not underſtand the art of diſtilling brandy, or any ſtrong liquors; but are very fond of tobacco and ſnuff, which the Ruſſians have introduced among them.

They feed their children, when very young, with the coarſeſt fleſh, and for the moſt part raw. If an infant cries, the mother immediately carries it to the ſea ſide, and, whether ſummer or winter, holds it naked in the water untill it is quiet. This cuſtom is ſo far from doing the children any harm, that it hardens them againſt the cold; and they accordingly go bare-footed through the winter, without the leaſt inconvenience. They are alſo trained to bathe frequently in the ſea; and it is an opinion generally received among the iſlanders, that by ſuch means they are rendered bold, and become fortunate in fiſhing.

No traces are found of any religious worſhip amongſt them. Several perſons, indeed, paſs for ſorcerers, and are held in high eſteem, but without receiving any emolument. Filial duty and reſpect towards the aged are not held in eſtimation by theſe people. They are not, however, deficient in fidelity to each other; and are of lively and chearful tempers, though rather impetuous, and prone to anger. Notwithſtanding their ſavageneſs they are very docile; and the boys, whom the Ruſſians keep as hoſtages, ſoon acquire a knowledge of their language.

Marriage ceremonials are unknown among them. Each man takes as many wives as he can maintain, but the number ſeldom exceeds four. Theſe women are occaſionally allowed to cohabit with other men; and they and their children are not unfrequently bartered in exchange for other commodities.

Feaſts are very common among theſe iſlanders, and particularly when the inhabitants of one iſland are viſited by thoſe of another. The men of the village meet their gueſts beating drums, and preceded by the women, who ſing and dance. This done, the gueſts ſit down to partake of the fare provided for them; after which the diverſions are introduced by the children, who dance and caper at the ſame time, making a noiſe with their ſmall drums, while the owners of the hut, of both ſexes, ſing. Next follow the men almoſt naked, tripping after one another, and beating drums of a larger ſize. Theſe are relieved by women, who dance in their cloaths, while the men ſing and beat their drums. Thoſe of the male natives who have ſeveral wives, do not withold them from their gueſts; but where the hoſt has no more than one wife, he makes the offer of a female ſervant.

The month of November is chiefly employed by theſe iſlanders in hunting, by which they obtain the ſkins of ſea bears for their cloathing. In the ſpring they kill old ſea bears, ſea lions, and whales. In calm weather, both in ſummer and winter, they row out to ſea, and catch cod and other fiſh. Their hooks are made of bone, and their lines of long tenacious ſea-weed, which, in thoſe ſeas, are ſometimes found near 160 yards in length.

They have two ſorts of veſſels: the larger are leathern boats, or baidars, which have oars on both ſides of them, and will hold 30 or 40 people: the ſmaller are rowed with a double paddle, and will contain but two at moſt. In theſe, however, they paſs from one iſland to another; and ſometimes do not ſcruple to venture out to ſea in them to a very conſiderable diſtance.

Strangers are not permitted to hunt or fiſh near a village, or to carry off any thing that is fit for food: therefore, when their proviſions are quite exhauſted on a journey, they are compelled to beg from village to village, and call upon their friends and relations for aſſiſtance.

The natives of theſe iſlands are very ſeldom engaged in war, either among themſelves or with their neighbours. When it ſo falls out, and they happen to get wounded, they apply a kind of yellow root to the wound, and faſt for ſome time. For relief in the head-ach they open a vein in that part, with a lancet made of ſtone.

Their weapons are bows, arrows, and darts. The latter they throw with great dexterity, and a very conſiderable diſtance. For defence of their perſons they uſe wooden ſhields, which they call *kuijakin*. When they want to glue the points of their arrows to the ſhaft, they ſtrike their noſes pretty hard till they bleed, and uſe the blood as glue.

As theſe iſlanders have neither law or judge, the moſt atrocious crimes, and even murders, are ſuffered to paſs unpuniſhed.

Their funeral ceremonies, which are very ſingular, are as follow. When a poor perſon dies, the body is wrapped either in their own cloaths or mats, then laid in a grave, and covered over with earth. The bodies of the rich are bound round with thongs, and afterwards put in a kind of wooden cradle, ſupported by poles, which are placed croſs-ways, and are expoſed to the air until they rot. The ſurviving relations and friends expreſs their grief, upon theſe occaſions, by bitter lamentations.

CHAP. X.

SPANISH WEST-INDIA AND AMERICAN ISLANDS.

CUBA.

THIS iſland was diſcovered by Columbus in 1492. He had but a flight view of it, yet it proved fatal to the natives; for they having preſented him with gold, ſome pieces of which he carried into Spain, it occaſioned an immediate reſolution to ſettle in it, which was accordingly effected in 1511.

The Iſland of Cuba extends in latitude from 20 deg. 20 min. to the tropic of Cancer; and from 74 deg. to 85 deg. 15 min. weſt longitude. It is about 700 miles in length from eaſt to weſt, but very narrow in proportion, not being above 70 in breadth. It lies 60 miles to the weſt of Hiſpaniola, 25 leagues to the north of Jamaica, 100 miles to the eaſt of Jucatan, and as many to the ſouth of Cape Florida. It commands the entrance of both the Gulphs of Mexico and Florida, and the Windward Paſſage; ſo that the Spaniards, who are the only poſſeſſors of it, may, with a tolerable fleet, not only ſecure their own trade, but annoy their neighbours.

In Cuba there are no winters; but in the months of July and Auguſt, when the ſun is vertical, the rains and ſtorms are great, otherwiſe the climate would be intolerably hot. The faireſt ſeaſon is when the ſun is fartheſt off, and then it is hotteſt in the morning; for towards noon a breeze ſprings up, which blows pretty briſk till the evening. The trade winds in theſe ſeas blow from the north-eaſt. At the full and change of the moon, from October to April, there are briſk winds at north and north-weſt, which, in December and January, often turn to ſtorms; though this is called the fair ſeaſon.

The country is well watered, and agreeably diverſified with woods, lawns, and vallies. The ſoil is capable of producing, in the greateſt plenty, every thing that grows in the other American iſlands; but the Cuba (commonly called the Havannah) tobacco is thought to excel that of all the world: and their ſugar would equal their tobacco in goodneſs, had they hands to cultivate the canes. The other products are ginger, long pepper, and other ſpices; caſſia, maſtic, aloes, large cedars, and other odoriferous trees; oaks, pines, palm-trees, plenty of large vines, fine cotton-trees, plantains, bananas, ananas, guavas, lemons, cocoas, and two ſorts of fruit, called camilor and guanavana; the firſt like a china orange, and the other ſhaped like a heart, with a juice between ſweet and acid.

The Spaniſh plantations are furniſhed by the mines of Cuba with a ſufficiency of metal for all their braſs guns. Gold duſt is found in the ſands of the rivers; but it is uncertain whether there are any gold or ſilver mines, the hopes of which occaſioned the butchery of all the ancient inhabitants, who were either unable or unwilling to diſcover them. If there are any, they are not worked. A chain of hills runs through the middle of the iſland; but the land near the coaſt is generally a level champaign country. The interior parts lie quite uncultivated, and uninhabited.

The ports and harbours here are of great advantage to ſhips for paſſing the gulph in ſafety; but there are ſcarce any navigable rivers. Both the coaſts and rivers abound with fiſh, and alſo with alligators. There are great conveniencies for making ſalt, but the inhabitants avail themſelves very little of them. The cattle brought hither by the Spaniards have multiplied exceedingly, great numbers now running wild in the woods, of which many are killed chiefly for their hides and tallow, that are ſent to Spain. Their fleſh alſo, being cut into pieces and dried in the ſun, ſerves to victual ſhips. Theſe cattle are often ſo fat, that they die through the burthen of their greaſe. Here are likewiſe abundance of mules, horſes, ſheep, wild boars, and hogs, together with wild and tame fowl, parrots, partridges, blue heads, large tortoiſes, quarries of flint, and ſeveral fountains of bitumen, which is uſed inſtead of pitch, as well as for medicinal purpoſes.

The Iſland of Cuba is pleaſant, and its preſent ſtate flouriſhing, the Spaniards having every year, for a conſiderable time paſt, added ſomething to its improvement. Formerly its exportations never equalled thoſe of the ſmall Britiſh Iſland of Antigua. The reaſon of this, next to the indolence of the Spaniards, was the great facility with which the inhabitants got their money, by means of the galleons and the flota, and the very great contraband trade carried on here, in defiance of their laws, and even with the connivance of the government of the iſland.

The civil government of Cuba is dependent on that of St. Domingo, or Hiſpaniola. Its biſhop, whoſe ſee is at St. Jago, though he commonly reſides at the Havannah, is ſuffragan to the archbiſhop of St. Domingo. The eaſt part of the iſland is under the governor of St. Jago, and the weſt under the governor of the Havannah. There are ſeveral large towns in the iſland, but the moſt conſiderable are the two above-mentioned.

The Havannah, the capital, is ſituated on the north-weſt coaſt of the iſland, 50 leagues from Cape Antonio, its weſtermoſt point; 490 miles weſt from St. Jago; 41 leagues ſouth of the Cape of Florida, the gulph of which it commands, by being ſituated at its mouth, and two days ſail from the Straits of Bahama. The town itſelf, diſtinct from the fortifications, is about two miles in circuit. The port is one of the fineſt and moſt ſecure in the world, yet the narrowneſs of its paſſage has rendered it ſo difficult of acceſs, that the galleons have often been inſulted and taken within ſight of it, without receiving any aſſiſtance from the fortifications. The churches here are inconceivably magnificent, and rich in plate and ornaments; the ſtreets clean and ſtrait, but narrow; and the houſes, which are of ſtone, make a good appearance, but are ill furniſhed. The inhabitants, in general, are ſaid to be more ſociable and converſable than thoſe of the other Spaniſh dominions in America. The city, which is one of the moſt rich in America, eſpecially when the galleons are here, ſtands in the moſt fruitful part of the iſland, on the weſt ſide, along the ſhore, which rounds ſo much, that above half of it is waſhed by the ſea, and the reſt by two branches of the river Lagida. There is a fine ſquare, with uniform buildings in the middle of it. This city is of greater importance to the Spaniards than any other in America, being the place of rendezvous for all their fleets, in return from that quarter of the world to Old Spain, and lying at the mouth of the Gulph of Florida, through which they are all obliged to paſs. They juſtly give it the appellation of the Key of all the Weſt-Indies, to lock or open the door or entrance thereto; and, indeed, no ſhip can paſs that way without leave from this port. Here is always a ſquadron of Spaniſh men of war; and here, in September, meet the galleons, flota, and other ſhips, from ſeveral ports, both of the continent and iſlands, to the number of, perhaps, 50 or 60 ſail, to take in proviſions and water, with great part of their lading, and for the convenience of returning to Old Spain in a body. A continual fair is kept till their departure, which is generally before the end of the month, when a proclamation is made, forbidding any that belong to the fleet to ſtay in the town, on pain of death; and, upon firing a warning gun, they all go on board. The value of the cargo is ſeldom leſs than 700,000l. ſterling: ſo that it may be well

well imagined, that a place of ſo much importance is in a condition both to defend itſelf, and to protect the ſhips that frequent it.

This city, after a long and obſtinate defence, was ſurrendered, with all its forts and dependencies, to his Britannic Majeſty's arms, by capitulation, on the 12th of Auguſt, 1762, but was reſtored by the peace of the following year.

The Spaniards have taken care to repair the damages which the fortifications received during the ſiege by the Engliſh, and added new ones, beſides uſing every other precaution to ſecure it, for the future, from all attempts of an enemy.

St. Jago ſtands at the bottom of a large bay, about two leagues from the ſea, on the ſouth-eaſt ſide of the iſland. It is diſtinguiſhed from St. Jago in Chili, by the addition of Di Cuba, as the other is by that of Di Chili. Since the unſucceſsful attempt made by the Engliſh, under Admiral Vernon and General Wentworth, the fortifications have been repaired, and the town has recovered ſome degree of its former ſplendor, carrying on a good trade with Old and New Spain, and above all with the Canaries.

The other towns of note are Santa Cruz, which has a tolerable harbour, and ſtands about 163 miles eaſt of the Havannah; Porto del Principe, ſituated on the coaſt, about 300 miles ſouth-eaſt of the Havannah; and Baracoa, ſituated on the north-eaſt part, which has a ſmall harbour.

HISPANIOLA, or ST. DOMINGO.

THIS iſland, ſtiled by the natives Aitji, extends from latitude 17 to 20 deg. north, is about 450 miles in length, and about 150 in breadth. It is about 13 leagues diſtant from Cuba, which ſtrait is called the Windward Paſſage.

Though the climate of this iſland is hot, it is not unwholeſome, being refreſhed by breezes and rains. It is both fruitful and pleaſant, being diverſified with hills and vallies, woods and rivers, producing ananas, bananas, grapes, oranges, lemons, citrons, toronias, limes, dates, and apricots; together with whole foreſts of cabbage trees, elms, oaks, pines, acajou, and other trees, large and lofty. The other commodities are ſugar, hides, indigo, cotton, cocoa, coffee, ginger, tobacco, ſalt, wax, honey, ambergris, and various kinds of drugs and dying woods. Crocodiles and alligators infeſt its coaſts and rivers; but they abound at the ſame time with tortoiſes or turtles.

This iſland is poſſeſſed in common by the Spaniards and French. Columbus diſcovered it in 1492, and called it Spaniſh Iſland; a denomination which it has preſerved under the name of Hiſpaniola, along with that of St. Domingo, derived from St Dominique, to whom it was dedicated. They found there ſome gold mines exceedingly rich, which brought all the robbers of Spain in crowds. The greater part of the male Indians periſhed in theſe mines; and almoſt all the females by the exceſſive labour of cultivating the fields of maize for the uſe of the conquerors: the others were maſſacred, either in cool blood, or in ranged battles; for ſo they called thoſe kinds of chaces which the Spaniards, covered with iron, and followed by bull-dogs, made to a multitude of theſe unhappy wretches, quite naked, and flying with all their might. The quick extermination of the natives, and conſequently the difficulty of working the mines; the bloody quarrels of the conquerors among one another; the diſcovery of Mexico, ſoon after that of St. Domingo, drawing thither all the invaders; and, laſtly, the pillaging of the capital by Drake in 1586; all theſe events conſpired to bring on the decay of the new colony a few years after its eſtabliſhment. The Spaniards, ſcattered about this large iſland, having become unable to hinder the Buccaneers from ſeizing the weſtern parts, and ſettling themſelves there, retired to the eaſtern ſide, which they have occupied ſince that time. Their part, both for culture and commerce, is much the beſt; it has large fruitful plains, and the ſituation of its coaſt is infinitely more favourable to navigation than that of the French part.

The Spaniards, through their natural indolence, plant very little: their principal employment is to breed cattle, or to hunt thoſe which have multiplied in the woods. They get from their neighbours, ſtockings, hats, linen, guns, iron ware, and ſome cloaths; for which they give in return, horſes, horned cattle, ſmoaked beef, hogs, and hides.

The principal places in the iſland, belonging to the Spaniards, are the following:

St. Domingo, the capital, is a large well built city, ſituated on a ſpacious harbour on the ſouth ſide of the iſland, and defended by a caſtle and other works. It has a univerſity and a college, a Latin ſchool, ſeveral convents, a magnificent cathedral, an hoſpital, and a fine market place in the center of the city. St. Domingo is alſo the reſidence of the governor-general of the Spaniſh Indies, of an archbiſhop, and court of royal audience. The archbiſhop's ſuffragans are the biſhops of Conception in this iſland, St. John's in Porto Rico, St. Jago in Cuba, Venzuela in New Caſtile, and of the city of Honduras. The juriſdiction of the court of royal audience extends to all the Spaniſh Weſt-Indian Iſlands. A fine navigable river falls into the ſea a little to the weſt of it.

Conception is a conſiderable town, and the ſee of a biſhop, 20 leagues north of St. Domingo. St. Jago de los Cavalieros lies 10 leagues north-weſt of Conception, and enjoys a fine air. Porto la Plata, or the Haven of Silver, ſtands on an arm of the ſea, 35 leagues north of St. Domingo and Monto Chriſto, at the mouth of the river Yaguey, 10 miles weſt of Porto de la Plata, and 40 north-weſt from St. Domingo.

The towns belonging to the French in this iſland are the following:

Cape St. François, ſituate on the north ſide of the iſland, is in a very flouriſhing and opulent condition, having a fine harbour, a briſk trade, and a great number of inhabitants.

St. Lewis, or Port Lewis, ſtands on a ſmall iſland on the ſouth-weſt coaſt of the iſland, and poſſeſſes a good harbour, with a fort, but labours under a ſcarcity of freſh water.

Port Paix is a place of conſiderable ſtrength, lying oppoſite the Iſland of Tortuga, on the north-weſt coaſt of the iſland.

Petit Cuaves, and Leogane, ſtand on Donna Maria Bay, near Cape St. Nicholas, at the weſt end of the iſland. The former is the oldeſt French ſettlement in the iſland, and a place of conſiderable trade; and the latter is the reſidence of the French governor-general, and of the royal judicature, with that of the ſupreme council, whoſe juriſdiction extends from Cape Mougon to the river Artibonite.

There are two other ſmall places belonging to the French, called La Petit Riviere, and L'Eſterre, the latter of which ſtands a little within land.

The Iſland of Tortuga had its name from the turtles with which it formerly abounded. It is about 6 leagues long from eaſt to weſt, and 3 where broadeſt. The French have a populous and flouriſhing ſettlement, called Cayona, with a harbour in the ſouth part of the iſland. It yields all the commodities found in the other Weſt-India Iſlands, together with wild boars; but has little or no freſh water.

Of the other iſlands on this coaſt the chief are Savona and Mona, belonging to the Spaniards.

PORTO RICO.

THIS iſland is ſituated between 64 and 67 degrees weſt longitude, and in 18 degrees north latitude, lying between Hiſpaniola and St. Chriſtopher's. It is about 100 miles in length, and 40 in breadth. The chief part of the country is diverſified with woods, vallies,

vallies, and plains, and it is extremely fertile, producing the ſame fruits as the other iſlands. It is well watered with ſprings and rivers; but the air is exceſſive hot, and, during the rainy ſeaſon, very unwholeſome.

The north part of the iſland, which is the moſt barren, contains ſeveral mines, ſome of which formerly produced great quantities of ſilver and gold. It was on account of the latter that the Spaniards ſettled here; but there is no longer any conſiderable quantity found in it.

In the woods are parrots, wild pigeons, and other fowl. European poultry is found here in plenty, and the coaſt abounds with fiſh. A breed of dogs, which the Spaniards brought over to hunt and tear in pieces the defenceleſs natives, are ſaid to run wild in the woods, and ſubſiſt upon land-crabs that burrow in the ground.

The principal commodities here are ſugar, ginger, hides, cotton, thread, caſſia, maſtic, &c. Their pork is excellent, as is likewiſe the fleſh of their kids, but their mutton is very indifferent. They have good ſhip-timber and fruit-trees, with rice and Indian corn.

This iſland was taken from the Spaniards by Sir Francis Drake. It was afterwards conquered by the Earl of Cumberland, in the reign of Queen Elizabeth; but he was obliged to abandon it, having loſt moſt of his men by ſickneſs in the latter end of the ſummer, when this and all other places in theſe latitudes are very unhealthy.

The Spaniſh government have taken great pains to prevent an illicit trade being carried on at this place; but ſuch is the convenience of its ſituation for that traffic, that all the ſevere edicts iſſued againſt it have been ineffectual.

Porto Rico, the capital town, is ſituated on a ſmall iſland on the north coaſt. This iſland forms a very convenient harbour, and is joined to the chief iſland by a cauſeway. It is defended by forts and batteries, which render the place almoſt inacceſſible. The town is well built, and populous, and the ſeat of a governor, as well as a biſhop's ſee.

The only places worthy of notice in this iſland, excluſive of the capital, are Port del Agnada, where the Flota provide themſelves with water, and other neceſſaries, in their voyage to Old Spain; and Boraba de Infernes, which is remarkable for having an excellent turtle fiſhery.

On the coaſt of Porto Rico is a ſmall place, called Crabs Iſland, from the great number of crabs that are found on it.

TRINIDAD.

THIS iſland lies between the Iſland of Tobago and the Spaniſh Main, from whence it is ſeparated by the Straits of Paria. It is about 90 miles long, and 60 broad; and is an unhealthy climate, though a fruitful ſoil. It was taken by Sir Walter Raleigh in 1595, and by the French in 1676, who plundered it, and extorted money from the inhabitants.

The principal productions of this iſland are ſugar, fine tobacco, indigo, ginger, variety of fruit, ſome cotton trees, and Indian corn.

MARGARITA

LIES 200 miles weſt of Trinidad, is about 40 miles in length, and 24 in breadth, and, being always verdant, affords a moſt agreeable proſpect. It abounds in paſtures, fruits, and Indian corn; but there is a great ſcarcity of wood and water. On the coaſt of this iſland was formerly a pearl fiſhery, but it has been for many years diſcontinued.

IN the South Seas the Spaniards claim the Iſlands of Chiloe, St. Mary, Quiriquina, Moca or Mocha, Juan Fernandez, Tierra, Fuera, and ſeveral others; but Juan Fernandez, Fuera, and Chilo, only deſerve deſcription.

SPANISH ISLANDS IN THE SOUTH SEAS.

JUAN FERNANDEZ.

JUAN Fernandez, and Fuera, or Maſa-Fuero, are diſtant from each other about 31 leagues. They were firſt diſcovered by Juan Fernandez, a Spaniard, from whom they take their name, in 1572. The Spaniards diſtinguiſh them by the Greater and Leſſer Juan Fernandez; but the ſmaller iſland is more generally known by the name of Maſa-Fuero. The Greater Juan Fernandez lies to the eaſtward, in latitude 33 deg. 40 min. ſouth, and longitude 78 deg. 30 min. weſt. It was formerly a place of reſort for the buccaneers, who annoyed the weſtern coaſt of the Spaniſh continent. They were led to reſort hither by the multitude of goats which it nouriſhed; to deprive their enemies of which advantage, the Spaniards tranſported a conſiderable number of dogs here, which, increaſing greatly, have almoſt extirpated the goats, who now only find ſecurity among the ſteep mountains in the northern parts, which are inacceſſible to their purſuers.

There are inſtances of two men living, at different times, alone on this iſland for many years: the one a Muſquito Indian; the other Alexander Selkirk, a Scotchman, who was, after five years, taken on board an Engliſh ſhip, the Duke privateer, from Briſtol, which touched here in about 1710, and brought back to Europe. From the hiſtory of this recluſe, Daniel Defoe is ſaid to have conceived the idea of writing the Adventures of Robinſon Cruſoe. Selkirk was a native of Largo, in the county of Fife, and was bred a ſailor from his youth. The reaſon of his being left on the iſland was a difference between him and his captain. He had his cloaths and bedding with him; alſo a fire-lock, a little powder, ſome bullets and tobacco, a hatchet, a kettle, a knife, a bible, ſome books of practical divinity, and his mathematical inſtruments and books. He built himſelf two huts; one for the purpoſe of reading, ſleeping, and amuſement; the other for dreſſing his victuals. He procured fire by rubbing two ſticks of pimento wood upon his knee. He found here a ſort of cray-fiſh, of exquiſite flavour, and as large as a middling ſized lobſter. Theſe he both broiled and boiled, as he did the goats fleſh, and made very good broth of it. There was abundance of good turnips and cabbages here. When his clothes were worn out, he made himſelf a coat and cap of goats ſkin Having ſome linen cloth by him, he cut out ſome ſhirts, which he ſewed with the worſted of his old ſtockings, pulled out on purpoſe, uſing an old nail to make holes inſtead of a needle; and he had his laſt ſhirt on when he was found.

He had ſo far forgot his native tongue, for want of uſe, that, on his firſt going on board, he could not ſpeak plainly. A dram was offered him, but he would not taſte it, having drank nothing but water for ſo long a time. He was left here by Capt. Straddling, commander of a veſſel called the Cinque Ports, and taken away by Capt. Wood Rogers, who landed at this iſland to procure water.

This iſland was very propitious to the remains of Commodore Anſon's ſquadron in 1741, after having been buffeted with tempeſts, and debilitated by an inveterate ſcurvy, during a three months paſſage round Cape Horn. They continued here three months, during which time the dying crews, who, on their arrival, could ſcarcely, with one united effort, heave the anchor, were reſtored to perfect health.

Capt. Carteret, in the Swallow, in 1767, having met with many difficulties and impediments in his paſſage into the South Sea, by the Straits of Magellan, attempted to make this iſland, in order to recruit the health of his men; but he found it fortified by the Spaniards, and therefore choſe rather to proceed to the Iſland of Maſa-Fuero. But M. de Bourgainville, that ſame year, is ſaid to have touched here for refreſhments although, in

in the narrative of the voyage, the fact is cautiouſly ſuppreſſed.

This iſland is not quite 15 miles long, and about 6 broad. It has only one ſafe harbour, which is on the north ſide. It is ſaid to have plenty of excellent water, and to abound with a great variety of eſculent vegetables, highly antiſcorbutic: beſides which, Commodore Anſon ſowed a variety of garden ſeeds, and planted the ſtones of plumbs, apricots, and peaches, which he was many years afterwards informed had thriven greatly, and now, doubtleſs, furniſh a very valuable addition to the natural productions of this ſpot.

Vaſt ſhoals of fiſh, of various kinds, frequent this coaſt, particularly cod of a prodigious ſize, and, it is ſaid, in not leſs abundance than on the banks of Newfoundland. There are but few birds here, and thoſe are of ſpecies well known and common.

FUERA, OR MASA-FUERO.

COMMODORE BYRON anchored off this iſland in 1765, and ſent out his boats to endeavour to get wood and water; but as the ſhore was rocky, and a ſurf broke with great violence upon it, he ordered the men to put on cork jackets, by the help of which they brought off a conſiderable quantity of both. Here they found plenty of goats, which proved to be as good food as veniſon in England. In this expedition the gunner, and a ſeaman who could not ſwim, went on ſhore with the waterers, and, when the buſineſs was completed, the violence of the ſurf, which beat againſt the ſhore, made them afraid to venture off to the boat: they were, therefore, left behind on the iſland. The next day the commodore ſent out a boat to bring them back. The gunner ſwam through the ſurf, and got on board; but the ſeaman had ſo thorough a preſage of being drowned in the attempt to reach the boat, that, preferring life to ſocial intercourſe, he choſe to remain on the iſland at all events. Having formed this reſolution, he took an affectionate leave of the people in the boat. A midſhipman, however, juſt as they were about to return without him, taking one end of a rope in his hand, jumped into the ſea, and ſwam through the ſurf to the beach, where the poor inſulated deſpondent ſat ruminating on his ſituation. The young man remonſtrated to him on the abſurdity of the reſolution he had formed, and having made a running nooſe in the rope, ſuddenly threw it over the ſailor, and fixing it round his body, the people in the boat began to drag him through the ſurf, and thus brought him on board; but he had ſwallowed ſo great a quantity of water on his paſſage, that he was to all appearance dead; yet proper means being uſed, he ſoon recovered, and was, no doubt, abundantly thankful for the friendly violence that had forced him from the dreary ſolitude which his fears had before courted.

Capt. Carteret deſcribes this iſland to lie in 33 deg. 45 min. ſouth longitude, 80 deg. 46 min. weſt, from Greenwich. It is very high and mountainous, and at a diſtance, appears as one hill or rock. It is of a triangular form, and ſeven or eight leagues in circumference.

Here is ſuch plenty of fiſh, that a boat with a few hooks and lines, may preſently catch as much as will ſerve 100 people. Here are coal-fiſh, cavilliers, cod, hallibut, and cray-fiſh. Capt. Carteret's crew caught a king-fiſher that weighed 87 pounds, and was five feet and a half long. The ſharks here were ſo ravenous, that in taking ſoundings, one of them ſwallowed the lead, by which they hauled him above water; but he regained his liberty by diſgorging his prey. Seals are ſo numerous here, that Capt. Carteret ſays, if many thouſands were killed in a night, they would not be miſſed the next morning. Theſe animals yield excellent train oil; and their hearts and plucks are very good food, having a taſte ſomething like thoſe of a hog. Their ſkins are covered with very fine fur. There are many birds here, and ſome very large hawks. Of the pintado bird the crew of the ſwallow caught 700 in one night.

CHILOE.

CHILOE, a conſiderable iſland, on the coaſt of Chili, lies in ſouth latitude deg. and is above 112 miles long, and 21 broad. The ſouth part of it is divided from the continent by a narrow ſea, and the continent there makes a bay. This coaſt is ſubject to tempeſtuous weather, eſpecially in March, when winter begins. The Spaniards have but one little fort in this iſland, called Chacao, always ill provided with warlike ſtores. Eating wine, this iſland produces all neceſſary refreſhments and proviſions; and a great deal of ambergris is found here. About this iſland are 40 more, all taking name from it.

A late navigator tells us, theſe iſlands of Chiloe are reputed barren; but their ſoil is not really ſo, only the exceſſive rains choak the ſeed, and let no corn thrive, ſo that they are without wheat, wine, or oil, and other plants which need much ſun.

The nature of the climate of this cluſter of iſlands is ſuch, that it rains almoſt all the year; ſo that only maize, or other ſuch grain, can ripen, that want not ſo much ſun. The diet of the natives is moſtly of a root called papahs, which grows bigger here than in any other place. The manufactures are clothing for the Indians, who have a kind of veſt, which they call macun, without ſleeves, over which is a kind of cloak. They have vaſt woods of cedar trees of a prodigious ſize, ſo as hardly to be encompaſſed by a rope ſix yards long. The principal town is called Caſtro.

CHAP. XI.

WEST-INDIA ISLANDS belonging to the FRENCH, DUTCH, and DANES.

SECTION I.

FRENCH WEST-INDIA ISLANDS.

MARTINICO.

THE Iſland of Martinico is ſituated between the 14th and 15th deg. of north lat. and in the 61ſt deg. of weſt longitude. It lies about 40 leagues northweſt of Barbadoes, and is about 60 miles in length, and 30 in breadth.

The climate of Martinico is not eſteemed unwholeſome; though there is a dampneſs in the air which, at times, muſt be diſagreeable. The inland parts are mountainous, and from thence ariſe many rivulets, which, in their courſe towards the ſea, at once adorn and fertilize the country.

The productions of this iſland conſiſt of ſugar, tobacco, cotton, ginger, indigo, aloes, pimento, cocoas, plantains, and other tropical fruits. The coaſts abound with turtles; but the French are not ſo expert in fiſhing for them as the Engliſh.

In the year 1700 the French ſettled upon the iſland of Martinico were computed to be 1500, beſides the negroes whom they employed, and great numbers of Caribbeans, who were re-admitted into the iſland, but were obliged to work as ſlaves, and to live among the French, that they might have no opportunity to form conſpiracies or plots with their countrymen, or to aſſociate together. Before it was ſubdued by the Engliſh in 1759, it contained 10,000 white inhabitants fit to carry arms, and above 40,000 negroes or ſlaves. Beſides this force, ſome companies of regulars were always quartered in the iſland; ſo that nothing but the moſt notorious miſconduct could have rendered the Britiſh troops maſters of it with ſo little loſs as they ſuffered on that occaſion.

Martinico is not only the reſidence of the governor-general and intendant, but likewiſe of a ſovereign council, which ſuperintends all their other iſlands, and even the ſettlements of St. Domingo and Tortuga.

The iſland owes its flouriſhing ſtate to the French government having tranſported thither, by way of puniſhment, great numbers of its Proteſtant ſubjects, ſome of whom voluntarily ſettled there.

The two principal towns in this iſland are Fort Royal and St. Pierre, or St. Peter's. The firſt is the ſeat of government: its ſtreets are regular, the houſes agreeable, and the inhabitants very much given to all kinds of luxury: they are the Pariſians of the Weſt-Indies. To the eaſt of the town, on a neck of land, is an irregular fort, badly built, and worſe deſigned, which gives name to the town it poorly defends. Fort Royal, as well as the reſt of the iſland, fell under the power of the Engliſh in the year 1756, but they reſtored it at the peace of 1763. The French have ſince built a citadel upon Morne Carnier, an eminence higher than the moſt elevated points of Mornes Patate, Tartanſon, and Cartouche, which all command Forte Royal.

The harbour of Fort Royal, where the men of war anchor in winter, is one of the beſt of the Windward Iſlands, and its ſecurity againſt the hurricanes generally acknowledged. It is ſuppoſed that the inner part has been ſpoiled by ſinking the hulks of ſeveral ſhips to make a fence againſt the Engliſh in the war of 1759.

The Fort of St. Pierre, is five leagues to the leeward of Fort Royal, in a round bay of the weſtern coaſt. The town, the firſt built in the iſland, is the place of communication between the colony and mother country. It is the reſidence of merchants, and the center of buſineſs. That part ſituated along the ſea-ſide, on the ſtrand itſelf, called Le Mouillage, (the anchoring-place,) is very unhealthy. The other port, ſeparated from this by a river, is built upon a low hill; and they call it the Fort from a ſmall fortreſs which defends the road. This road is very convenient for loading and unloading the ſhips, and the facility of coming in or going out; but they are obliged in winter time, to take ſhelter at Fort Royal.

The town of St. Pierre ſuffered great damage by a dreadful hurricane which happened in the month of October 1780, in which 200 houſes were blown into the ſea, and great damage was done among the ſhipping that lay in the harbour.

The chief export of Martinico is ſugar, of which vaſt quantities are annually ſhipped for France.

GUADALOUPE.

THIS Iſland is ſituated about 30 leagues north-weſt of Martinico, in 16 deg. north latitude. It is about 45 miles in length, and 38 in breadth, and is divided by a deep gulph or bay, and a channel called the Salt River.

The air of Guadaloupe is preferable to that of Martinico, being more ſalubrious, and leſs ſultry. The ſoil is very fertile. Its products are ſugar, coffee, cotton, baſtard cinnamon, indigo, ginger, and many other vegetables, particularly the capua-tree, from which is extracted a moſt excellent balm; the milk-ſhrub, ſo called from its yielding a ſubſtance like milk, when preſſed, which falls little ſhort of the capua balſam; the moubane-tree, which bears a yellow plumb, with which the natives fatten their hogs; and the corbary-tree, the gum of which, when hardened in the ſun, becomes ſo tranſlucent, that the Caribbeans wear it formed into beads and bracelets.

Many of the mountains with which Guadaloupe abounds, are covered with wood; and nothing can be more verdant, or more beautifully variegated, than the large plains which lie beneath them. One of the mountains emits a continual ſmoak, and communicates a ſulphurous taſte to the neighbouring ſtreams.

The moſt remarkable bird on this iſland is that called the Devil's Bird, which is peculiar to this iſland and Dominica; it is a bird of paſſage, of the ſize of a pullet, and all its plumage coal black: it lives on fiſh, which it catches in the ſea at night, being unable to bear the light in the day-time when flying; ſo that they often run againſt interpoſing objects, and fall down. After their fiſh-hunting in the night, they repair to a mountain called the Devil's Mountain, where they lodge by pairs in holes like rabbits. Their fleſh is good nouriſhing food, though of a fiſhy taſte.

The iſland is peſtered with an inſect called a ravet, ſhaped like a cock-chaffer, of a ſtinking ſmell, which deſtroy both books and furniture; and whatever they do not gnaw is diſcoloured by their ordure: but great numbers of them are deſtroyed by a kind of ſpiders found on the iſland, ſome of which are as big as a man's fiſt. The bees of Guadaloupe are exceeding different from thoſe of Europe, being black, ſmaller, and without ſtings. Theſe bees, inſtead of making combs, lay their honey in bladders of wax, about the form and ſize of a pigeon's egg. The only uſe made of their wax, which is of a dark purple colour, is to ſecure the corks of bottles. The honey is never of a thicker conſiſtence than that of olive oil.

The Cul de Sacs, as the French call them, or gulphs about this iſland, abound with turtle, ſharks, land crabs, and various other fiſhes.

One of the two diviſions of this iſland is called Grande-Terre; and the other is divided into Capes Terre, or Cables Terre, and Baſſee-Terre, which laſt is alſo the name of the capital, a very conſiderable town, ſituated on both ſides of Bailiff River, and well fortified.

This iſland, as well as Martinico, was reduced by the Britiſh arms in the year 1759, but reſtored by the definitive treaty of peace in 1763. The French firſt began to ſend colonies to it about the year 1632.

ST. LUCIA.

THIS iſland, which is ſituated in 14 deg. north latitude, was firſt ſettled on by the Engliſh in 1637, who were much annoyed by the natives and the French. At length it was agreed between the latter and the Engliſh, that St. Lucia, with Dominica and St. Vincent, ſhould remain neutral. By the definitive treaty of 1763, it was ceded to France. St. Lucia lies two miles ſouth of Martinico, and is about 23 miles in length, and 12 in breadth. It is one of the fineſt and moſt convenient of any of the Caribbee Iſlands, being diverſified with hills and vallies, well watered, and furniſhed with excellent harbours. The land is rich, but a great part of it is covered with woods, which abound in wild fowl, and yield great quantities of excellent timber. The neighbouring ſea is well ſtored with fiſh.

St. Lucia ſuſtained conſiderable damage by a dreadful hurricane which happened in the month of October, 1780. Great numbers of houſes were levelled with the ground; and the ſhips in the harbour being driven out to ſea, many were loſt.

This iſland was taken by the Engliſh forces in 1778, but reſtored to the French by the treaty of peace in 1783.

MARAGALANTE.

MARAGALANTE..

THIS iſland, which is ſituated to the ſouth-eaſt of Guadaloupe, is about 15 miles in length, and 12 in breadth. It was diſcovered by Columbus in 1493, and named by him Marigalante, or the Gallant Mary, after the name of his ſhip. It abounds with tobacco, cinnamon-trees, and other productions of the Caribbee Iſlands; and contains a great many grottos, where large crabs are found; as alſo ſeveral rivers, and ponds of freſh water. Along the eaſtern ſhore run high perpendicular rocks, which give ſhelter to vaſt numbers of tropical birds, as they are full of holes like a pidgeon-houſe.

TOBAGO.

THE Iſland of Tobago lies 40 leagues ſouth by weſt from Barbadoes, about 35 ſouth-eaſt from St. Vincent, 40 eaſt from Grenada, and between 30 and 40 from the Spaniſh Main. It is 32 miles in length, about 9 in breadth, and 70 in circumference; ſo that it is rather larger than Barbadoes, or, indeed, any of our Leeward Iſlands; and near the north-weſt extremity lies a ſmall iſland called Little Tobago, which is two miles in length, and one in breadth.

The climate is far more temperate than could be expected in an iſland that is but 11 deg. 10 min. north from the equator, for the force of the ſun is diminiſhed by the ſea breezes. The ſpice and gum trees, with which it abounds, contribute to its ſalubrity. Tobago has another favourable circumſtance to recommend it, namely, its lying out of the track of thoſe hurricanes that often prove ſo fatal to the other Weſt India Iſlands. The north-weſt extremity is mountainous, but the reſt of the iſland agreeably diverſified with riſings and fallings. The ſoil, in general, is a rich black mould, proper for producing, in the greateſt plenty, whatever is raiſed in other parts of the Weſt Indies. There are many ſprings, together with commodious bays and creeks. But the valuable trees which grow here, are, perhaps, its greateſt riches; for, beſides the different kinds of wood that are found in the other Weſt India Iſlands, it is ſaid, that the true nutmeg-tree, and the cinnamon tree, with that which produces the real gum-copal, are found on this iſland. The fig-trees of Tobago are reckoned equal to thoſe of Spain and Portugal. Indian and Guinea corn, French beans, various kinds of peas, the coſhou-apple, that is both meat and drink, and yields an excellent lamp-oil; the prickle-apple, banana, pomegranate, pine-apple, ſweet and bitter orange, lemons, ſugar, tobacco, indigo, ginger, ſarſaparilla, ſemper vivum, citrons, vanellos, limes, guavas, plaintains, tamarinds, grapes, cuſtard-apple, ſour-apple, papaw-apple, mammea-apple, yellow plum, cherries; the cocoa-tree, that yields both meat, drink, and clothing; muſk, cucumbers, water-melons, pumkins, gourds, potatoes, yams, carrots, turnips, parſnips, onions, caſſada-root, natural balſam, ſilk-graſs, with five different ſorts of pepper, the long, the cod, the bell, the round, and the Jamaica are alſo produced on this iſland.

Here are wild hogs, pickarees, which reſemble a hog; armadillioes; guanoes, which are of the alligator kind; Indian conies, badgers, horſes, cows, aſſes, ſheep, deer, goats, and rabbits. No iſland in the world, we are told, can boaſt ſuch a variety of fiſhes, both ſhell and others, particularly turtle and mullets, of a moſt delicious taſte. Of the feathered ſpecies there is alſo a great variety. Laſtly, in different parts of the iſland are found green tar, ſoap earth, with many curious ſhells, ſtones, marcaſines, and minerals.

The value and importance of this iſland appears from the expenſive and formidable ornaments which have been ſent thither by European powers in ſupport of their different claims. It was heretofore chiefly poſſeſſed by the Dutch, who defended their pretenſions againſt both England and France with the moſt obſtinate perſeverance. By the treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle, in 1748, it was declared neutral; but by the treaty of peace in 1673, it was yielded up to Great Britain. In June, 1781, it was taken by the French, and ceded to them by the treaty of 1783.

ST. MARTIN, ST. BARTHOLOMEW, AND DESEADA ISLANDS.

THESE are three of the inconſiderable iſlands the French poſſeſs in thoſe parts. St. Martin's is of no conſequence whatever. St. Bartholomew produces ſome tobacco, alſo excellent woods and lime-ſtones. Deſeada, which is a corruption of the word Deſiderada, or the Deſirable Iſland, was ſo called by Columbus, being the firſt land he diſcovered in his ſecond voyage to America. It produces very good cotton.

SECTION. II.

DUTCH WEST-INDIA ISLANDS.

ST. EUSTATIA.

THE Iſland of St. Euſtatia is ſituated about three leagues north-weſt of St. Chriſtopher's, is about 29 miles in circumference, and well cultivated. Beſides tobacco, the inhabitants have of late years raiſed and exported great quantities of ſugar. They alſo breed hogs, rabbits, goats, and moſt ſorts of poultry. The air is wholeſome, but it is ſubject to terrible thunder-claps, earthquakes, and hurricanes; and there is a ſcarcity of freſh water. Before a hurricane, it is ſaid, the birds lay themſelves flat on the ground; and the rain that precedes it is always ſalt and bitter.

St. Euſtatia is reckoned the ſtrongeſt of all the Caribbee Iſlands, there being but one landing-place, which is commanded by a fort, and may be eaſily defended by a few men. The Dutch took poſſeſſion of it in 1635; and, ſince the treaty of Ryſwick, preſerved it till February, 1781, when it was taken from them by the Britiſh forces, under Admiral Rodney and General Vaughan: but in November following it was retaken by the French.

This iſland ſuſtained conſiderable damage by a dreadful hurricane which happened in the month of October, 1780. Great numbers of warehouſes were blown down, and moſt of the goods deſtroyed, the whole loſs of which was eſtimated at 150,000l.

CURASSAO, OR CURACOA,

IS ſituated about 10 leagues from the coaſt of Terra-Firma, in 12 deg. 14 min. north latitude. It is about 30 miles in length, and 10 in breadth. The climate is neither wholeſome or agreeable, nor the ſoil fruitful; yet the iſland is populous, and the induſtry of the inhabitants ſuch, that it produces a great deal of ſugar and tobacco. It is well ſupplied with proviſions, and all other commodities from Europe, and the other Dutch ſettlements, in which it carries on a very lucrative and extenſive contraband trade with the Spaniards in Terra-Firma. Let the Spaniſh governors prohibit this trade ever ſo ſeverely, the Spaniards ſtand ſo much in need of European commodities, that they will run all hazards to obtain them. The chief town and harbour is about three leagues from the ſouth-eaſt end of the iſland. The town, for its ſize, is one of the faireſt and fineſt in America, and contains every thing neceſſary to render it commodious and agreeable, as far as the climate and ſoil will permit.

Here are three other ſmaller iſlands belonging to the Dutch, namely, Saba, Bonaire, and Aruba.

Saba is a very pleaſant iſland, ſituated about 13 miles north-weſt of Euſtatia. The ſea is ſo ſhallow about it, that none but ſloops can come near it; nor even thoſe, but at a ſmall creek, on the ſouth ſide of the iſland.

iſland Moſt of the inhabitants are ſaid to be ſhoemakers, or dealers in ſhoes. There is a delightful valley in the iſland, which produces neceſſaries for the inhabitants, with ſome indigo and cotton.

Saba, and an iſland called St. Martin's, were both captured by Admiral Rodney and General Vaughan at the time of the ſurrender of St. Euſtatia; but were afterwards re-taken by the French.

Bonaire and Aruba are chiefly conſiderable (which is alſo the caſe with Curaſſao) for their ſituation near the coaſt of Terra-Firma, which gives the inhabitants an opportunity of carrying on a clandeſtine trade with the Spaniſh ſettlements in Terra-Firma.

On the ſouth ſide of Bonaire is a good ſalt-pond, whither the Dutch ſloops come for ſalt, which is become a conſiderable commodity.

SECTION III.

DANISH WEST-INDIA ISLANDS.

ST. THOMAS.

THE iſland of St. Thomas is ſituated to the eaſt of Porto-Rico, and is the chief of thoſe called The Virgin Iſlands. It is about 15 miles in circumference, and has a ſafe and commodious harbour, which by being open to traders of all nations, enriches the inhabitants. Its ſoil is, in general, very ſandy, notwithſtanding which it produces moſt of the Weſt-Indian commodities; but it is greatly infeſted with muſquetos.

The principal advantage of this iſland conſiſts in a very good harbour on the ſouth ſide, where 50 ſhips may lie in ſafety. It is is defended by a fort, whoſe batteries at the ſame time protect the ſmall town built round the ſhore. This harbour is much frequented by merchant ſhips: when they are chaſed, in time of war, they find here a ſafe protection; and, in time of peace, a vent for their goods, by the clandeſtine trade which the boats of St. Thomas continually carry on with the Spaniſh coaſts.

Two leagues to the ſouth of St. Thomas is another iſland, about the ſame ſize, called St. John's. It is the beſt watered among the Virgins, and its harbour has not only the reputation of being better than that of St. Thomas, but paſſes alſo for the beſt to the leeward of Antigua. The Engliſh give it the name of "Crawl Bay." But notwithſtanding theſe advantages, there is ſo little good land in the iſland, that its planting and exportations form only a very trifling object.

St. CROIX, or SANTA CRUZ.

IS the moſt conſiderable of the Weſt-India iſlands belonging to Denmark It is ſituated out of the group of the Virgins, five leagues to the ſouth of St. John's, being about 30 miles in length, and ten in breadth. It is tolerably fertile, producing moſt of the neceſſaries of life, together with oranges, citrons, granates, lemons, the manioc root, and the papan tree, the fruit of which makes a moſt excellent ſweet-meat. Here is alſo a variety of dying and other woods proper for houſe and ſhip-building.

The greateſt parr of the inhabitants of Santa Cruz conſiſts of Engliſh and Iriſh catholics, and German Moravians: there is a ſmall number of Danes.

PORTUGUESE ISLANDS in AMERICA.

ON the coaſt of Brazil are three iſlands belonging to the Portugueſe, viz. Fernando de Norona, St. Barbara, and St. Catharine's.

Fernando de Norona lies in 3 deg. 50 min. ſouth latitude. It is but ſmall, and in a few places only ſuſceptible of tillage, owing to a want of moiſture, for through ſcarcity of water, the iſland is, in general, barren. There are only three ſmall brooks in the inland parts. Fernando de Norona has two harbours capable of receiving ſhips of burthen. Here are two forts built of ſtone, ſpacious, and well provided with artillery.

The inhabitants conſiſt principally of the troops from Brazil ſent thither by way of defence, a few poor families, and ſome Indians. There are ſome cattle on the iſland. Great plenty of fiſh are taken in the harbours, and turtles abound in the ſeaſon, which is from December to April. The French made a ſettlement on this iſland in 1738, but were forced to retire by the Portugueſe, who then ſent a colony over, and erected the forts already mentioned.

St. Barbara is ſituated in 18 deg. 6 min. ſouth latitude. It is ſmall, fertile, but thinly inhabited, and having no capacious harbour, is very little frequented.

The iſland of St. Catharine lies in latitude 27 deg. 45 min. ſouth. The ſoil is fertile, producing divers kinds of fruits ſpontaneouſly The woods are very fragrant from the aromatic trees and ſhrubs with which they abound. Here is a ſpecies of black cattle reſembling buffaloes; alſo monkies, parrots, and pheaſants. The harbours and bays are ſtored with fiſh. The water is good, and found in various parts of the iſland; but the air is far from being ſalutary, as the country is overſpread with a vapour all the night, and a great part of the morning, which continues till the ſun gains ſtrength to diſſipate it, or it is diſperſed by a briſk ſea-breeze.

NEW DISCOVERIES.

TERRA DEL FUEGO.

Arrival. Firſt interview with the natives. Their manner of behaviour. Incidents on aſcending a mountain in queſt of plants. Second interview with the natives. Deſcription of their perſons, dreſs, extraordinary decorations, food, habitations, furniture, weapons, canoes, animals, birds, fiſh, inſects, plants, government, religion, &c. Deſcription of ſome parts of Terra del Fuego viſited by Captain Cook *on his ſecond voyage.*

FOR the moſt accurate deſcription of the iſland of Terra del Fuego, or the Land of Fires, (ſo called from a volcano which emits flames viſible at a great diſtance) we have recurred to the account of our celebrated navigator *Captain Cook*, as moſt particular, authentic and entertaining.

When *Captain Cook*, upon his firſt voyage, fell in with Terra del Fuego, about 21 leagues to the weſtward of the Strait of Le Maire, trees were plainly to be diſtinguiſhed by the aſſiſtance of the glaſſes. As our people came nearer the land, they diſcovered, in ſome ſpots, patches of ſnow on the ſide of the hills, and the ſea coaſts appeared to be covered with a beautiful verdure. The hills are lofty, and the ſummits of them quite naked. The ſoil in the vallies is rich, and of a conſiderable depth. At the foot of every hill is a brook, the water of which has a reddiſh hue, but is by no means ill taſted. *Captain Cook* ſays, that it proved, upon the whole, the beſt that was taken in during the voyage.

They ranged the coaſt to the Strait, and had ſoundings all the way from 40 to 20 fathoms, upon a gravelly and ſandy bottom.

The moſt remarkable lands on Terra del Fuego are, an hill in the form of a ſugar loaf, which ſtands on the weſt ſide not far from the ſea, and the three hills called the Three Brothers, about nine miles to the weſtward of Cape St. Diego, the low point that forms the north entrance of the Strait of La Maire.

The iſland of Terra del Fuego lies between 53 and 55 degrees ſouth latitude.

When the ſhip was brought to anchor in the Bay of Good Succeſs, *Captain Cook* went on ſhore, accompanied by Mr. Banks and Dr. Solander, to look for a watering place, and confer with the Indians, ſeveral of whom had come in ſight. They landed on the ſtarboard ſide of the bay, near ſome rocks, which made ſmooth water and good landing; thirty or forty of the Indians ſoon made their appearance at the end of a ſandy beach, on the other ſide of the bay, but ſeeing the number of our people, which was ten or twelve, they retreated. Mr. Banks and Dr. Solander then advanced about 100 yards before the reſt, upon which two of the Indians returned, and having advanced ſome paces towards them, ſat down: as ſoon as they came up, the Indians roſe; and each of them having a ſmall ſtick in his hand, threw it away in a direction both from themſelves and the ſtrangers, which was conſidered as the renunciation of weapons, in token of peace. They then walked briſkly towards their companions, who had halted at about fifty yards behind them, and beckoned the gentlemen to follow, which they did. They were received with many uncouth ſigns of friendſhip, and in return they diſtributed among them ſome beads and ribbons, which had been brought on ſhore for that purpoſe, and with which they were greatly delighted.

A mutual confidence and good-will being thus effected, the parties joined, and the converſation, ſuch as it was, became general, and three of them accompanied our people back to the ſhip. When they came on board, one of them (ſuppoſed to be a prieſt) performed much the ſame ceremonies as are deſcribed by Monſ. Bougainville, which he is of opinion were of a religious nature. When this perſon was introduced into a new part of the ſhip, or when any thing he had not ſeen before caught his attention, he ſhouted with all his force for ſome minutes, without directing his voice either to our people or his companions. They eat ſome bread and beef, but not apparently with much pleaſure, though ſuch part of what was given them as they did not eat, they took away with them; but they would not ſwallow a drop of either wine or ſpirits: they put the glaſs to their lips, but having taſted the liquor, they returned it with very ſtrong expreſſions of diſguſt.

They appeared to have very little of the paſſion of curioſity, as they went from one part of the ſhip to another, and looked at the great variety of new objects that every moment preſented themſelves, without any expreſſion of wonder or pleaſure; for the vociferations of the ſuppoſed prieſt ſeemed to be neither.

The natives, after having been on board two hours, expreſſed a deſire to go on ſhore. Mr. Banks accompanied them, landed them in ſafety, and conducted them to their companions, among whom he remarked the ſame vacant indifference as in thoſe who had been on board; for as on one ſide there appeared no eagerneſs to relate, ſo on the other there ſeemed to be no curioſity to hear, how they had been received, or what they had ſeen. When Mr. Banks, Dr. Solander, and other gentlemen, with their attendants and ſervants, ſet out from the ſhip, with a few of the men, to penetrate as far as they could into the country, and return at night, the hills, when viewed at a diſtance, ſeemed to be partly a wood, partly a plain, and above them a bare rock. Mr. Banks hoped to get through the wood, and made no doubt but that beyond it he ſhould, in a country which no botaniſt had ever yet viſited, find plants which would abundantly compenſate his labour.

They entered the wood at a ſmall ſandy beach, a little to the weſtward of the watering place, and continued to aſcend the hill through the pathleſs wilderneſs for ſeveral hours, before they had a near view of the places they intended to viſit. Soon after they reached what they had taken for a plain; but to their great diſappointment they found it a ſwamp covered with low buſhes of birch, and ſo interwoven and ſtubborn, that it was neceſſary to lift the leg over them, which at every ſtep was buried ancle deep in the ſoil. To aggravate the pain and difficulty of ſuch travelling, the weather, which hitherto had been very fine, much like one of our bright days in May, became gloomy and cold, with ſudden blaſts of a moſt piercing wind, accompanied with ſnow. They puſhed forward, however, in good ſpirits, notwithſtanding their fatigue; but when they had got about two thirds over this woody ſwamp, Mr. Buchan, one of Mr. Banks's draughtſmen, was unhappily ſeized with a fit. This made it neceſſary for the whole company to halt, and, as it was impoſſible he ſhould go any farther, a fire was kindled, and thoſe who were moſt fatigued were left behind to take care of him. Mr. Banks and the other gentlemen went on, and in a ſhort time reached the ſummit. As botaniſts, they were abundantly gratified by finding a variety of plants, which, with reſpect to the Alpine plants in Europe, are exactly what thoſe plants are, with reſpect to ſuch as grow in the plain.

The cold was now become more ſevere, and the ſnow blaſts more frequent; the day alſo was ſo far ſpent, that it was found impoſſible to get back to the ſhip before the next morning. To paſs the night on ſuch a mountain, in ſuch a climate, was not only comfortleſs, but dreadful: it could not, however, be avoided, and they were to provide for it as well as poſſible.

While they were gathering the plants two of the company went back to the draughtſman and the people that were with him, with directions to bring them to an hill, which it was thought lay in a better rout for returning to the wood, and which was therefore appointed as a general rendezvous.

Their whole company aſſembled at this rendezvous, and, though pinched with the cold, were in health and ſpirits. The draughtſman himſelf had recovered his ſtrength in a much greater degree than could have been expected. Though now near eight o'clock in the morning, it was ſtill day-light, and they ſet forward for the neareſt valley, Mr. Banks himſelf undertaking to bring up the rear, and ſee that no ſtraggler was left behind; a caution that ſoon appeared to be of the utmoſt importance.

Dr. Solander, who had more than once croſſed the mountains which divide Sweden from Norway, well knew that extreme cold produces a ſleepineſs that is almoſt irreſiſtible, and therefore conjured the company to keep moving, however painful it might be. His words were, "Whoever ſits down will ſleep, and whoever ſleeps will wake no more." Though thus admoniſhed, the cold became ſuddenly ſo intenſe as to produce the effects moſt dreaded. Dr. Solander himſelf was the firſt who found the inclination, againſt which he had warned others as irreſiſtible, and inſiſted upon being ſuffered to lie down. Mr. Banks in vain remonſtrated; he lay down upon the ground, though it was covered with ſnow, and it was with great difficulty his friend could keep him from ſleeping. Richmond alſo, one of the black ſervants, began to linger, having ſuffered from the cold in the ſame manner. Mr. Banks, therefore, ſent five of the company, among whom was Mr. Buchan, forward to prepare a fire at the firſt convenient place; while himſelf, with four others, remained with the Doctor and Richmond, whom partly by perſuaſion and entreaty, and partly by force, they brought on, but when they had got through the greateſt part of the birch and ſwamp, they both declared they could go no farther. Mr. Banks again entreated and expoſtulated, but without effect. When Richmond was told, that if he did not go on he would be frozen to death in a ſhort time, he anſwered, that he deſired nothing but to lie down and die. Doctor Solander did not ſo explicitly renounce his life: he ſaid he was willing to go on, but that he muſt firſt take ſome ſleep, notwithſtanding his former declaration that whoever ſlept would wake no more.

As it was impoſſible to carry them, and there was no remedy, they were both ſuffered to ſit down on the ground,

ground, and, in a few minutes, they fell into a profound ſleep.

Soon after ſome of thoſe who had been ſent forward returned with the welcome news, that a fire was kindled about a quarter of a mile farther on. Mr. Banks then happily awakened Dr. Solander, who, though he had not ſlept five minutes, had almoſt loſt the uſe of his limbs; and the muſcles were ſo ſhrunk, that his ſhoes fell from his feet. He conſented to go forward with ſuch aſſiſtance as could be given him: but all attempts to relieve poor Richmond were ineffectual. Mr. Banks, therefore, left his other black ſervant, and a ſeaman who ſeemed to have ſuffered leaſt from the cold, to look after him, promiſing that as ſoon as two others ſhould be ſufficiently warmed, they ſhould be relieved. Mr. Banks, with great difficulty, got the Doctor to the fire; and ſoon after ſent two of the people who had been refreſhed, hoping that, with the aſſiſtance of thoſe who had been left behind, they would be able to bring Richmond, though it might ſtill be impoſſible to awake him.

In about half an hour they had the mortification to ſee the two men return alone. They informed them, that, after the moſt minute ſearch, they could neither find Richmond, or thoſe who had been left with him; and that though they had repeatedly ſhouted, no voice had replied. As Mr. Banks was expreſſing his ſurprize at this circumſtance, he miſſed a bottle of rum, the company's whole ſtock, which they concluded to be in the knapſack of one of the abſentees. It was ſuppoſed that by means of this, Richmond had been rouſed by the two men that had been left with them, and that having drank too freely of it themſelves, they had all rambled from the place where they had been left, in ſearch of the fire, inſtead of waiting for guides and aſſiſtants.

Another fall of ſnow came on, and continued inceſſantly for two hours; ſo that all hope of ſeeing them again, at leaſt alive, was given up: but in ſome time, to the general joy of the company at the fire, a ſhouting was heard at a diſtance. Mr. Banks, with four others, immediately went out, and found the ſeaman with juſt ſtrength enough left to ſtagger along, and call for aſſiſtance. Mr. Banks having ſent him immediately to the fire, proceeded, by his directions, in ſearch of the other two, whom he ſoon after found. Richmond was upon his legs, but not able to put one foot before the other. His companion was lying upon the ground, as ſenſeleſs as a ſtone.

The whole company was now called from the fire, and an united attempt was made to carry them to it, but without effect. The night was extremely dark, the ſnow very deep; ſo that finding it very difficult to make way through the buſhes and bogs themſelves (all getting many falls in the attempt) the only alternative was to make a fire on the ſpot, but the ſnow that had fallen, and was ſtill falling, beſides what was momentarily ſhaken in flakes from the trees, rendered it equally impracticable to kindle one there, or to bring any part of that which had been kindled in the wood thither. They were reduced to the melancholy neceſſity of leaving the unhappy wretches to their fate, having previouſly made them a bed of boughs from the trees, and ſpread a covering of the ſame kind over them to a conſiderable height.

After ſuffering the rigour of the cold and ſnow near an hour and a half, ſome of the reſt began to loſe their feeling; and Briſcoe, another of Mr. Banks's ſervants, was ſo ill, that it was apprehended he muſt die before he could get to the fire. However, at length they reached the fire, and paſſed the night in a ſituation dreadful in itſelf, and rendered more ſo by the remembrance of paſt ſeverities, and the uncertainty of what was to come.

They were twelve in number who had ſet out in health and ſpirits. Of theſe two were ſuppoſed to be already dead; a third was ſo bad, that it was doubtful whether he would be able to proceed in the morning; and a fourth (Mr. Buchan) was in danger of the return of his fits, from freſh fatigues after ſo uncomfortable a night. They were a long day's journey diſtant from the ſhip, through pathleſs woods, in which they might be bewildered till overtaken by the enſuing night; and not having prepared for a journey of more than eight or ten hours, their whole ſtock of remaining proviſion was a vulture, which they happened to ſhoot when they were out, and which, if equally divided, would not afford each of them half a meal; and they knew not how much more they might ſuffer from the cold, as the ſnow ſtill continued to fall; a dreadful proof of the rigour of the climate, as it was now the midſt of ſummer in this part of the world; and every thing might be dreaded from a phœnomenon, which, in the correſponding ſeaſon, is unknown even in Norway and Lapland.

The only object viſible at day-break was ſnow, which ſeemed to be as thick upon the trees as upon the ground; and the blaſts returned ſo frequently, and with ſuch violence, that they found it impoſſible for them to ſet out. They knew not how long this might laſt, and had but too much reaſon to apprehend, that it would confine them in that deſolate foreſt till they periſhed with hunger and cold.

A dawn of hope ſucceeded theſe terrific apprehenſions; for, about ſix o'clock in the morning, they diſcovered the place of the ſun, through the clouds, which were become thinner, and began to break way. Their firſt care was to know whether the poor wretches they had been obliged to leave among the buſhes were yet living: for this purpoſe they diſpatched three of the company, who ſoon after returned with the melancholy news of their death.

Favourable as appearances had been, the ſnow continued to fall ſo thick, as to prevent their ſetting out for the ſhip. But about eight o'clock a ſmall regular breeze ſprang up, which, with the prevailing influence of the ſun, at length cleared the air, and, to their great joy, they ſoon after ſaw the ſnow fall in large flakes from the trees; a certain ſign of an approaching thaw.

It was now deemed expedient to examine more minutely into the ſtate of their invalids. Briſcoe, though he remained very bad, ſaid he thought himſelf able to walk; and Mr. Buchan was much better than there was reaſon to expect. They were now, however, preſſed by the calls of hunger, to which every other conſideration muſt give way. They therefore came to an unanimous reſolution, before they ſet forward, to eat their vulture, which was accordingly ſkinned; and it being thought beſt to divide it before it was fit to be eaten, it was cut into ten portions, and every man cooked his own as he thought proper.

After this ſlender meal, which furniſhed about three mouthfuls each, they prepared to ſet out; but it was ten o'clock before the ſnow was ſo far diſſolved as to render their progreſs practicable. Having proceeded about three hours, they were moſt agreeably ſurprized to find themſelves upon the beach, and much nearer the ſhip than they had reaſon to expect. Upon reviewing their track from the veſſel, they perceived that, inſtead of aſcending the hill in a line, ſo as to penetrate into the country, they had made almoſt a circle round it. On their arrival on board, they congratulated each other, and were congratulated by the crew in general, with an extaſy of joy that can only be conceived by ſuch as have been expoſed to equal danger; and *Captain Cook*, to the honour of his humanity, obſerves, that, as he ſuffered the greateſt anxiety from their not returning in the evening of the day on which they ſet out, he participated in no ſmall degree of the general joy.

The next time that Mr. Banks and Dr. Solander went on ſhore, they landed in the bottom of the bay; and while the ſeamen were employed in cutting brooms, they purſued their great object, the improvement of natural knowledge, and had great ſucceſs in the collection of ſhells and plants hitherto unknown. They afterwards viſited an Indian town. When they got within a ſmall diſtance, two of the people came out to meet them,

them, with ſuch ſtate as they could aſſume. On joining them, they began to hollow as they did on board the ſhip, without addreſſing themſelves either to the ſtrangers or their companions; and having continued this ſtrange vociferation for ſome time, conducted them to the town, which was ſituated on a ſmall hill.

The natives were, in appearance, an ugly, half ſtarved, beardleſs race. Their colour reſembled that of the ruſt of iron, mixed with oil. They have long black hair. The men are diſproportioned in their form. Their ſtature is from five feet eight, to five feet ten. The women are conſiderably leſs. Both ſexes have, in general, horrid and dejected aſpects. Their language is, in general, guttural, and they expreſs ſome of their words by a ſound exactly reſembling that which we make to clear the throat, when any thing happens to obſtruct it. Their cloathing conſiſts of the ſkins of the guanicoe, or ſeal, thrown over their ſhoulders, exactly in the ſame ſtate in which it comes from the animal. A piece of the ſame ſkin is drawn over their feet, and gathered about the ankles like a purſe; and two or three ſkins ſewed together, ſo as to make a cloak, which reaches to their knees: but the major part have only one ſkin, hardly large enough to cover their ſhoulders; and the lower parts are quite naked. The women have a ſmall flap, as a ſuccedaneum for a fig-leaf. Their dreſs, in no other reſpect, differs from that of the men. The children go entirely naked, and are thus inured in their infancy to cold and hardſhips. But although they are content to be naked, they are very ambitious to be fine. Their faces are painted in various forms: the region of the eye was, in general, white; and the reſt of the face adorned with horizontal ſtreaks of red and black; yet ſcarcely any two were exactly alike. This decoration ſeems to be more profuſe and elaborate upon particular occaſions; for the two natives who introduced Mr. Banks and Dr. Solander into the town, were almoſt covered with ſtreaks of black, in all directions, ſo as to make a very ſtriking appearance. Both ſexes wear bracelets of ſuch beads as they can make themſelves of ſmall ſhells or bones. The women have them both upon their wriſts and ancles; the men upon their wriſts only; but to compenſate for the want of bracelets upon their legs, they wear a kind of fillet of brown worſted about their heads. They ſet a particular value upon any thing that is red, and prefer beads even to a knife or hatchet.

Their chief food is ſhell-fiſh and ſeals. The former are collected by the women, whoſe buſineſs it is to attend at low water, with a baſket in one hand, a ſtick pointed and barbed in the other, and a ſatchel at their backs. They looſen the limpets, and other fiſh, that adhere to the rocks, with the ſtick, and put them into the baſket, which, when full, they empty into the ſatchel. The muſcles are of a very fine flavour. When they cannot procure a ſufficient ſupply of theſe, and the other ſhell-fiſh, neceſſity urges them to ſeek other reſources; but as, from their want of ingenuity, they have ſo few implements, and thoſe ſo badly conſtructed for the purpoſes of catching and deſtroying animals, they are frequently reduced to the utmoſt diſtreſs.

Their habitations are of the moſt rude and artificial ſtructure, conſiſting of nothing more than a few poles, ſet up ſo as to incline towards each other, and meet at the top, forming a kind of cone, which reſembles ſome of our bee-hives. On the weather ſide they are covered with a few boughs, and a little graſs; and on the lee ſide, about one eighth of the circle is left open, both for a door and a fire-place. Of this kind were huts ſeen in a contiguous place called St. Vincent's Bay, in one of which the embers of a fire were ſtill remaining.

The furniture ſeen was, if it may be ſo called, a little graſs, which lay within-ſide of a hovel, and ſerved for chairs and beds. And of all the utenſils and implements, which neceſſity, or ingenuity, have concurred to produce amongſt other ſavage nations, here were only ſeen a baſket to carry in the hand, a ſatchel to hang at the back, and the bladder of ſome beaſt to hold water, which the natives drink through a hole that is made near the top for that purpoſe.

Their weapons conſiſt of a bow and arrow. Their bows are indifferently formed, but the arrows are extremely neat, being made of wood, and poliſhed to the higheſt degree. The point, which is of glaſs or flint, and barbed, is formed and fitted with wonderful dexterity. Some pieces of glaſs and flint, unwrought, were ſeen among them; beſides rings, buttons, cloth, and canvas, with other European commodities. It was thence inferred, that they muſt ſometimes travel to the northward, as it was many years ſince any ſhip had been ſo far ſouth as this part of Terra del Fuego. Our people obſerved that they ſhewed no ſurprize at their fire-arms, with the uſe of which they appeared to be well acquainted; for they made ſigns to Mr. Banks to ſhoot a ſeal, which followed the boat as they were going on ſhore from the ſhip. They have likewiſe darts, or rather harpoons, made of bone, and fitted to a ſtaff, with which they kill ſeals, whales, and other fiſh.

Their canoes were made of bark, and in each was a fire, over which the poor frozen creatures huddled themſelves together. *Captain Cook* obſerves, that he could not ſuppoſe they carried a fire in their canoes for this purpoſe only, but rather that it may be always ready to remove on ſhore wherever they land; as, let their method of obtaining a fire be what it may, they could not always be ſure of finding fuel that would kindle from a ſpark. They likewiſe carried in their canoes large ſeal hides, which *Captain Cook* judged was to ſhelter them when at ſea, to ſerve as coverings to their huts on ſhore, and to be uſed occaſionally as tails.

No quadrupeds were ſeen in this country, but ſea-lions, ſeals, and dogs. It was deemed remarkable that theſe dogs barked, which thoſe that are originally bred in America do not. This is adduced as a further proof that the people ſeen here by our voyagers, either immediately, or remotely, communicated with the Europeans. When Mr. Banks aſcended the higheſt hill, in his expedition through the woods, he ſaw the foot-ſteps of a large beaſt imprinted upon the ſurface of a bog, though he could not, with any probability gueſs of what kind it might be.

The wild fowl are ſea-pies, ſhags, hawks, vultures, ducks, geeſe, and a large bird called the Port Egmont hen. There were ducks called by our people race-horſes, on account of the great ſwiftneſs with which they run on the water; for they cannot fly, the wings being too ſhort to ſupport the body in the air. The geeſe here are much ſmaller than thoſe of England, but in flavour equally agreeable. They have ſhort black bills, and yellow feet. The gander is quite white; the female is ſpotted black and white, or grey, with a large ſpot on each wing. Here are ſeveral other aquatic birds, and ſome land ones, but not many of the latter.

Scarce any fiſh were ſeen, nor could our people catch any with their hooks that were fit to eat. The ſhell-fiſh were limpets, clams, and muſcles, and were found in abundance.

Among the inſects, which were not numerous, there were neither gnat or muſketo, nor any other ſpecies that was either hurtful or troubleſome, which in an uncleared country, was deemed extraordinary. During the ſnow blaſts (which happened every day while our people were here) they hide themſelves; and the moment it is fair weather appear again, as nimble and vigorous as the warmeſt weather could make them.

The labour of the botaniſts was amply rewarded; for they found a vaſt variety of plants, the far greater part of which were wholly different from any they had ſeen or heard of before, but cannot be enumerated here. One was found particularly beneficial: this was the wild celery, as it contained antiſcorbutic qualities, which may be of great benefit to the crews of ſuch ſhips as may hereafter viſit this place. *Captain Cook* ordered large quantities of this plant to be put into the ſeamens ſoup, which, thus medicated, produced the ſame ſalutary effects, which ſeamen generally derive from vegetable diet,

diet, after having been long confined to the uſe of ſalt proviſions.

The tree which produces the winter's bark is known by its broad leaf, ſhaped like the laurel, of a light green colour without, and inclining to blue within. The bark is eaſily ſtripped with a bone or ſtick, and its virtues are well known. It may be uſed for culinary purpoſes as a ſpice.

There is alſo a ſpecies of birch tree, the ſtem of which is from 30 to 40 feet high, and from two to three feet in diameter; ſo that in caſe of neceſſity they would ſupply a ſhip with topmaſts. They are a light white wood, bear a ſmall leaf, and cleave very ſtrait.

Cranberries grow here on a buſhy plant, and have a bitteriſh taſte, rather inſipid, but may be eaten either raw or in tarts. They are ſometimes eaten by the natives.

The natives do not appear to have among them any government or ſubordination: no one is more reſpected than another, yet they ſeem to live together in the utmoſt harmony and good fellowſhip. No appearance of religion is diſcovered among them, except the noiſes that have been mentioned, and which are ſuppoſed to be a ſuperſtitious ceremony, merely becauſe it cannot be referred to any thing elſe. Upon the whole, theſe people appear to be the moſt deſtitute and forlorn, as well as the moſt ſtupid, of all human beings; the very outcaſts of nature, who ſpend their lives in wandering about the dreary waſtes where two of our people periſhed with cold in the midſt of ſummer, with no dwelling but a wretched hovel of ſticks and graſs, which will not only admit the wind, but the ſnow and rain, almoſt naked, and deſtitute of every convenience that is furniſhed by the rudeſt art, having no utenſil even to dreſs their food; yet they are contented. They ſeem to have no wiſh for any thing more than they poſſeſs; nor did any thing offered them by our voyagers appear acceptable, except beads, as an ornamental ſuperfluity of life.

Captain Cook expreſſes his ſurprize that theſe people do not clothe themſelves better, ſince nature has certainly provided materials. They might line their ſeal ſkin cloaks with the ſkins and feathers of aquatic birds; they might make their cloaks larger, and employ the ſame ſkins for other parts of cloathing; for it cannot be ſuppoſed they are ſcarce with them. They were ready enough to part with thoſe they had to our people, which they would hardly have done had they not known where to get more. Theſe people appear doomed to live in one of the moſt inhoſpitable climates in the world, without having ſagacity enough to provide themſelves with ſuch conveniences as may render life, in ſome meaſure, more comfortable; and, ſtrange as it may appear, *Captain Cook* remarks, that the cloathing they wore, when he was here in the ſummer, was ſcarcely ſufficient to prevent their periſhing with cold even in that ſeaſon. What, then, muſt they feel from the extreme rigour of their clime in the winter? In a word, they are, without exception, the moſt dejected, miſerable, and uncouth beings on the face of the earth.

It is worthy of obſervation, that almoſt all writers who have mentioned the iſland of Terra del Fuego deſcribe it as deſtitute of wood, and covered with ſnow. In the winter it might be, and thoſe who ſaw it that ſeaſon might, perhaps, be eaſily deceived by its appearance into an opinion that it was deſtitute of wood. Lord Anſon was there in the beginning of March, Captain Cook in the beginning of January, (that is the firſt time) which anſwers to our July a circumſtance that may account for the difference of his deſcription from that of Captain Cook.

Captain Cook, in his ſecond voyage, when he left New Zealand, ſailed again to Terra del Fuego, and gives the following deſcription of ſeveral parts on the ſouth-weſt coaſt, which materially differ from thoſe he had viſited before. He obſerves, that this is the moſt deſolate coaſt he ever ſaw. It ſeemed entirely compoſed of rocky mountains without the leaſt appearance of vegetation. Theſe mountains terminate in horrid precipices, whoſe craggy ſummits ſpire up to a vaſt height, ſo that hardly any thing in nature can appear with a more barren and ſavage aſpect than this part of the country. The inland mountains were covered with ſnow, but thoſe on the ſea coaſt were not.

To a lofty promontory which terminated in two high towers, within which was a hill ſhaped like a ſugar-loaf, *Captain Cook* gave the name of York Minſter. Leaving this ſpot they arrived in Chriſtmas Sound, and came to anchor in an harbour diſtinguiſhed by the name of the Devil's Baſon. It is a very ſecure place, but nothing could be more gloomy; for the vaſt height of the rocks which encompaſs it deprive great part of the harbour of the meridian ſun.

On the ſhore to the weſtward were found other harbours, in all of which were freſh water and wood for fuel, but from the little tufts of buſhes the whole country appeared as a barren rock, doomed by nature to perpetual ſterility. The ſea coaſt is compoſed of a number of large and ſmall iſlands. On one of the latter our people, in an expedition up the country, found ſeveral huts which had lately been inhabited: near them grew a good deal of cellery, which was gathered and taken on board the ſhip. They met with little game, one duck, three or four ſhags, and about that number of rails, or ſea pies, being all they got.

The iſland under which the ſhip was brought to anchor *Captain Cook* called Shag Iſland, from obſervation made of the ſhags breeding in great numbers in cliffs of the rocks. Our people ſhot ſome of the old ones, but could not come at the young ones, which are by far the beſt eating. They ſaw ſome geeſe, of which they killed three, which proved highly acceptable.

One of the lieutenants ſent to explore the eaſt ſide of the Sound, having informed *Captain Cook* that the land oppoſite the ſpot where the ſhip was ſtationed was an iſland, and that without the iſland lay a cove in which were many geeſe, two ſhooting parties went thither the next day. *Captain Cook's* party went by the ſouth-weſt ſide. As ſoon as they got under the iſland which obtained the name of Gooſe Iſland, they found plenty of ſhags in the cliffs, and on the ſouth ſide many geeſe. It happened to be moulting time, and moſt of them were on ſhore for that purpoſe, and could not fly. There being a very great ſurf, the parties found much difficulty in landing, and very bad climbing over the rocks when they were landed; ſo that hundreds of the geeſe eſcaped them, ſome into the ſea, and others up into the iſland. By ſome means or other they got 62, with which they returned on board, all heartily tired: but the acquiſition overbalanced every other conſideration, and they ſat down with a good appetite to ſupper on part of what the preceeding day had produced. The other party had before brought on board 14 geeſe; ſo that the Captain was able, the next day, to make a diſtribution to the whole crew, which was the more acceptable on account of the approaching feſtival, this being the 24th of December; and had not Providence thus ſingularly provided for our voyagers, the Chriſtmas fare muſt have been ſalt proviſion.

During the abſence of the Captain, a number of the natives had been along-ſide the ſhip, and ſome on board. They ſeemed well acquainted with Europeans, and had amongſt them ſome of their knives. On another viſit, the 25th, *Captain Cook* found them to be of the ſame nation as thoſe he had before ſeen in Succeſs Bay, on his former voyage. They were obſerved to be very fond of train oil, as they, and every thing they had, ſmelt of it moſt intolerably. *Captain Cook* ordered them ſome biſcuit, but they did not appear to be ſo fond of it as he had been told. They were much pleaſed when he gave them ſome medals, knives, and other articles of hardware.

The natives all retired before dinner, and did not wait to partake of the Chriſtmas fare. Indeed, the Captain was of opinion, that they received no invitation,

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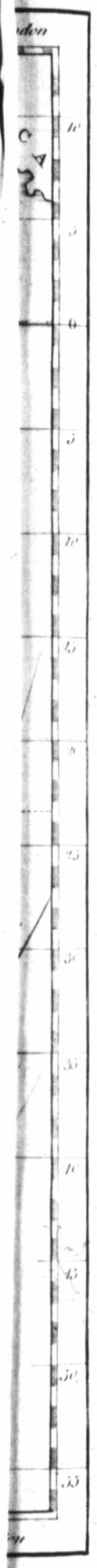

tion, and for a very obvious reaſon, as their filthy perſons, and their nauſeous ſtench, were enough to ſpoil the appetite of any European; and that would have been a moſt mortifying diſappointment, our people not having had ſuch a good fare for ſome time. Roaſt and boiled geeſe, gooſe-pie, &c. was a treat little known to them; and the cabin gueſts had yet ſome Madeira wine left, which was the only article of proviſion that was better for keeping. *Capt. Cook* obſerved at the cloſe of the day, that their friends in England did not, perhaps, celebrate Chriſtmas more chearfully than they did in this remote part of the world.

The day following the natives paid our people another viſit; and the Captain humanely feeling, when he ſaw theſe poor wretches trembling and naked on the deck, gave them ſome baize and canvas to cover themſelves.

A party went out again to ſhoot geeſe, the weather being fine and pleaſant. They proceeded round by the ſouth-ſide of Gooſe Iſland, and picked up in all 31.

From the feſtival celebrated at this place, *Captain Cook* gave it the name of Chriſtmas Sound. The entrance, which is three leagues wide, is ſituated in latitude 55 deg. 27 min. ſouth, and longitude 70 deg. 16 min. weſt, 10 leagues from St. Ildefonſo Iſle which, are the beſt land-mark for finding the ſound. York Minſter, *Captain Cook* obſerves, will hardly be known by a ſtranger, from any deſcription that can be given of it, becauſe it alters its appearance according to the different ſituations from which it is viewed. Beſides the Black Rock, which lies off the end of Shag Iſland, there is another about midway, between this and the eaſt ſhore. He adds, that a copious deſcription of this ſound is unneceſſary, as very few would derive entertainment or benefit from it.

HAVING thus given an ample deſcription of all the American and Weſt-Indian Iſlands, with every curious incident we could procure from the lateſt and moſt authentic navigators (particularly our celebrated countryman Capt. Cook) *we ſhall now proceed to give a deſcription of the continent of South America, in which, as well as in other parts of the world, we ſhall inſert* every new diſcovery; *including all thoſe of our celebrated countryman* Captain Cook.

CHAP. XII.

SOUTH AMERICA.

INTRODUCTION.

THIS immenſe track, extending from the Iſthmus of Darien to Cape Horn, in form of a triangle, derived the general appellation of Peruviana from the Spaniards; though other nations, particularly the Portugueſe, poſſeſs a conſiderable part of it. On one ſide the Spaniſh territories reach no farther than from the North Sea to the Equinoxial, and commence again at Rio de la Plata on the other, the fine country of Brazil occupying the middle ſpace; and from the River of Plate quite to the Straits of Magellan, the Spaniards rather claim than poſſeſs a real dominion.

Such a profuſion of wealth has accrued both to the Spaniards and Portugueſe from their reſpective territories in this part of the globe, that they ſeem to have no farther inducement to extend either their conqueſts or diſcoveries. From this cauſe a prodigious expanſe of interior parts, comprehending near 2000 miles from eaſt to weſt, and about 1000 from north to ſouth, remains unexplored, and conſequently in poſſeſſion of the natives; though from the produce of thoſe parts which are known, there is the greateſt reaſon to ſuppoſe, they abound in the moſt choice and valuable commodities, as gold, ſilver, gems, drugs, fruits, cattle, corn, and various other articles.

The Spaniſh dominions in South America are under two governors, ſtiled viceroys and captain-generals, ſubordinate to whom are ſeveral audiences, as thoſe of Panama, Terra-Firma, Chuquiſaca, Quito, Lima, Los Charcas, and Chili, conſiſting each of a preſident and a certain number of counſellors, appointed by the king, with the inferior officers dependent on them.

Brazil, the moſt important part of the Portugueſe dominions in ſouth America (as they poſſeſs beſides only two or three ſingle iſlands) for the better regulation of government, is divided into 15 provinces, called Capitaneas, or Capitainries, the whole forming a principality, which gives title to the preſumptive heir of the crown of Portugal. There are only ſix of theſe capitainries annexed to the crown. Theſe are offices of great honour and profit, and therefore objects of purſuit among the firſt grandees of Portugal. They are, as in other ſtates, preſented to the favourites of the monarch, and productive of good or ill, in proportion to the character and diſpoſition of thoſe on whom they are conferred.

Thoſe parts of the continent of South America belonging to the French and Dutch, are very inconſiderable, when compared with the opulent and extenſive dominions of the Spaniards and Portugueſe.

As we proceed in our deſcription of South America, we ſhall point out the nations to which the various parts reſpectively belong, with every particular worthy of deſcription. But previous to this, it may not be improper to inſert the following Table, ſhewing, at one view, the reſpective parts into which the whole is divided.

TABLE OF THE CONTINENT OF SOUTH AMERICA.

Countries.	Leng.	Bred.	Chief Cities, &c.	Belonging to
Terra-Firma	1400	700	Panama	Spain
Peru	1500	500	Lima	Spain
Paraguay	1500	1000	Buenos Ayres	Spaniards and Jeſuits
Chili	1200	500	St. Jago	Spain
Terra Magellanica, or Patagonia	700	300	——	Its Natives
Brazil	2500	700	St. Sebaſtian	Portugal
Amazonia	1200	960	——	Its Natives
Guiana	780	480	Surinam Cayenne	Dutch French

A new and accurate Map of SOUTH AMERICA, from the best Modern MAPS AND CHARTS.

By Thos Bowen, Geogr.

ATLANTIC OCEAN

PACIFIC OCEAN

GREAT SOUTH SEA

SOUTHERN OCEAN

AFRICA

TERRA FIRMA

NEW GRANADA

GUIANA

AMAZONIA

BRAZIL

PARAGUAY

Chaco

Pampas

Patagonia

Cordilleras

Little Antilles

Windward Isles

Granada

Tobago

Trinidad

Margarita

Paria

Orinoco Mouth

Surriam

Cayenne Isle

Gallapagos Isles

Juan Fernandes Is.

Falkland Isles

Staten Land

Cape Horn

Equinoctial Line or Equator

Tropic of Capricorn

Meridian of London

Longit. West from London

Longit. East from London

British Statute Miles 69½ to a Degree

British & French Marine Leagues 20 to a Degree

Spanish Leagues 17½ to a Degree

CHAP. XIII.

SPANISH DOMINIONS IN SOUTH AMERICA.

SECTION I.

TERRA-FIRMA, OR CASTILE DEL ORO.

THIS province is situated between the equator and 12 deg. north latitude, and between 60 and 82 deg. west longitude, being about 1400 miles in length, and 700 in breadth. It is bounded on the north by part of the Atlantic Ocean, on the east by Guiana; on the west by New Spain and the Pacific Ocean; and on the south, by Peru, and the country of the Amazons. It derived the name of Castile del Oro, or the Golden Coast, from the great quantity of gold it contained.

The Isthmus of Darien, or Terra-Firma Proper, joins North and South America. The climate of Terra-Firma, especially in the northern divisions, is very sultry during the whole year. From the month of May to the end of November, there is an almost continual succession of thunder, rain, and tempest. The excessive heats raise the vapour of the sea, which is precipitated in such rains as seem to threaten a deluge. From the middle of December to the middle of April, the rains cease, and the weather becomes more agreeable.

The soil of this country is very different, the inland parts being rich and fertile, and the coasts sandy and barren. The productions are Indian corn, balms, gums and drugs, several sorts of fruit, sugar, tobacco, various kinds of dying woods, precious stones, particularly emeralds and sapphires, venison, and game. Great numbers of cows and hogs are fed in the meadows. The mountains abound with tigers, and numbers of other wild beasts. In the forests and woods are monkies of various colours and sizes. The flesh of them, in general, but that of the red in particular, is highly valued by the Negroes; and it is said that, in many places, not only the Negroes, but the Creoles, make no scruple of eating them.

Many birds are found in this country, whose plumage is particularly beautiful and brilliant. But the most remarkable is the toucan, or preacher. The bill of this bird is variegated with all those bright colours which adorn the plumage of other birds. It is called the preacher from its custom of perching on the top of a tree, and making a noise resembling ill articulated sounds. The rivers, sea, and lakes, abound with a variety of fish.

The Isthmus of Darien swarms with reptiles and insects of divers species. Many of them are baneful to the inhabitants, and others objects of curious and philosophical speculation.

The trees most remarkable for their dimensions are the caobe, the ceder, and the mania. The manzanillo tree is particularly remarkable: it bears a fruit resembling an apple, but which, under this specious appearance, contains a most subtile poison, against which common oil is found to be the best antidote. Such is the malignity of this tree, that if a person sleeps under it, his body swells, and he is racked with the severest tortures. The beasts, from instinct, always avoid it. In the woods about Carthagena is a species of willow, particularly known on account of its fruit, called Habella de Carthagena, or the bean of Carthagena. This bean contains a kernel resembling an almond, but less white, and very bitter. This kernel is an excellent remedy for the bites of vipers and serpents, which are very common throughout this country. Those who frequent the woods, therefore, usually take a little of this kernel fasting, and then repair to their work, without any apprehension of danger.

There were once a number of gold mines in this country, but they are now in a great measure exhausted. Terra-Firma is a very mountainous country. Terra-Firma Proper, in particular, consists of prodigious high mountains and deep vallies, flooded more than half the year. The mountains in the province of Carthagena and St. Martha, according to Dampier, are the highest in the world, being seen at sea 200 miles off. From these run a chain of hills, of almost equal height, quite through South America, as far as the Straits of Magellan, called the Cordilleros des Andes. The province of Venezuella, and the district of the Caraccas, are likewise very mountainous. Some of the mountains in the province of Popayan contain volcanos; but towards the shore of the Pacific Ocean the country is low and marshy. The whole is watered by a great number of rivers, the principal of which is that of Oroonoko; and here are many gulphs, bays, &c. The provinces of this country are thus divided:

Terra-Firma Proper, which lies in the form of a crescent about the Bay of Panama, being the isthmus which joins South and North America, is 300 miles in length, but only 60 in breadth, where the isthmus is narrowest. It is tolerably fruitful, and abounds in gold and pearls. The principal places are,

Panama, which, in 1737, was entirely consumed by fire, but has since been rebuilt in a neat, though not magnificent, manner. It is strongly fortified and garrisoned, and the walls mounted with large cannon. Here is the residence of the governor of the province, and the seat of a royal audience, with a convenient harbour, well secured against storms by a number of surrounding islands. At the bottom of the sea are found numbers of pearls, and the oysters are exceeding delicious in which they are found. This kind of fishery is very beneficial to the inhabitants of all the islands in the bay; and there are few persons of substance about Panama, who do not employ a part of their slaves in it at least. The slaves thus employed must be expert swimmers, and capable of holding their breath a long time. During the season, eight, ten, or twenty of them set out, under the command of an officer, in a boat, from the islands, where they have huts built for their lodgings, to such parts of the bay as are known to produce pearls, and where the depth of the water is not above 10, 12, or 15 fathoms. Here they come to an anchor; and the negroes, having a rope fastened round their bodies, and the other end to the side of the boat, take with them a small weight, to accelerate their sinking, and plunge into the water. On reaching the bottom, they take up an oyster, which they put under the left arm; the second they hold in their left hand, and the third in their right. With these three oysters, and sometimes another in their mouth, they rise to breathe, and put them in a bag. When they have rested themselves awhile, they dive a second time; and thus continue till they have either completed the task, or their strength fails them. Every one of these negro-drivers is obliged daily to deliver to his master a certain number of pearls; so that when they have got a sufficient number of oysters in their bag, they begin to open them, and deliver the pearls to the officer, till they have made up the number due to their master; and if the pearl be but formed, it is sufficient, without regard to its being small or faulty. The remainder, however large or beautiful, are the negro's own property; nor has the master the least claim to them, the slaves being allowed to sell them to whom they please; though the master generally purchases them himself at a very small price.

Besides the toil of this fishery, from the oysters adhering strongly to the rocks, the negroes are in no small danger from some kinds of fish, which either seize them,

them, or run againſt them ſo violently, as either to kill, or cruſh them againſt the bottom. Every negro, to defend himſelf againſt theſe animals, carries with him a ſharp knife, with which the fiſh being ſtruck, immediately flies off. The officers keep a watchful eye on theſe voracious creatures, and, on diſcovering them, ſhake the ropes faſtened to the bodies of the negroes, that they may be upon their guard. Many, on the diver's being in danger, have thrown themſelves into the water, with the like weapon, to aſſiſt in his defence: but all their dexterity and precaution have frequently not been ſufficient to protect the diver from being devoured by theſe fiſh, or loſing a leg or an arm by their bite.

Porto-Bello is ſituated cloſe to the ſea, on the declivity of a mountain, which ſurrounds the harbour. This harbour is ſo large, deep and ſafe, that Columbus gave it the name of Porto-Bello, or Fine Harbour. The governor is always a military officer, ſubordinate to the preſident of Panama. The town is but thinly inhabited, owing to its noxious air, and contains not more than 200 wooden houſes, which moſt of the inhabitants let when the galleons are here, and make any temporary ſhift for themſelves. At the eaſt end of the town there is a quarter called Guinea, where all the negroes, and many of the mulattoes reſide. During the fair, while the fleet is here, the place becomes extremely populous, and barracks are erected for the ſhips crews, but taken down after the departure of the galleons. Formerly the fair was not limited to any particular time; but as a long ſtay here was found to be very prejudicial to the health of the traders, an order was made by the king of Spain, that it ſhould not continue above 40 days. Once the Engliſh were allowed to ſend a ſhip hither annually, which turned to very good account; but they have ſince been abridged of that privilege.

In the year 1739, the gallant Admiral Vernon, with ſix ſhips only, took this place, demoliſhed the forts, and diſmantled the fortifications.

The ſurrounding country is full of foreſts and mountains. One of the latter, named Capira, which is extremely high, ſerves as a barometer to the people; for by the appearance of the clouds on its ſummit, they can prognoſticate what weather will enſue, the changes of which are very ſudden, and frequent. The heat here is exceſſive, the torrents of rain impetuous, and the ſtorms of thunder and lightning dreadful. So that not only the people die very faſt, but the cattle brought from diſtant places ſoon loſe their fleſh, and become ſcarce eatable.

In 1695, a Scotch company having obtained, from the Engliſh government, permiſſion to trade to Africa and the Eaſt and Weſt Indies, planted a colony on the Iſthmus of Darien, near the north-weſt point of the gulph. Here a fortreſs was erected, called New-Edinburgh, and the circumjacent diſtrict was termed Caledonia. The Indian princes were pleaſed at this, as they thought, by the help of the Scotch, to expel the Spaniards. For ſome time the colony flouriſhed; but at laſt the company was ruined, by the jealouſy of the Engliſh Eaſt India Company, and the remonſtrances of the court of Madrid.

Carthagena produces ſome valuable gums, balms, and drugs, but no mines of gold or ſilver, nor any great quantity of corn or cattle.

Carthagena, the metropolis of the province, is not only a fine opulent city, but a ſtrong fortreſs, ſituated on a ſandy iſland. The harbour lies between the iſland and the main, and the entrance is at the ſouth-weſt end; the other paſſage, called Boccha-chica, having been filled up by an order from the court of Spain ſince the attack made upon the town in the year 1741, by Admiral Vernon and General Wentworth. To the eaſtward the town has a communication, by means of a wooden bridge, with a large ſuburb, called Xexemani, built on another iſland, which is joined to the continent by a bridge of the ſame materials. The fortifications, both of the city and ſuburbs, are conſtructed in the modern faſhion, and built with free-ſtone; and, in time of peace, the garriſon conſiſts of 10 companies, beſides the militia. The city and ſuburbs are well laid out, and the ſtreets ſtraight, broad, uniform, and well paved. The houſes are built of ſtone or brick, with balconies and lattices of wood, which is more durable in this climate than iron, the latter being ſooner corroded by the acrimonious quality of the nitrous atmoſphere. The city is populous, though moſt of the inhabitants are deſcendants of the Indian tribes; but it is by no means opulent, compared with many other cities in South America, the country producing no mines.

At a ſmall diſtance from the ſuburb of Xexemani, on a hill, is a fort called Lazaro, commanding both the city and ſuburbs, and affording a very extenſive and agreeable proſpect over the ſea and land.

The government of Carthagena was independent of any other till the year 1739, when the viceroy of New Granada was appointed. It extends about 53 leagues from weſt to eaſt, and 85 from ſouth to north, containing ſeveral fruitful vallies, called by the natives ſavannahs, in which are many ſettlements of Europeans, Spaniſh Creoles, and Indians. The Bay of Carthagena is the firſt place in America at which the galleons touch. The climate is hot and unhealthy; and, among other diſeaſes, the black vomit and leproſy are particularly fatal to Europeans. The Guinea worm is very troubleſome, as it occaſions painful tumours in the muſcles of the legs and thighs; and another inſect, peculiar to this country and Peru, is ſtill more dreadful; it is called pigue, and, being extremely ſmall, is ſcarce viſible to the naked eye. It breeds in the duſt, and inſinuates itſelf into the ſoles of the feet, giving exquiſite pain, and frequently attended with imminent danger.

The province of Santa Martha is 200 miles long, and 140 broad, very mountainous, but produces gold, jewels, marble, ſalt, &c. The capital of the ſame name, on a branch of the Rio Grande, is the ſee of a biſhop, and reſidence of a governor.

Rio de la Hacha is a pleaſant and fertile province. It has a pearl fiſhery, and mines of jaſper and chalcidony. The capital, which gives name to the province, contains nothing remarkable.

Venezuela, which includes the diſtrict of Caraccas, lies on the North Sea. It is populous and fertile, but rather labours under a ſcarcity of water. The capital of the ſame name is the ſee of a biſhop, and the reſidence of a governor; and Caraccas is a large, populous inland town.

New Andaluſia, including the diſtricts of Commona and Paria, is fertile, and rich in gums, drugs, medicinal plants, ſugar, tobacco, and ſeveral ſorts of valuable timber. Comana, or New Cordulia, is the capital, but the town of St. Thomas is ſuperior to it.

New Granada, ſometimes called Santa Fé, and Caſtile del Oro, is an inland province, of great extent, beautifully diverſified with mountains and vallies. The mountains contain gold, ſilver, and emeralds; and the vallies produce corn, cattle, roots, and fruits, with great quantities of guaiacum, balms, gums, drugs of various kinds, with other rich articles of commerce. Fanta Fe de Bagota, the capital not only of this province, but of all Terra Firma, and the ſeat of the viceroy, of the royal audience, and an archbiſhop, is a large, populous, opulent, and well built city, ſituated on the banks of a lake, with altars at ſtated diſtances, higher than houſes, and richly adorned.

Guiaquil is a conſiderable commercial town, on a river of the ſame name: and Paita, a ſea-port town, was ſacked by the late Lord Anſon in 1741.

The original natives of Terra Firma are bold and warlike; and as they have almoſt impregnable and inacceſſible faſtneſſes, and bear an inveterate hatred to the Spaniards, they never have been, and it is probable never will be, entirely ſubdued. They have lank, coarſe, long black hair. Their natural complexion is a copper colour. The inhabitants are differently dreſſed according to the Spaniſh faſhion. The men wear a caſſock

caſſock without folds, deſcending to the knees, a large cape, and ſleeves open at both ſides. It has button-holes, and two rows of buttons. The habits of the better ſort are made of embroidered ſtuffs. The handicrafts wear a blue ſtuff, of the manufacture of the country, but in make it differs not from the other. The Indians of diſtinction are ſingular in wearing a kind of trowſers of white cotton, which deſcend from the waiſt to the middle of the leg. The barbers here are diſtinguiſhed by the fineneſs of their linen, and elegancy of their dreſs in general. They have ſhirts without ſleeves, about the neck they have a kind of black collar, with a lace of four fingers breadth, which forms a ſort of fringe that falls on the ſtomach and ſhoulders. They wear ſhoes with gold or ſilver buckles, but no ſtockings.

The women wear the Faldelin, a ſpecies of ſtays, or rather jumps. A ſhift which deſcends only to the waiſt. A bay mantle which incloſes the upper part of the body, conſiſting of an ell and a half of that ſtuff, and their whole dreſs is ornamented with rich laces. The dreſs of the labouring women is not diſtinguiſhable from that of the ladies, but by its inferiority, the faſhion being the ſame. A Mongrel, or Creole, is known by the ſuperiority of his habit and his ingenuity. The Indian peaſant wears a bay mantle; and the common native Indian a piece of ſackcloth faſtened over the ſhoulders by two pins.

There is another ſpecies of Indians in this country, of rather a fair complexion, delicate habit, and ſmaller ſtature than the ordinary Indians. They are particularly diſtinguiſhed by their large, weak, blue eyes, which, unable to bear the light of the ſun, ſee beſt by moon-light, from which they are called moon-eyed Indians.

The government of Terra Firma is on the ſame footing with that of Mexico.

The cruelties and ravages committed by Pedrorias and others, who firſt reduced theſe Provinces under the crown of Spain, almoſt exceed belief. Pedrorias and his ſucceſſors did not deſtroy leſs in Terra Firma only than 800,000 people; and plundered the country of prodigious quantities of gold. The governor and his officers, every day, invented new torments to make the Indians diſcover their gold; ſome they racked, others they burnt by inches, till they expired in torments. Many thouſands were deſtroyed on the coaſt of New-Andaluſia, by being obliged to dive for pearls beyond their ſtrength. They kept packs of great maſtiffs on purpoſe to hunt and tear in pieces the Indians; and would often kill one without any offence given.

The greateſt prince of the country, named Bagota, from whom the capital city was afterwards called Santa Fe de Bagota, after he had brought in a prodigious quantity of gold, by diſpatching expreſſes to every part of his dominions, was ſo tortured to make him produce more, that he expired under the hands of his mercileſs perſecutors.

We ſhall, for the entertainment of our readers, conclude our deſcription of Terra Firma with an account of the famous expedition to Panama, made by the celebrated Buccaneer captain (afterwards Sir Henry) Morgan.

This enterpriſing genius, who was a gentleman of a good family in Wales, ſet ſail from Jamaica, on this expedition, with nine ſail of ſhips and ſloops, well manned with active and bold ſailors. Arriving on the coaſt of Terra Firma, he let his people underſtand that his firſt deſign was againſt Porto Bello: ſome of them objecting that his force was too ſmall to reduce ſo important a fortreſs, he boldly replied, "If our numbers are ſmall our hearts are great; and the fewer we are the greater will be our ſhare of the plunder." He ſoon made himſelf maſter of a caſtle which defended the harbour, and this capture was ſucceeded by the ſurrender of the city; but the governor, and many of the principal people, having retired into another caſtle with their treaſure, effects, the church plate, &c. kept up a briſk fire on the Buccaneers. This occaſioned Morgan to hit upon the following ſtratagem: He ſeized all the friars and nuns in the town, and compelling them to march before him up to the very walk, he obliged them to fix the ſcaling ladders; in doing which many were killed by the fire of their friends, as well as enemies, crying for mercy in vain: at length the Buccaneers ſcaled the walls, took the place by ſtorm, and afterwards employed 15 days in removing the immenſe treaſures on board his ſhip. He then obliged the governor to procure 100,000 pieces of eight, which had been carried off, in order to ranſom the town from being burnt.

Having intelligence that the governor of Panama was in full march againſt him, he poſſeſſed himſelf of a difficult paſſage, and there totally defeated him.

Morgan now diſmantled the forts, took ſome of the beſt artillery on board his ſhips, and returned to Jamaica, it being computed that the Buccaneers brought back with them 250,000 pieces of eight, beſides a great deal of other rich effects; but the ſeamen ſoon conſumed every ſhilling that came to their ſhare, and made money more plentiful in that iſland than ever it had been before.

The captain, having gained great reputation by the Porto-Bello expedition, the ſeamen crowded to be admitted to ſerve under him: having aſſembled 500 of them, therefore, he ſailed to Tortugua, a little iſland near the northern coaſt of Cuba, where he was joined by a great many ſeamen more, to the number of 2000, whom he employed in hunting and ſalting up beef, in the iſland of Hiſpaniola, to victual his fleet; and being now ready to ſail, he divided his fleet, conſiſting of 37 ſhips, into two ſquadrons, conſtituting admirals and other officers, to whom he gave commiſſions to commit hoſtilities againſt the Spaniards, declaring them enemies to the crown of England, and cauſed articles to be ſigned by his officers, wherein every man's ſhare of the prizes which ſhould be taken was ſpecified, reſerving an hundredth part of them only to himſelf.

Their firſt enterprize was againſt the iſland of Providence, which they retook from the Spaniards again; and while the fleet lay here he ſent Brodley, his vice-admiral, with four ſhips and 400 men, to take the caſtle of Chagre, at the mouth of the river of that name, which they fortunately reduced, though it was very obſtinately defended. Morgan receiving advice of the ſucceſs of his ſquadron at Chagre, followed them with the reſt of his fleet, and leaving a garriſon in the caſtle, ſelected 1200 men, with whom he marched over the iſthmus towards Panama, and the country being deſtroyed before him, his men underwent incredible hardſhips, as well for want of proviſions, as from the badneſs of the roads, which lay over rocks, mountains and moraſſes, almoſt impaſſable, and at length was obliged to fight his way through an army, which the governor of Panama, had aſſembled to oppoſe him. Aſcending a mountain on the ninth day, they obtained a view of the South Sea, and the bay of Panama, at which they were ſo overjoyed, that they ſeemed to deſpiſe all danger, threw up their caps, ſounded their drums and trumpets, and ſhouted as if they had been already maſters of the city, and encamped, or rather lodged, for they had no tents with them, in view of the town, deſigning to attack the place the next morning, but were prevented by the governor's marching out againſt them at the head of four regiments of foot and two ſquadrons of horſe, with whom Morgan engaged, and within two hours defeated, when they fled, leaving 600 of their men dead upon the field of battle; and the loſs on the ſide of the Buccaneers was very conſiderable: however, following the enemy cloſe at the heels, they ſcaled the walls without making any breach in them, for indeed they had no artillery, and became maſters of the place that day. Morgan apprehending that his men would be ſo elated with ſucceſs, that they would get drunk now they were come into plentiful quarters, gave out that all the wine was poiſoned,

ſoned, and proceeded to place guards at all the avenues to the city to ſecure his conqueſt, when on a ſudden the whole city appeared in flames, having been ſet on fire in ſeveral places at the ſame inſtant; which though ſome of Morgan's enemies charge on him, it is certain he gave orders for extinguiſhing it; others ſuggeſt that the Spaniards fired it themſelves, to prevent the treaſures laid up there falling into the hands of the Buccaneers; nor can it be ſuppoſed that Morgan ſhould burn the town before he had poſſeſſed himſelf of the plunder, and deſtroy the rich prize he had obtained with ſo much hazard and difficulty. But, however that was, it is generally agreed that the city continued burning ſeveral days, and very few houſes were left ſtanding. They related that 2000 of the houſes inhabited by the principal people were built with cedar, and that there were 5000 more of the inferior tradeſmen, with ſeveral beautiful churches and monaſteries in the place, before this accident, it being the magazine of all the treaſures of Chili and Peru, which were annually laid up here, in order to be tranſported to various parts of Europe.

The ſoldiers afterwards found great quantities of plate and money melted down among the ruins, and more hid in wells, or buried, and took 200,000 pieces of eight out of a ſhip that lay at anchor in the harbour.

Morgan having remained near a month at Panama, and collected the ranſom his priſoners had agreed to pay, loaded 200 beaſts with the treaſure he had gotten, and returned to Venta de Cruz, where he put it into boats, and ſent it down the river Chagre to the caſtle of that name: but the Buccaneers of the French and Dutch nations murmured, that there did not more than 200 pieces of eight fall to the ſhare of each private man, and charged their admiral with concealing the moſt valuable part of the prizes; whereupon the foreigners left him, and ſailed to the iſlands of Tortuga and Hiſpaniola to join their countrymen; and Morgan, after he had blown up the caſtle of Chagre, and the fortifications about it, returned to Jamaica with the reſt of his fleet.

SECTION II.

PERU.

THIS country was diſcovered and conquered by the Spaniards. It does not ſeem to have been known by any general name when they arrived here; but it is ſaid that the diſcoverers, meeting with one of the natives on the coaſt, and demanding what country it was, the Indian anſwered Peru, or Beru, that is, What do you ſay? The Spaniards, apprehending he underſtood them right, concluded the name of the country was Peru, by which it has been called from that time to the preſent. It was governed by a viceroy, whoſe juriſdiction likewiſe extends over Chili, Jucatan and Paraguay.

Peru is ſituated between the equator and 25 deg. of ſouth latitude, and extends from 60 to 75 deg. of weſt longitude, being about 1500 miles in length and 500 in breadth. It is bounded by Terra Firma on the north; on the eaſt by the mountains called Cordelleros des Andes; on the ſouth by Chili, and on the weſt by the Pacific Ocean.

Many rivers riſe in the Andes, and run through this country, among which are the Grande, Oroonoko and the Amazones, ſuppoſed to be the largeſt river in the world, either with regard to the length of its courſe or the depth of its water.

There are ſome waters in Peru, which, in their courſe, turn into ſtone; and here are alſo fountains of liquid matter called Coppey, reſembling pitch and tar, and uſed by ſeamen for the ſame purpoſes.

Towards the Pacific Ocean the coaſt is high. Thirty miles from thence within land a chain of mountains extends a conſiderable way, and about 80 miles farther are the Cordilleros des Andes, the upper parts of which are continually covered with ſnow, and the air is ſo ſubtile as to be unfit for reſpiration. It never rains in thoſe parts of this country which lie contiguous to the ſea coaſt, except near the equator. The whole is well watered, the low grounds are fertile, and this is the only country between the tropics that produces wine.

In one part of Peru are mountains of a ſtupendous height and magnitude, having their ſummits continually covered with ſnow. In the inlaid parts, and by the banks of rivers, the ſoil is in general fertile; but along the ſea coaſt it is a barren ſand.

The moſt remarkable animals of this country are, the Peruvian ſheep, called pacos or huancui. They are of the bigneſs of a ſtag, and reſemble a camel. The body is covered with a courſe kind of wool: they are very tractable, and were formerly the only beaſts of burthen among the Indians. Their fleſh is very good meat, and eſteemed as innocent as a chicken. It is as white as veal, pleaſant to the palate, and eaſy of digeſtion. Their height is from four feet to four and a half. They generally carry an hundred weight; and walk, holding their heads up, with wonderful gravity and majeſty, and ſo regular a pace, that no beating will make them alter it. At night it is impoſſible to make them move with their burthen; they lie down till it is taken off, and then go to graze. Their common food is a ſort of graſs, ſomewhat like a ſmallruſh, with which all the mountains are covered. Theſe ſheep eat little, and never drink; ſo that they are very eaſily kept. The Spaniards uſe them in the mines to carry the ore to the mills. The vicunas (another ſpecies of ſheep) are ſhaped like a pacos, only they are ſmaller and lighter. The Spaniards call them Indian goats, becauſe they reſemble that animal. Their wool is very fine, and much valued: beſides, the bezar ſtone, which is ſaid to expel poiſon, and to perform many great cures, is found in them. Their deer are much leſs then ours. They have not many wild beaſts; and ſuch as they have are not fierce or dangerous. The cattle imported from Europe are much increaſed; and moſt of them run wild, and are hunted like other game. The Peruvians have no tame fowl but the nuana, which ſomewhat reſembles the duck, but is much larger.

A very valuable article of their produce and commerce is the quinquina, or Jeſuits Bark, which grows in the mountains of Potoſi, and alſo in the province of Quito. It is about the ſize of a cherry-tree, the leaves round and indented, and it bears a long reddiſh flower. The moſt uſeful tree here is called maguey, which at once ſupplies a delicious drink, honey, vinegar, timber, hemp and thread, the two laſt being made from the leaves, ſtalks, &c. Needles are made of the prickles, and the fruit converted into a kind of ſoap. Rhubarb, tamarinds, ſarſaparilla, dragons blood, ſtorax, guaiacum, bananas, melons, &c. are other vegetable productions of Peru. Here are European corn and fruits in plenty, but the principal part of the bread is made of caſſava root; but moſt of that balſam which bears the name of Peru comes in fact from Mexico.

That valuable article of the commerce of this country, cochineal, was formerly ſuppoſed to be the fruit or ſeed of ſome particular plant, but now is aſcertained to be an inſect. It is bred on a plant called Opuntia, or Prickly Pear, which conſiſts wholly of thick ſucculent oval leaves joined end to end, and ſpreading out on the ſides in various ramifications. The flower is large, and the fruit reſembles a fig; this is full of a crimſon juice, and to this juice the cochineal owes its colour. When the rainy ſeaſons come on, thoſe who cultivate this plant cut off the heads, which abound moſt with ſuch inſects as are not arrived at their full growth, and preſerve them very carefully from the weather and all other injuries. Theſe branches, though ſeparated from their parent ſtock, preſerve their juices for a long time, and this enables the inſect not only to live till the rains are over, but to grow to its full ſize,

and be in readineſs to bring forth its young as ſoon as the inclemency of the ſeaſon is paſt. When this time comes on, they are brought out, and placed upon the proper plants, diſpoſed in little neſts of ſome moſſy ſubſtance. By the enlivening influence of the freſh air, they bring forth in three or four days at fartheſt, when the young, ſcarce bigger than a mite, run about with wonderful celerity, and the whole plantation is immediately peopled. What is ſingular, this animal, ſolively in its infancy, quickly loſes all its activity, and, attaching itſelf to the leaſt expoſed, and moſt ſucculent part of the leaf, clings there without ever moving. It as remarkable, that it does not, at leaſt in any viſible manner, injure the plant, but extracts its nouriſhment by means of its proboſcis, through the fine teguments of the leaves. The males of this ſpecies of inſect, differ greatly from the females, than which they are ſmaller. The males, in fact, are of no value, the females only being gathered for uſe. The value of the drug chiefly conſiſts in the method of killing and drying the inſect. The firſt is by dipping the baſket, into which they are gathered, into boiling water, and afterwards drying them in the ſun; the ſecond by drying them in ovens; and the third by drying them on cakes of maize, which are baked upon flat ſtones. The laſt is the worſt kind. One admirable quality of this drug is, that, though it belongs to the animal creation, it never decays. Without any other care than having been put into a box, ſome have been known to keep 60, and even an 100 years, and retain their quality. It is uſed in dying all the ſeveral kinds of the fineſt ſcarlet, crimſon, and purple. Gold is found in every province of Peru; and there are abundance of ſilver mines, of which the moſt rich are thoſe of Potoſi, diſcovered in 1545. The quickſilver mines, near Lima, were diſcovered in 1567; and in 1571 the Spaniards firſt began to refine their ſilver with mercury.

The natives of this empire, in general, acknowledge the dominion of Spain, and appear (at leaſt outwardly) to profeſs the Roman Catholic perſuaſion. They are, however, very much oppreſſed by the Spaniards in general.

The native Peruvians are of a middling ſtature, have olive complexions, and black hair. When they were firſt conquered, their manufactures were woollen and cotton cloths, which were wove and dyed with all manner of colours; but none were permitted to wear a variegated garment, except thoſe of the blood royal. Their carpets were made of the wool of their ſheep or fine goats hair; and their hammocks of cotton or network. Their carpenters tools were principally hatchets, made of copper or flints. Their ſtone-cutters tools were ſharp flints or pebbles. Pullies, and other hinges, were entirely unknown to them: yet under all theſe diſadvantages, they raiſed ſtrong and magnificent edifices. Their needles were thorns or fine bones, and their threads the ſinews of animals, or the fibres of plants, or of the bark of a certain tree. Sciſſars they had none; and their knives were flint or copper. Their combs were made of long thorns, ſet on each ſide of a piece of cane, which ſerved for the back of the comb: and the razors they ſhaved their heads with were no better than ſharp flints; in which operation the perſon ſuffered ſo much, that there was nothing the Spaniards carried over more acceptable to them than the razor and ſciſſars. They had no looking-glaſſes, but inſtead of them, the Peruvian ladies made uſe of a round plate of poliſhed braſs or copper, and in this the natives of the Eaſt Indies agree with them, having no other mirrors at this day than what they get of the Europeans. The ſeveral nations were diſtinguiſhed by their head-dreſſes; ſome wearing a kind of turban of cotton cloth, others a ſingle piece, others a kind of hats, and others caps in the form of a ſugar-loaf, &c.

The blackneſs of the negro ſlaves that the Spaniards brought with them, ſtruck them greatly. They could not believe it to be natural, having never ſeen a black in America. They deſired the Spaniards, therefore, to let them make experiment, and try if they could not waſh off the black paint, as they took it to be.

The Peruvians poſſeſs a quickneſs of wit and ſtrength of judgement. Such of them as have had the advantage of maſters, ſince the arrival of the Spaniards, have generally made an extraordinary proficiency. When the Spaniards firſt appeared among them, they acknowledged one Almighty Being, maker of heaven and earth, whom they called *Pacha-Camac*, i. e. The Soul of the Univerſe. The next object of adoration was the Sun; the prieſts of which, who officiated at Cuſco, were of blood royal. Beſides their feſtivals celebrated every month, they had four other grand ones, the principal of which was celebrated in June, in honour of their firſt Inca, Manca Capac.

The meaneſt of the Europeans aſſume ſtate as ſoon as they find themſelves tranſported among the Indians, blacks, mulattoes, meſtizoes, &c. Any good or generous actions performed by them are the effects of their vanity and imaginary nobility.

The Creolians bear a great antipathy to the native Spaniards, of which one reaſon is ſuppoſed to be, becauſe they ſee thoſe ſtrangers in poſſeſſion of prime places of the ſtate. In their outward behaviour they affect great gravity, like the European Spaniards, to whom they are not inferior in wit and genius, acuteneſs and underſtanding, but leſs active and hardy.

Effeminacy and ſloth ſeem to be peculiar to the inhabitants of this country; for it is obſerved, that thoſe who have been bred to labour in Spain, grow idle here in a ſhort time, like the Creolians. They are ſober as to wine, but eat a great deal, and after an indecent manner, ſometimes all out of the ſame diſh, and without forks.

The Creolians freely ſacrifice to the paſſion of love. Baſtards are as much regarded here as the lawfully begotten children, provided they are owned by the father, and there is no diſgrace inherent to that birth.

The Creolian women, though not under the reſtrictions of the Spaniſh women, ſeldom go abroad in the day-time; but at night they purſue their pleaſure with great freedom, and are fond of intriguing, though they uſually conduct their gallantries under the ſhade of their veils.

Some of the Peruvian barks, or veſſels, are made like double canoes joined together, with poles which paſs croſs-ways, and being covered with a ſkin, ſerve the boatmen to ſit upon. Others are conſtructed in the form of raſts, with a large ſail made of matting, and a rudder at one end, near which there is the fire-place or hearth, and a fire always alight. Between the two maſts there is a kind of cabin on the deck; and the maſts themſelves join to the top, and ſupport not only the ſail, but the little pendant.

They ſupply the place of bridges, in many parts of Peru, by contrivances, which they call tarabites. Theſe are ropes and thongs of leather, extended from one ſide of the river to the other, and faſtened to piles of wood fixed in the earth. A hammock, with two loops, hangs to theſe, in which a man may lie at his eaſe. Thoſe who attend on the ſide from whence it ſets off, give him a puſh, which carries him on to the middle with great velocity: from the middle, thoſe on the oppoſite ſide pull the hammock by ropes faſtened to it, and the perſon thus gets over in a few inſtants. For the paſſage of horſes and mules, there are two ropes at a ſmall diſtance from each other. The animal being girded tight is ſuſpended upon a flat piece of wood, between the two ropes, to which he is faſtened by grooves, & drawn over by ropes. Some beaſts will go over very quietly, but others are forced to have their legs tied. In many places the tarabites are made of ſkins ſpread all the way over the river, for people to walk upon, who hold by a rope on each ſide, which ſecures them in the manner of railing, and enables them to paſs the unſteady bridges without any danger.

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Lima, the capital of the audience of that name, and of all Peru, is ſituated in a fine valley near the ſea, in the latitude of 12 deg. 2 min. S. A river of the ſame name waſhes the walls, over which was a handſome ſtone bridge. In 1746 a dreadful ſhock of an earthquake almoſt entirely deſtroyed this city in the ſpace of three minutes, burying in the ruins thoſe inhabitants, who endeavouring to ſave their moſt precious moveables, had not made ſufficient haſte into the ſtreets and ſquares. At the ſame time the ſea, receding to a very conſiderable diſtance, returned with ſuch violence, that Callao, which was the port of Lima, and all the neighbouring country, were laid under water; men, women, and houſes, being ſwept away with the torrent. Nineteen veſſels, out of 23, were ſunk; and the frigate called St. Firmin, was carried, by the force of the waves, to a great diſtance up the country. For the ſpace of four months the concuſſions continued, with ſhort intervals, and many of them were as violent as the firſt; ſo that before the 24th of March in the following year, no leſs than 450 ſhocks had been felt, and ſome of them no leſs dreadful than the firſt. Above 12,000 people periſhed in the ruins of their own effects and property. It has now, in ſome meaſure, recovered, and is ſtill the capital and great emporium of Peru, and the reſidence of the viceroy, whoſe government is triennial; though, at the expiration of that term, the ſovereign may renew his commiſſion. He enjoys all the pomp and prerogatives of royalty. All officers are appointed, and places filled up, by him. For the ſecurity of his perſon, he has two corps of guards, one of horſe, and the other of halberdiers. The horſe guards conſiſt of 160, under the command of a captain and lieutenant; and their uniforms are blue, laced with ſilver. The halberdiers, in number 50, are clad in crimſon velvet waiſtcoats, deeply laced with gold, and do duty in rooms leading to the royal audience chamber. Beſides theſe, there is another guard within the palace, of 100 men, being a detachment from the garriſon of Callao. All officers are occaſionally employed in executing the orders of the viceroy, and enforcing the decrees of the tribunals after they have received the royal aſſent; for ſuch the concurrence of the viceroy is eſteemed, who, beſides aſſiſting at the courts of juſtice and councils, gives daily audience to all degrees of perſons. The ſupreme tribunal of Lima, called audienca, is held in the viceroy's palace, and conſiſts of eight auditors, and a fiſcal, for civil affairs. Here is alſo a chamber of accounts, a board of treaſury, a court for the effects of perſons dying inteſtate and without lawful heirs, a council of commerce, and a tribunal of the inquiſition; many convents, chapels and hoſpitals, with an univerſity, in which are profeſſors of the ſeveral ſciences, and three ſubordinate colleges.

The inhabitants of this city, as of all the others in Spaniſh America, conſiſts of Spaniards, Meſtizoes, Mulattoes, Indians, and Negroes. The Spaniſh families were very numerous before the earthquake. A third or fourth part of them conſiſted of the chief nobility of Peru, who lived in the greateſt ſplendour.

If Lima was not ſubject to earthquakes, it would be one of the moſt deſirable places of abode in the world; but, unhappily the interval between theſe is never of length ſufficient to obliterate the remembrance of them.

Callao, the port of Lima, is ſituated ſix miles weſt of that city. It is the beſt harbour in the ſouth, being ſcreened from the winds by the Iſland of St. Laurence. Two flotas annually ſail from hence; one for Africa, near Potoſi, about the end of February, which having received the ſilver on board, returns in the month of March; the other for Panama, in the beginning of May, with all the treaſures and merchandize of Potoſi, Chili, and Peru. Thoſe of Chili were brought by the Valparaiſo fleet. Beſides theſe fleets, two ſhips ſail annually for Acapulco, freighed with gold or ſilver; and the commodities they bring back are lodged in magazines here, and retailed to all the ſouthern provinces of America.

Cuſco, the capital of the empire of Peru, before the arrival of the Spaniards, and the ſeat of the Incas or kings, ſtands about 326 miles from Lima, towards the eaſt. It was then very large, magnificent, and populous. Here ſtood the famous Temple of the Sun, which is called Curiachanchi, and contained immenſe riches. The Incas reſided in a part of the citadel, the walls of which were encruſted with gold and ſilver, and the whole fortreſs was built of ſtones, ſo long that ſeveral oxen could hardly draw one of them. It is ſtill a conſiderable town, containing great numbers of Spaniards, Creolians and Indians. The air is very pure and wholeſome, and the neighbouring country very pleaſant and fruitful. Here are ſome manufactures of bays and cotton cloth, and alſo of leather: and in the adjacent countries are gold and ſilver mines.

Arequiba ſtands in the valley of Quiloa, on a fine river, by which it has a communication with the ſea, diſtant about 20 leagues. It is one of the moſt beautiful and pleaſant towns in all Peru.

Guamanga, 180 miles eaſt of Lima, is the ſee of a biſhop, and contains an univerſity.

Truxillo, 250 miles north-weſt of Lima, contains only low houſes, on account of the frequent earthquakes. Guamchaco is its port; and the inhabitants carry on a great trade in wine, brandy, flax, marmalade, and, above all, ſugar, as they cultivate plenty of ſugar-canes in the neighbourhood.

The audience of Los Charcos, or La Plata, is bounded on the north by that of Lima, being 570 miles in a ſtraight line, and 400 wide where broadeſt. The climate is various, the ſoil is in general fertile, and the principal commodities ſilver, gold, and pimento. The chief places are,

La Plata, the capital, which is the ſeat of the governor of the province, of the archbiſhop, an univerſity, and court of inquiſition, which is ſubordinate to that of Lima.

Potoſi, ſo famous on account of the rich ſilver mines in its neighbourhood, ſtands about 60 miles from La Plata to the ſouth-eaſt. The Spaniards and Creolians here are poſſeſſed of immenſe riches. All their clothes are of gold and ſilver ſtuffs, and their kitchen furniture and plates of ſilver, which is not to be wondered at in a country where that metal is as common as copper and iron are elſewhere. They have great froſts and ſnows here in May, June, and July; and the neighbouring country is barren and uncouth, eſpecially the mountain that contains the mines. The town is near two leagues in compaſs, and conſequently the largeſt in Peru. There are four principal mines of ſilver, beſides other ſmaller ones. Notwithſtanding the barrenneſs of the country, the town is well provided with every neceſſary, ſome provinces ſending the beſt of their grain and fruit, others their cattle, and others their manufactures. Thoſe who trade in European commodities reſort to Potoſi as to a market, where they are ſure of converting their merchandize into ſilver. Another ſpecies of commerce, carried on by a ſet of people called Aviadores, conſiſts in exchanging coins towards paying the neceſſary expences of the workmen, for ingots and pinnos. As for the article of quickſilver, it is wholly ingroſſed by the crown.

An opinion prevails, that the diſcovery of the ſilver mines was owing to this accident: An Indian, Hualpa, purſuing ſome wild goats, came to a ſteep place, and ſeizing a ſhrub to aid his aſſent, it gave way, when he beheld a maſs of ſilver beneath the roots. He haſtened home with the firſt fruits of his diſcovery, waſhed the ſilver, and made uſe of it; repairing, when his ſtock was exhauſted, to the mountains for a new ſupply. In the courſe of time, an intimate friend of his obſerving the extraordinary change in his circumſtances, was deſirous of knowing the cauſe, and urging him cloſely on this head, obtained an ample diſcovery of the whole ſecret. For ſome time they maintained a kind of partnerſhip; but Hualpa refuſing

to

to diſcloſe his method of purifying the metal, ſo offended his comrade, that he immediately revealed the whole to his maſter Villareal, a Spaniard, who lived at Porco.

Beſides the ſilver mines near Potoſi there are many others in the audience, eſpecially towards Chili. There are alſo ſome of gold.

At a ſmall diſtance from this place are hot medicinal baths, to which, as in other countries, ſome reſort for health, and others for diverſion.

La Paz is a conſiderable town ſituated near the ſpring-head of a river, about 220 miles from La Plata to the north-weſt. The mountains of the adjacent country abound in gold, and the plain and vallies in grain, fruit trees, and fields of maize. About thirty miles to the north-weſt of this town lies the lake of Titicaca, which is 80 miles in circumference, and has a communication with the lake of Paria.

Arica ſtands on the ſea-coaſt, and has a good harbour, but contains only about 150 families. Formerly moſt of the ſilver of Potoſi was ſhipped here for Lima, but now it is chiefly ſent by land.

Santa Cruz de la Sierra, or the Holy Croſs of the Mountain, is the capital of a little province north-eaſt of Plata.

Although the Spaniards poſſeſs only a few cities, in the extenſive province of Tucuman, they have nevertheleſs the dominion of the whole.

The cities poſſeſſed by the Spaniards are, St. Jago de Eſtero, ſo called from a river on which it is ſituated, whoſe inundations greatly contribute to fertilize the adjacent land, St. Miguel del Tucuman, Neuſtra Sennora de Talavara, Cordova de la Nueva, Andaluſia, Rioja, and the large village of San Salvador. The two firſt of theſe are the moſt conſiderable; the two laſt are ſmall, and built without order or ſymmetry. The chief deſign of the court of Madrid in maintaining ſettlements here is, to ſecure a communication between the colonies on the South and North Seas; for the commodities of the country of themſelves would hardly reimburſe the expence of keeping garriſons: they conſiſt chiefly in honey, wax, ſugar, wine, cotton, woollen ſtuffs, manufactured by the natives; and mules, much admired for their ſtrength and agility, on which account great numbers of them are exported to other provinces of South America.

The province of Quito is eſtimated at about 400 miles in length, and is ſituated between two chains of the high mountains called Cordilleros des Andes. The lands are generally well cultivated, and there are a great number of towns and villages inhabited by the Spaniards or native Americans. Every village is ornamented with a large ſquare, and the church ſtands on one ſide of it. All the roads are laid out in a line, croſſing each other, ſo that the aſpect of the country has the appearance of a large garden. It might be imagined that this country is very hot, but it lies ſo high, and ſo near the mountains covered with ſnow, that the air is very temperate. They might have plenty of wine here, if Lima had not an excluſive privilege of making it themſelves. They have no vicunas or guanacoes here, but they have an animal of the ſame kind, called by the natives lamas, which is like a ſmall camel, and can carry fifty pounds weight. They have all ſorts of materials proper for dying; and ſeveral ſorts of fruits and plants which have been brought from Spain, beſides thoſe that naturally grow here. They have alſo imported beeves and ſheep. In the northern parts they have great quantities of gold.

The inhabitants of Quito are fond of dreſs. Perſons of diſtinction of both ſexes wear long garments, and a kind of looſe mantle over their ſhoulders. The dreſs of the Spaniards is plainer than that of the Indians, the latter being uſually of flowered cotton: both are fond of wearing ear-rings, and rows of beads round their necks, and the Indians will ſometimes ornament even their ancles with bracelets. An Indian barber has a long looſe garment, and carries his baſon and other utenſils with him. A mechanic is dreſſed much in the ſame manner, with this difference, that he walks about with all his tools packed up in a bundle behind him, which has ſomewhat the reſemblance of a porter's knot. The peaſants are neat, but ornament themſelves with beads or ſhells, and a common Indian only wears a plain looſe garment, which the women ſo contrive as to carry their children on their backs.

Quito, the capital of the province, is ſeated in a pleaſant valley, between two chains of high mountains. It is about a mile in length and three quarters of a mile in breadth, and is a biſhop's ſee. There are ſeveral religious communities, and two colleges, which are a ſort of univerſities, under the direction of the Jeſuits and Dominicans. It contains about 35,000 inhabitants, of which one third are original Spaniards. All ſorts of merchandizes and commodities are exceeding dear, chiefly on account of the difficulty of bringing them hither. It is the ſeat of the treaſurer of the kingdom, as well as of the other officers.

HISTORY OF PERU.

NO deſign was entertained of conquering Peru, which was diſcovered by a Spaniard called Vaſco Numez de Balboa, till the concluſion of the war in Mexico, when the expedition was undertaken by three private perſons, viz. Pizarro, Almagro, and De Luque; the two firſt being officers, and the laſt an eccleſiaſtic. It was ſtipulated, that Pizarro ſhould command the embarkation; that Almagro ſhould from time to time raiſe and ſend him recruits: and, that De Luque ſhould remain at Pinama, and lay in ammunition and proviſions for the ſupport of the enterprize: and they agreed to ſhare the profits ariſing by the expedition equally, after the emperor's fifth ſhould be deducted.

The difficulties Pizarro met with in the firſt attempt from the croſs winds and currents, and the inceſſant rains that fell near the Equator were ſuch, that all his men forſook him, and returned to Panama, except 14; but Almagro joining him with ſome recruits, theſe two heroes demanded to continue their courſe to the ſouthward, and having croſſed the bay of Panama, went on ſhore, expecting to have found a paſſage to Peru by land; but the country being overflowed, or encumbered by rocks, woods, and mountains, they were obliged to return on board again, and ſetting ſail to the ſouthward, made ſo little way, that they were two years in advancing to the bay of Guiaquil.

The firſt conſiderable town they viſited there was the city of Tumbez, to the cacique whereof Pizarro ſent one of his officers to let him know they came as friends, and the cacique thereupon ſent them all manner of refreſhments. Not having a ſufficient body of troops to undertake ſo important an expedition, he returned to Panama for re-inforcements, taking with him ſome of the inhabitants, animals, and treaſures of Peru. Pizarro then went to Spain, procured the emperor's commiſſion, returned and took with him three of his brothers, and ſet ſail for Panama upon another expedition, A. D. 1530. He had now with him 125 ſoldiers, and 37 horſes, with which he landed and began his depredations. The Indians fled before him, but many of his people dying, he ſent his ſhips back laden with plunder, to bring more recruits. Almagro joining him with re-inforcements, they advanced together, defeated a large body of Peruvians, took the town of Tombaz, with immenſe treaſures, which were heaped up in the temple of the Sun and the Inca's palace. They now erected a fortreſs near the ſea, and then purſued the Inca, or emperor Atabilipa.

Pizarro, finding that the Peruvians were engaged in a civil war among themſelves, took pains to foment their inteſtine diviſions, in order to prevent their uniting againſt him. The caſe was, that Atabilipa, a prince of illegitimate birth, had depoſed and confined the emperor Huaſcar, and oppreſſed his friends. Theſe latter

latter applied to Pizarro for assistance to dethrone the usurper. On the contrary, Atabilipa made a similar application to the Spaniards for their friendship and countenance.

Atabilipa and Pizarro, having appointed an interview, the Spaniards traiterously attacked the Indians during the conference, and having slaughtered many, made the Inca prisoner.

Almagro, having raised a considerable body of forces at Panama, arrived at the camp of Pizarro soon after the slaughter of the Indians, and the imprisonment of their emperor Atibilipa. Pizarro went out to meet Almagro, congratulated his arrival, received him with all the marks of affection and esteem imaginable, and offered to divide the spoils with him, though it is evident they were, at that time, meditating each other's destruction, and it is said, Pizarro distributed as much gold and silver at this time among the Spanish soldiers as amounted to 15,000,000l. sterling. The soldiers being possessed of this prodigious wealth, fell into all manner of excesses, raising the price of things to a very great rate, by offering any sums to gratify their appetites or fancies. And now Pizarro thought it a proper time to send over the fifth part of the treasure to the emperor, as he had stipulated, and with it his brother Ferdinando Pizarro, to solicit for such reinforcements as might establish the dominion of the Spaniards in Peru, and to petition that his government might be extended still farther to the southward; the marshal Almagro also employed his agent to represent to the court of Spain, with what expence and application he had sent and carried re-inforcements, and supplied the general with ammunition and provisions from time to time, to enable him to make this conquest; and to desire that all that part of South America which lay to the southward of the lands granted to Pizarro, might be put under his government: and with these agents, sent by the general and the marshal, returned several adventurers, to the number of 50 or 60, who having obtained 30,000 or 40,000 ducats a-piece for their respective shares of the spoils, were perfectly satisfied with it, and chose to enjoy what they had got the remainder of their lives in their own country, rather than undergo more hazards and difficulties to increase their fortunes.

Atabilipa, the royal prisoner, having offered Pizarro a prodigious treasure for his liberty, and actually paid great part of it, was still detained, and at length being tried upon what were called Articles of Impeachment, was most unjustly put to death Atauchi; the brother of this unfortunate prince, having determined on revenge surprized the Spaniards on their march to Cusco, killed some, and took others, Sancho de Cellar, who had drawn up the process against the late Inca, being among the latter. With these they retired strangling Sancho at that very place where the emperor was put to death; but such of the Spaniards, as had been against the cruel measure, they restored to liberty. The Peruvians were still inclined to treat upon reasonable terms; but the Spaniards insisted that they should immediately renounce their religion, give up their country, and resign their freedom. This broke off the treaty, when Pizarro marched forward to the capital city of Cusco, where he arrived in the month of October, 1532, the people having abandoned the city, and carried off greatest part of their treasure; but still the Spaniards found so much left behind, that they were amazed at the heaps of gold and silver they met with there: but the reigning Inca, Manco Capac, being about to assemble the whole Peruvian nation against these invaders, Pizarro thought fit to treat with the Inca and his Peruvians. He even invited the emperor to return to his capital, and proclaimed him Inca. These measures Pizarro found himself under the necessity of taking at this time, not only because he saw all the southern provinces of Peru assembling against them, under the Inca, Manco Capac, but because Rumminavi Quinquiz, and other Peruvian generals, had assembled a very great army in the northern provinces, and possessed themselves of Quito, which obliged him to send a considerable detachment of his forces under the command of Sebastian Belalcazar to re-inforce the new colony to St. Michael's, and to make head against the Peruvian generals in Quito.

Belalcazar, thereupon, marching into Quito, made himself master of that capital city, and was in a fair way of reducing the rest, when advice was brought that Don Pedro de Alvarado was upon the coast of Peru with a considerable fleet, and landed 700 or 800 men, intending to take the government of Peru upon him, and expel Pizarro and Almagro from thence; at which news, these two adventurers were thunder struck, apprehending they should be dispossessed of all the spoils they had taken, and perhaps sent prisoners to Spain, to give an account of their murdering the late Inca Atabilipa and massacring his people; they continued therefore to cultivate a good understanding with the Indians of the southern provinces, and treated the Inca and his subjects as their friends and allies, promising to perform punctually whatever they had agreed on; knowing how great an advantage it must be to have the country in their interest, if they were obliged to contend with Alvarado for the possession of it. They, however, at length found means to bribe Alvarado from the country and to persuade most of his followers to enter into their service. These additional forces rendered the adventurers very formidable, when Almagro marched to Cusco; and Pizarro founded the city of Lima, and other places on the coast. Pizarro now, according to the grant of the emperor, remained in possession of Peru, and Almagro made an expedition into Chili.

Almagro advanced as far as the province of Charcas, 200 leagues to the southward of Cusco, without meeting with any thing to obstruct his designs, that country being all under the dominion of the Inca, and supplying him with provisions as he went; but finding Charcas a wretched barren country, and being ignorant of the rich mines it contained, he resolved to proceed farther to the kingdom of Chili; though, had he known the invaluable mines of Potosi were situated in this barren country, he would certainly have set up his rest here, for in this mountain was afterwards found more silver than any, or perhaps all the countries in the Old World produced at that time.

The Indians informed Almagro, that there were two ways to approach the kingdom of Chili, both extremely difficult and hazardous. The first was over a branch of the mountains of the Andes, or Cordeleros, which at this time (being winter) were covered deep in snow, and so cold that no Indian could live on the tops of them (though this was much the shortest passage, if it could be performed;) the other was over a sandy desart by the sea-side, in which they would be in danger of perishing by excessive heat, and the scarcity of water; intimating that they were averse to the journey either way, but most dreadful that over the mountains of the Andes: however, Almagro resolving to remove forward, took the way of the mountains, as being the shortest, and more agreeable to the constitutions of his Europeans, than the scorching sands; and having gathered what provisions the country afforded, and laid it on the shoulders of the Indian porters, he began to ascend the hills; but had not advanced far before he found the snow so deep, that they were forced to dig their way through it, the Indians dying by hundreds with the intense cold: the Spaniards, also, were almost starved, and many of them perished with their horses on those mountains, either by cold or want; and some of the men lost their fingers and toes, who escaped with their lives. However, Almagro himself, with between 300 or 400 Spaniards, the Inca Pualla, the high-priest, and about 5000 Indians, reached the other side of the mountains, and came to a fine temperate, and pleasant country. The people of Chili presented the Spaniards with many presents; and Almagro penetrated into the country a considerable way;

but being informed, by the arrival of ſome Spaniards from Europe, that a part allotted to him by the emperor, included Cuſco, he returned to Peru. Having ſuffered ſo much in their march over the mountains, the Spaniards and Peruvians returned by the way of the deſart, where the hardſhips they underwent were but little inferior to the former. In the mean time the Inca Manco Capac obſerving that Pizarro only gave him the title of Inca, and that in reality he had very little command even in the capital city of Cuſco, where he reſided, put him in mind of his promiſe of reſtoring him to his empire, and performing the capitulations that had been agreed on between them; but Pizarro put him off from time to time, telling him he muſt wait with patience till he heard that thoſe capitulations were ratified by his ſovereign the emperor, which he expected to receive every day by his brother Ferdinando, and was going to Lima in hopes of meeting him there; deſiring that the Inca, during his abſence, would reſide in the caſtle, and not ſtir from thence. The Inca finding they would make him priſoner by force, if he did not voluntarily ſubmit to this confinement, diſguiſed his reſentment and immediately went to the caſtle.

But the Indians were far from taking this impriſonment of their emperor patiently; they only waited for a favourable conjuncture to obtain his liberty; for Ferdinando Pizarro returning from Spain with his brother's new commiſſion, and the patent for the title of marquis, brought ſome orders with him that were not acceptable to the marquis or his people; particularly he informed them, that the emperor expected they ſhould be accountable to him for all the treaſure they had received as the ranſom of Atabilipa, his imperial Majeſty alone being entitled to it, or at leaſt that they ſhould raiſe him a good round ſum, and ſend over to Spain in lieu of it; but the marquis and his officers replied, this was neither reaſonable nor poſſible; as they had hazarded their lives, and made a conqueſt of the country at their own expence, without any change to his imperial majeſty, they ought to reap the fruits of their labour; and beſides, that money had been long ſince ſpent in ſupporting the conqueſt, building towns, and planting colonies, to preſerve what they had gained, which would all redound to the honour and profit of his majeſty, who by that means was confirmed and eſtabliſhed in the ſovereignty of that rich country. Whereupon Ferdinando deſired his brother would confer on him the government of the capital city of Cuſco, and he did not doubt but he ſhould ſoon have it in his power to raiſe a ſum of money to gratify the court of Spain; which the marquis conſenting to, his brother Ferdinando immediately repaired to his government of Cuſco; where obſerving that ſeveral officers had been greatly enriched by preſents Manco Inca had made them, in order to be kindly uſed, he applied himſelf alſo to the Inca, giving him to underſtand, that he would be reſtored to his dominions, and all his demands granted, if he could procure a conſiderable ſum for the court of Spain; and ſuffered the Inca to come out of the caſtle to his palace in the city again, and to be treated with the honours of a ſovereign prince. Whereupon the Inca ſent expreſſes to ſeveral parts of his dominions, directing them to bring their uſual tribute of gold and ſilver plate, as the moſt probable means of delivering him from the hands of the Spaniards.

The treaſures were brought, but the Spaniards ſtill deceived him, when he delivered himſelf by this ſtratagem. He pretended, that in the valley of Yarico, great riches were hid, particularly a ſtatue of ſolid gold as big as life, but that none but himſelf could find out the place. Ferdinando Pizarro was deluded by this pretence, and ſuffered the Inca to go to the valley with only a guard of Spaniards, from whom (as they did not ſuſpect his deſign) he made his eſcape. Being at liberty, he raiſed three powerful armies, one being deſigned againſt Lima, the ſecond to attack Cuſco, and the third to cut off Almagro. The principal army, under the Inca himſelf, attacked Cuſco with great fury, but were repulſed with terrible ſlaughter.

After cutting off ſeveral detachments of Spaniards, the ſecond Peruvian army inveſted Lima, which not being able to take, they only blockaded; but the third army did not attack Almagro, who arriving before the walls of Cuſco, ſommoned Ferdinando Pizarro to ſurrender, who refuſed; but the place was betrayed to Almagro by ſome of the garriſon, when the governor and another of the marquis of Pizarro's brothers were made priſoners.

In the mean time the marquis of Pizarro, not hearing from his brothers, ſent a ſtrong force to Cuſco, under the command of Don Alonzo de Alvarado. Peter de Lerma was ordered alſo to march with this detachment as a private captain of a troop of horſe, though he was an older officer that Alvarado, and had done great ſervice in thoſe wars, which ſo diſguſted de Lerma, that he, from this time, meditated the ruin of the enterprize, as is ſuppoſed by the Spaniſh writers.

Alonzo de Alvarado continuing his march with the utmoſt diligence, moſt of the Indians that were preſſed to carry his baggage, amounting to upwards of 5000, periſhed in the firſt part of the journey, either by the intolerable fatigue, being loaded and driven beyond their ſtrength, or ſtarved for want of food.

Almagro receiving intelligence that Alonzo was advancing to the city, ſent ſome Spaniards of quality to him, to repreſent that Cuſco belonged to his government, according to the diviſion the emperor made of Peru, between him and the marquis de Pizarro, and therefore adviſed him to retire to Lima again, till he and the marquis ſhould adjuſt the limits of their reſpective governments: but Alvarado was ſo far from entertaining any pacific thoughts, that he made all the gentlemen priſoners that were ſent to treat with him. Whereupon Almagro took the field, conſtituting Don Orgonnez his lieutenant-general; and having made a party of Alvaro's horſe priſoners, underſtood by them, that great part of his troops were better affected to him, than they were to the Pizarros; particularly, he underſtood that Peter de Lerma, with a great many of his friends, would deſert Alvarado the firſt opportunity.

He advanced therefore as far as the bridge of Abancay, on the other ſide whereof Alvarado lay encamped, ſo that there was nothing but a ſmall river that parted their forces; they remained quiet, however, without attempting to attack each other all day; but in the night time Orgonnez fording the river, at the head of Almagro's horſe, put Alvarado's forces into great confuſion; and giving Peter de Lerma, and the reſt of their friends, by this means, an opportunity to join them, Almagro gained an eaſy victory, with very little bloodſhed, making Don Alonzo de Alvarado his priſoner; with whom he returned in triumph to Cuſco.

Almagro, after the battle, marched with 500 Spaniſh horſe and foot, and ſome thouſand Indians, towards the valley of Chiaca on the ſea-coaſt, taking with him his priſoner Ferdinando Pizarro, but he left Alonzo Pizarro and Alonzo de Alvarado priſoners in the city of Cuſco.

In the mean time, the marquis de Pizarro hearing no news from Alonzo, and imagining the Indians might have poſſeſſed themſelves of the paſſes in the mountains, and thereby cut off his communication with that general, marched in perſon at the head of 300 or 400 Spaniards, towards the mountains to get intelligence; and after ſome days march, received advice, that the Indians had raiſed the ſiege in Cuſco: that Almagro was returned from Chili, had poſſeſſed himſelf of that capital, and made his brothers Ferdinando and Alonzo priſoners; and, that his other brother John Pizarro was killed during the ſiege of Cuſco; and

and a day or two after he had news brought him of the defeat of Don Alonzo de Alvarado. Whereupon he thought fit to retire to Lima, and fortify himself there, till he should receive a re-inforcement of troops, which he expected every day; and to divert Almagro from taking the advantage of his present weakness, and putting his brother to death, he dispatched several Spaniards of quality to attend him, and offer him any terms he should insist upon, to procure his brother's liberty: Almagro was willing to treat, and an interview with only 12 horsemen of a side was agreed; but with so much treachery on Pizarro's side, that Almagro, with great difficulty escaped an ambuscade laid for him. At length Pizarro, by various artifices, obtained the liberty of his brothers, and then demanded not only Cusco, but all the conquests in Peru. Almagro very naturally rejected this unreasonable requisition, when a war immediately commenced between those rivals; when Almagro was defeated and taken prisoner, and at the same time the city of Cusco was lost. The unfortunate Almagro was afterwards cruelly put to death by his rival Pizarro, but the latter did not long survive him, being assassinated in his palace at Lima by a natural son of Almagro. Thus untimely fell the two conquerers of Peru, by means of their own reciprocal enmity, of whom it is only necessary to say, that both were equally possessed of courage, fortitude, and temperance; but both were equally ambitious and rapacious. Almagro was the most generous, Pizarro the most politic; the former possessed the most noble sentiments, but the latter had the greatest penetration.

SECTION III.

PARAGUAY, or LA PLATA.

THIS country lies between 12 and 37 degrees south latitude, and is about 1500 miles in length and an 100 in breadth. It is bounded by Peru on the north; by Brazil on the east, by Patagonia on the south, and by Chili on the west.

Independent of horses, mules, sheep, goats, hogs, poultry, game, grain, fruit, &c. it produces an admirable drug called by the name of the country, Paraguay. This is an excellent emetic, and of itself might form a considerable article of commerce. The forests abound with wild beasts, and the rivers and lakes, besides various kinds of fish, with crocodiles, alligators, &c. The mines contain gold, silver, copper, iron, amethysts, &c. To the west of the great river Paraguay, the country is barren, but to the east it is fertile. The next considerable river is that of Plate or La Plata, which rises in Peru, and falls into the Atlantic Ocean. The climate of Paraguay differs but little from that of Spain; and the distinctions between the seasons are much the same. In winter indeed, violent tempests of wind and rain are very frequent, accompanied with such dreadful claps of thunder and lightning, as fill the inhabitants, though used to them, with terror and consternation. In summer the excessive heats are mitigated by gentle breezes, which constantly begin at eight or nine in the morning. In short, for the enjoyment of life, especially with regard to the salubrity of the air, a finer country cannot be imagined.

The forests of this country abound with bees, which make their hives in the hollow trees. There are ten different species of these useful insects. That most esteemed for the whiteness of its wax, and the delicacy of its honey, is called opemus, but is very scarce. The cotton tree is a native of this country. The Spaniards sow and use hemp in pretty large quantities.

Venomous herbs, with which some Indians poison their arrows, abound here; but the antidotes are no less common; and, among others, the herb called Sparrows Herb, which forms pretty large bushes, and was discovered, and obtained its name, in the following manner.

There is a very pretty kind of sparrow called Macagua. This little kind of sparrow creature is very fond of the flesh of vipers, against whom, for this reason, he wages continual war. As soon, therefore, as he spies one of these reptiles, he puts his head under his wing, and gathers himself up into a round ball, without the least appearance of life or motion: he does not, however, cover his eyes so entirely, but that he may peep through the feathers of his wing, and observe the motions of his game, which he suffers to approach without stirring, until he finds it near enough to receive a stroke of his bill, which he then suddenly discharges at it. The viper immediately retorts with another of his tongue, but the minute the sparrow finds himself wounded, he flies to his herb, eats some of it, and is instantly cured. He then returns to the charge, and has recourse to his herb every time the viper stings him. This conflict lasts till the viper, destitute of the same resource, has lost all his blood: as soon as the reptile is dead, the sparrow eats the carcase, and then has recourse again to its antidote.

Here are vast numbers of all kinds of serpents, and the rattle-snake in particular is a very formidable creature. This reptile suffers greatly when its gums are too much distended with venom, to get rid of which it falls upon every thing in its way, with two crooked fangs terminating in a point; and by means of a hollow in these fangs pours into the wound it makes all the venomous matter which tormented it. The effects of the bite are sudden, and the consequences dreadful, unless antidotes are speedily applied. The chief antidote is a stone, to which they have given the name of St. Paul Bezoard, and a poultice of chewed garlick. The very head of the animal, and its liver, which is likewise eaten to purify the blood, are equally efficacious as antidotes. The surest method, however, is to begin by making an incision directly in the part that has been stung, and then apply brimstone to it; nay, this drug alone has been frequently found to make a perfect cure.

Here are likewise some hunting serpents, which climb up the trees to discover their prey, and from thence dart upon it when within reach, squeeze it so tight that it cannot stir, and then devour it at their leisure.

The missionaries greatly contributed to the subjection and civilization of the inhabitants of this country. They instituted parochial and provincial jurisdictions for the purposes of order and good government, and may be said to have acquired and maintained that superiority which the Europeans now hold over it.

The natives of Paraguay are in general of a moderate stature, and well made. They have flat round faces, olive complexions, and long black hair. Their garments were formerly the skins of beasts, but now in most things they conform in dress to the Spanish fashions. Previous to their embracing Christianity they worshipped the sun, moon, stars, thunder, lightning, groves, rivers, animals, &c. The women are allowed to propose matches as well as the men. When an Indian woman likes a man, she acquaints one of the missionaries with it, who immediately sends for the young fellow. If he does not like her, the priest persuades the woman to overcome her passion; but on the contrary, if the man is inclined to return her affection the priest immediately marries, and gives his blessing. The wives of the petty princes or lords wear a kind of triple crown made of straw, and their lords hang doe-skins over their shoulders. The boys and girls go quite naked. They wrap up their infants as soon as born in a tygers skin, and give them the breast for a little while, and then a piece of half-raw meat to suck. Their beds are the hides of oxen, or tygers, spread on the ground: but the people of rank use hammocks of network.

The rude and uncultivated inhabitants of Paraguay, especially the Chaconese, and the Guaranis, are of an extraordinary stature; and there have been found men among

among them above ſeven feet high. Their features differ greatly from ours; and the colours with which they paint themſelves give them ſuch an aſpect, that ſtrangers cannot, at firſt ſight, help being terrified a little. Accordingly, by this means they pretend to ſtrike a terror into their enemies. Moſt of the men go quite naked, all to a parcel of feathers, of different colours, hanging to a ſtring about the waiſt. But at their public ſolemnities they wear caps made of the ſame feathers. In very cold weather they wrap themſelves up in a kind of cap and cloak, made of ſkins pretty well dreſſed, and adorned with painted figures. Among ſome tribes the women are not better covered than the men. The bad qualities common to all theſe people are ferocity, inconſtancy, perfidy, and drunkenneſs. They are all ſprightly, though very dull of apprehenſion in every thing that does not immediately fall under the ſenſes. There is, properly ſpeaking, no form of government among them. Every town, indeed, has its cacique; but theſe chiefs have no authority, but in proportion to the eſteem they have acquired. Several do nothing but rove from place to place with their furniture, which conſiſts of nothing but a mat, a hammock, and a calabaſh. The cabins of thoſe who live in towns are no better than wretched hovels, made with branches of trees, and covered with ſtraw, or rather graſs. Thoſe who live neareſt to Tucuman are better lodged and clothed.

Their favourite liquor is chica. They aſſemble to drink it, and to dance and ſing; and in theſe exerciſes they perſiſt till they are all drunk. They then quarrel, and, from words, ſoon proceed to blows; ſo that their merry-makings ſeldom terminate without bloodſhed, if not in the deaths of ſome of the gueſts. Several take advantage of the confuſion to be revenged of their enemies. Theſe exerciſes are almoſt peculiar to the men. The women generally withdraw the moment they perceive the liquor begins to get the better of the men, and carry off with them all the arms they can lay their hands on. A ſmall matter is ſufficient to breed a war between them; but their unconquerable inveteracy againſt the Spaniards eaſily unites them again on the firſt alarm from that quarter.

Their arms are bows, arrows, and lances, which they uſe with great dexterity and ſtrength. They faſten a rope to the latter, by which they can, as the end is barbed, draw the wounded perſon to them. Beſides ſawing the necks of their priſoners with the jaw-bone of a fiſh, they ſcalp them, and preſerve their ſcalps as tokens of victory. They are admirable horſemen, and tame and manage the wild horſes with great addreſs, which has made the Spaniards repent ever having ſtocked the country with thoſe uſeful animals.

The Chaconeſe women have a cuſtom of pricking their faces, breaſts, and arms, in order to mark them. They are ſtrong, robuſt, have eaſy labours, and bathe themſelves and children immediately after delivery. They are very jealous of their huſbands, yet entertain very little affection for their offſpring.

Theſe people uſually bury their dead on the ſpot where they expire; plant a javelin, and the ſkull of an enemy (if they can get one) over the grave; and then remove to a diſtance from the place.

When the Spaniards firſt arrived in this country, the people lived in populous towns, and were governed by caciques, who were hereditary, and independent of each other. But if the ſucceſſion failed, the election of a new cacique uſually fell upon one famed either for valour or eloquence. At the death of a cacique, it was lawful for one of his brothers to marry the widow; but this ſeldom happened. In general, theſe Indians did not approve of ſuch marriages between near relations; and the men among them, who have embraced the Chriſtian religion, never marry any of their relations, even within thoſe degrees with which the church readily diſpenſes.

They obſerved a number of forms and cuſtoms, ſome abſurd and ridiculous, and others horridly barbarous. The ceremonies they obſerved in giving names to their new-born children, will beſt ſerve to give a juſt idea of the ſavageneſs of this nation. Thinking it unlawful to perform the ceremony without the death of a priſoner of war, they deferred it till they could make one. After entertaining him plentifully for ſeveral days, they cut his throat on the day appointed for that purpoſe with great ceremony. As ſoon as he was dead, every one touched his body, or ſtruck it with a ſtick; and during this operation they gave names to all the children that had not as yet received any. This done, the body was cut up, and every family took home a piece of it to make into broth, of which every one took a mouthful, not excepting children at the breaſt, whom their mothers took care to make partakers of this repaſt.

Their manner of receiving perſons returned from a long journey had ſomething very ſingular in it. The traveller, on entering his cabin, immediately ſeated himſelf, without uttering a ſingle ſyllable; and, the next moment the women began to walk round and round him, obſerving the ſame ſilence all the time, till at laſt they ſuddenly burſt out into exclamations, which were followed by a long relation of all the diſagreeable events that had happened in his family during his abſence. The men, covering their faces, repeated the ſame things with a low tone of voice. This ceremony laſted a longer or ſhorter time, in proportion to the eſteem they had for the traveller. At laſt they all congratulated him on his happy arrival, and entertained him in the beſt manner they were able.

Previous to marriage, the intended bride was placed under the care of a woman, appointed for that purpoſe, for the ſpace of eight days. It was the buſineſs of the latter, during the whole time, to make the former work hard, to teize and thwart her, and, in fine, not to permit her to have any peace, reſt, or eaſe. If ſhe went patiently through this ſevere trial, her hair was cut off, and ſhe was declared marriageable.

Phyſicians and fortune-tellers were formerly in great repute here. They were, however, only jugglers, pretending to prophecy from the ſinging of birds, and to cure diſeaſes by ſucking the parts affected.

Paraguay is divided into ſeveral provinces, which take their names from the rivers that paſs through them. The principal are Paraguay and La Plata, properly ſo called. The chief place in Paraguay ſo called, is the town of Aſſumption, which is ſituated at the conflux of the rivers Parana and Paraguay, and is a large, well built, and populous city. It was erected by the Spaniards in 1531, in the midſt of a very rich and fruitful territory.

The province of La Plata takes its denomination from the river of the ſame name. It is a fine, fertile, plentiful province, and abounds with proviſions of all kinds, the principal wants being thoſe of ſalt and fuel.

The great river of Plate, or La Plata, riſes in Peru, and, among other rivers, receives the Paraguay in its courſe. The water is clear, abounds in fiſh, is full of delightful iſlands, and may be navigated for the greateſt part of its courſe. Along its banks are ſeen the moſt beautiful birds of all kinds: but it ſometimes overflows the adjacent country to a great extent, and is infeſted by ſerpents of a prodigious ſize. Before it falls into the Paraguay, it is called Panama.

Buenos-Ayres, the capital of the province, taking its name from the pleaſantneſs of the climate, was founded in 1535, under the direction of Pedro de Mendoza, at that time governor. It ſtands on a point, called Cape Blanco, on the ſouth ſide of the Plata, fronting a ſmall river, in 34 deg. 34 min. ſouth latitude, in a fine plain, riſing by a gentle aſcent from the river. Nothing can exceed the temperature of the air, the fertility of the ſoil, or the beautiful verdure which overſpreads the whole face of the country about this city, of which the inhabitants have an uninterrupted proſpect

ſpect as far as the eye can reach. Buenos Ayres has ſtrait, broad ſtreets, and is of a conſiderable extent, containing no leſs than between 3 and 4000 houſes, moſtly built of chalk or brick. Here is a very handſome ſquare, with a magnificent cathedral, and a caſtle, in which the governor holds his court, and has a large garriſon. The Spaniards bring hither part of the treaſures of Peru down the river, and ſhip them for Spain, with vaſt quantities of hides, and other commodities of this country. The river is here ſeven leagues in breadth, and navigable for any ſhips 60 leagues above the town, but no farther, by reaſon of a cataract.

The trade of this country conſiſts in cattle, fruits, and the herb Paraguay, already mentioned. Cotton is alſo a conſiderable article of commerce. Their returns, by importation, are gold, ſilver, ſugar, and hides.

SECTION IV.

CHILI.

THIS country, though comprehended in the viceroyalty of Peru, is very extenſive, reaching from the frontiers of Peru to the Straits of Magellan. It is ſituated between 25 and 45 degrees of ſouth latitude, being about 1200 miles in length, and 500 in breadth. It is bounded on the north by Peru, on the eaſt by Paraguay or La Plata, on the ſouth by Patagonia, and on the weſt by the Pacific Ocean.

Chili lying ſouth of the equator, the ſeaſons are almoſt oppoſite to thoſe in the northern hemiſphere; but the face of the country, except on the ſea-coaſt, is beautiful, and the climate wholeſome. On the eaſt the country is ſcreened by the Andes, while, from the weſt, the air is cooled by the moſt refreſhing breezes. Along the coaſt of the Pacific Ocean they enjoy not only a fine temperate air, but a clear ſerene ſky, moſt part of the year. Sometimes, indeed, the winds, that blow from the mountains, are exceeding ſharp in winter; but, in general, this is one of the moſt comfortable climates in the world, being a medium between the intenſe heats of the torrid zone, and the piercing winds of the frigid.

The Andes, being covered with ſnow great part of the year, ſupply the country with innumerable rivulets, which greatly contribute to its extraordinary fertility. There are many volcanos among theſe mountains; and the air is ſo ſharp and ſubtle, and they cannot be paſſed without great danger. This country abounds in gold, ſilver, copper, tin, quickſilver, iron, lead, &c. The ſoil produces Indian and European corn, hemp, and fruits in great variety and abundance. Among ſeveral remarkable herbs produced in this country, ſome of which are medicinal, and others applied to various uſes, is the panqua, which is of ſo infinite ſervice in tanning leather.

Of animals there are horſes, mules, oxen, goats, and ſheep, all excellent in their kind. Birds, tame and wild, are found in profuſion; the coaſts abound with moſt ſorts of fiſh. The country is not infeſted with venomous inſects.

The natives of Chili are of a middle ſtature, ſtrong built, of a tawny complexion, and have long black hair on their heads, but pluck off that on their chins, and other parts of their bodies. They are tall, robuſt, active, and courageous, enduring fatigue, heat, and cold, to admiration.

The ordinary dreſs of the men is a kind of long frock, which reaches half way down the legs. From the neck is ſuſpended a chain of gold or copper rings. Women of the common claſs have a ſhort covering, hardly reaching down to the knee; but the dreſs of the better ſort is long, and they wear a petticoat under the outer garment. Their heads are ornamented with rings.

The common people uſually carry clubs and ſtaves. Their arms are pikes, bows, arrows, and ſwords; and their diſcipline much more regular than that of the other Indians. Their manners are very ſimple. They have no gold or ſilver, though theſe metals are ſo common in their country. All their bedding is ſome ſkins laid on the ground; and they eat on the ground, or elſe on a little bench, and wipe their hands on a broom, inſtead of a napkin. Their food is of maize, fruit, herbs, and what they catch by hunting and fiſhing. Their drink, alſo, is made of maize toaſted, ſteeped, and boiled, or of fruits. Their furniture conſiſts of four or five diſhes, and ſome wooden ſpoons or ſhells, a calabaſh or gourd to drink out of, and a leaf of a tree or maize for a ſalt-ſeller. When they make bread, they ſet great earthen platters, full of ſand, upon the fire, and, when hot enough, take them off, put the grains of maize into the hot ſand, ſtir them about till they be toaſted enough for the purpoſe, and then grind them between two ſtones. They let blood with a ſharp flint, fixed in a little piece of wood, and juſt long enough to open a vein. Though they can neither read nor write, yet they have a peculiar way of regiſtering events, and keeping accounts of things committed to their charge, by ſtrings of different colours, in which they make knots of ſeveral colours, called quipos. A French writer tells us, that the knowledge of theſe knots is a ſecret ſcience, which fathers do not reveal to their children, till they find their death draw near.

As we are treating of the natives of Chili, it is neceſſary to obſerve, that theſe Indians may be conſidered under two diſtinct claſſes, the ſubjected and the free. The firſt of theſe live among the Spaniards in a ſtate of ſervitude. The latter, which are very numerous, are independent, and have hitherto eluded the attempts made for reducing them to the ſubjection of the Spaniards.

It is remarkable that theſe Indians, in their conteſts with the Spaniards, have generally ſpared the white women, carrying them to their huts, and intermarrying with them, which is the reaſon that many Indians of theſe parts have the complexions of Spaniards born in that country.

The audience of Chili is divided into three provinces, St. Jago, Conception, and Chiquito.

St. Jago certains St. Jago the capital of Chili, founded in the year 1541, by Valdivia. It is ſituated on the river Mapocho, which gives name to a valley of great extent, and ſupplies the city with water. In the center ſtands the grand piazza, which is ſquare, with a beautiful fountain in the middle. Here are the apartments of the governor or preſident, the palace of the royal audience, the town-houſe, the public priſon, the cathedral, and many other handſome public and private buildings. The Spaniards in St. Jago, and the ſuburb of Chimba, on the other ſide of the river, are reckoned to amount to 8000, and the other inhabitants to about 30,000. Thoſe who have acquired fortunes at Valdivia, Valparaiſo, and Conception, repair hither to ſpend their days in eaſe and enjoyment. In the neighbourhood are the gold mines of Tiltil, and the Lavaderos, by their concerns in which many of the citizens amaſs vaſt fortunes. The royal audience, reſiding in St. Jago, ſince its removal from Conception, is compoſed of a preſident, four auditors, and a fiſcal, together with an officer who bears the title of protector of the Indians. Though ſubordinate, in ſome reſpects, to the viceroy of Peru, the determinations of the court are without appeal, except to the council of the Indies. The preſident is alſo governor and captain-general of the whole kingdom of Chili, in which quality he reſides one half of the year in the capital, and the other at Conception. There is a tribunal of the inquiſition in this city, and the ſee of a biſhop, ſubordinate to the archbiſhop of Lima. Earthquakes have often done great damage here. That of 1647 was ſo violent, that it almoſt overturned the whole town, and left ſuch unwholeſome vapours in the air, that all the inhabitants died, except about 3 or 400. Another dreadful ſhock, in 1730, laid the city in ruins.

Valparaiſo, a ſmall town, is ſituated in 32 deg. 15 min. ſouth latitude. The bay, or harbour, though greatly expoſed in winter to the north winds, which then blow with great violence, is much frequented by ſhips from Callao and Panama.

The province of Conception is ſouth of that of St. Jago; and the town of the ſame name is the oldeſt European ſettlement in Chili, and the ſecond city in point of dignity. The ſame earthquake that deſtroyed St. Jago in 1730, laid this city alſo in ruins. The harbour is good, the fortifications indifferent, but the garriſon ſtrong. The peaſants in the neighbourhood of Conception have great addreſs in the uſe of the nooſe and lance: with theſe they will combat the moſt fierce bull, throwing the nooſe ſo artfully as to lay certain hold of ſome part of the body. When a bull is haltered they draw the knot, at the ſame time giving ſpurs to their horſes, and ham-ſtringing him with their lances, ſo that the animal is taken and diſabled at the ſame inſtant. This dexterity in throwing the nooſe, and ham-ſtringing the animal in an inſtant, while they ride at full ſpeed, cannot fail of ſurprizing the Europeans. In private quarrels, alſo, they fight with the nooſe and lance; all attacks from which they are taught to parry with ſuch dexterity, that, after a combat of an hour, it is no uncommon caſe to ſee the parties ſeparate untouched, notwithſtanding both have exerted the greateſt alertneſs. Conception is the ſee of a biſhop, which was transferred hither at the time that the city of Imperial was deſtroyed by the Indians. The inhabitants are numerous; the fertility of the ſoil, and the excellency of the climate, having induced a great number of Spaniards and Meſtizoes to ſettle here.

Baldivia, or, as the Spaniards call it, Valdivia, ſtands about 195 miles ſouth of conception, at the bottom of a fine bay, on a river to which it gives name, as it takes its own from the firſt Conqueror of this country. It is defended by four ſtrong caſtles, mounting above 100 pieces of fine braſs cannon; but they are never properly garriſoned, nor ſupplied with ammunition.

Chicuito province contains ſeveral towns, of which the Spaniſh writers have not given any deſcription.

HISTORY OF CHILI.

IT has been already obſerved, in the hiſtory of Peru, that Almagro, who fell a victim to the imperious, cruelty of Pizarro, attempted the conqueſt of Chili, but was defeated in his deſign by the Indians laying ſiege to Coſco, which rendered his preſence neceſſary in that country. The conqueſt of Chili was ſuſpended till the year 1541, when Pedro de Valdivia was ſent to finiſh the war which Almagro had begun. He penetrated to the valley of Mapocho, where he founded the city of St. Jago, and built a caſtle for its defence. The Chileſians attacked this caſtle; but Valdivia, receiving reinforcements from the viceroy of Peru, did all he could to ſecure his conqueſts. But ſtill it appears that he was not ſtrong enough to make any great progreſs; and the Indians giving out that there were many very rich gold mines in a certain part of the country, not far from St. Jago, drew a detachment of his forces (who went in ſearch of them) into an ambuſcade, and cut off every man of them, except their commander and a negro, who eſcaped to St. Jago by the ſwiftneſs of their horſes; whereupon Valdivia ſent for another reinforcement of troops, to enable them to advance againſt the Chileſians, and built the town and caſtle of Coquimbo, or Serera, on a bay of the ſea, to ſecure his communication with Peru.

When the civil wars between the Spaniards and Peru broke out, Valdivia was recalled, but afterwards returned to Chili with a large body of veteran troops. The Spaniards now diſagreeing among themſelves, the Chileſians took advantage of their broils, and deſtroyed the garriſons of Copiapo and Coquimbo, demoliſhing, at the ſame time, the towns and fortifications. Valdivia, however, recovered what he had loſt, rebuilt thoſe towns, proceeded farther ſouthward, and erected the towns of Conception. The fortifications here being finiſhed, though under conſiderable difficulties, Valdivia determined to continue his rout ſtill farther ſouthward, when he founded the city of Imperial, four leagues eaſt of the Pacific Ocean, and 40 ſouth of Conception. From hence he marched to the mountains of Andes, 16 leagues eaſt of Imperial, and built the city of Villa Rica.

The Araucans, the braveſt nation of the Chileſians, had oppoſed the Spaniards with the greateſt ſucceſs, but had been at laſt obliged to ſubmit; and this being one of the moſt deſirable countries in Chili, Valdivia, in the diſtribution of the lands, had reſerved this valley for himſelf; and being ſenſible that the natives were not to be kept under but by pure force, he erected three caſtles in this valley, and left garriſons in them, while he marched farther ſouthward. He built the town of Valdivia, where finding ſtill richer mines, it is ſaid, he employed 50,000 Indians in working them, and ſpent ſo much time in amaſſing wealth, that the Araucans, taking advantage of his abſence, engaged the whole country in a conſpiracy againſt the Spaniards, and choſe the celebrated Caupolican for their general.

Valdivia, receiving intelligence of the intended inſurrection, returned in ſome haſte to the valley of Arauca, where he found 13 or 14,000 of the natives aſſembled in arms, whom he charged with his horſe, and obliged them to retire into the woods and encloſures as often as they appeared, but was not in a condition to diſperſe them entirely. They frequently rallied, and attacked his troops; and thus they continued to encounter him for ſeveral days in a ſort of running fight.

The Chileſian general, obſerving that this engaging the Spaniards with ſuch numbers only occaſioned confuſion among the people, thoſe in the front frequently giving way to the Spaniſh cavalry, and diſordering the reſt of his forces, before ever they were engaged, divided his army into batallions of 1000 each, ordering them to charge the enemy by turns. He repreſented to them, that the Spaniards were but 150 horſe, and that 1000 of his brave countrymen might eaſily maintain their ground for ſome time againſt ſo ſmall a number, notwithſtanding the advantage the enemy had in their arms and horſes. However, he only deſired they would make their utmoſt effort. He had no expectation that the firſt batallions would gain the victory, but when they found themſelves obliged to retire, required them to take care, in their retreat, not to diſorder the other bodies, but rally themſelves, and draw up in the rear, that they might be ready for a ſecond charge; and the ſame commands he gave to the officers of the other batallions.

In purſuance of theſe orders, the firſt batallion engaged the Spaniſh horſe with great reſolution, and having held them in play ſome time, leiſurely retired, being ſucceeded by the ſecond, and that by the third, and ſo on, till the Spaniards had continued the engagement for ſeven or eight hours without intermiſſion, and both men and horſes began to faint with the labours of the day, or for want of refreſhment; which Valdivia too late obſerving, made a precipitate retreat, ordering his troops to take poſſeſſion of a paſs about a mile from the field of battle, where he did not doubt he ſhould be able to defend himſelf againſt all the power of the enemy. But a Chileſian, who had been page to Valdivia, and baptized by the name of Philip, whoſe Indian name was Lautaro, hearing his maſter give orders for their retreat, deſerted at that inſtant to his countrymen, and directed them to take poſſeſſion of the paſs before the Spaniards could arrive there. He bid them make uſe of the advantages they had in their hands, recover their liberties, and reſcue their country from deſtruction, by cutting off theſe thieves and uſurpers who had invaded it; and, taking a ſpear, charged his late lord Valdivia at the head of a company of Chileſians, while another detachment of the Indians ſecured a paſs as he directed them.

Then

The Chileſians now ſeeing the Spaniards unable to reſiſt their attacks any longer, preſſed them on every ſide, without giving them a moment's time to breathe. They cut them all in pieces on the ſpot, except the general Valdivia. Him they bound and carried before Caupolican, the Chileſian general, who ordered him to be tied to a tree, that he might be executed with more ceremony than thoſe that fell in the battle. Valdivia, it is ſaid, meanly begged his life of the conquerors, addreſſing himſelf chiefly to Lautaro, who was but a few hours before his ſlave. He promiſed, if they would ſpare him, to withdraw all the Spaniſh forces out of Chili, and never more diſturb their peace, ſwearing by all that was ſacred to perform his promiſe; but the unrelenting enemy was deaf to his intreaties: even Lautaro obſerved, that it was madneſs to truſt to the promiſes of a captive, who would infallibly change his note if he was ſet at liberty. Whereupon the general pronounced his doom. Though authors differ about the manner of his execution. Some affirm that they poured melted gold down his throat, bidding him ſatisfy himſelf with that metal he ſo violently thirſted after. Others relate that one of the Indian caciques, not bearing to hear it debated whether the deſtroyer of their country ſhould live or die, beat out his brains with a club, without aſking the general's leave: and all the Spaniſh writers agree, that they made trumpets and flutes of his bones, and preſerved his ſkull as a memorial of that important victory; which they celebrated by feaſting and dancing after their country manner, and inſtituted public ſports and exerciſes; ſuch as running, wreſtling, and leaping, to be obſerved annually in memory of it; and expecting the Spaniards would give them another viſit, they encamped in ſome of their moſt inacceſſible woods and mountains, and Caupolican conſtituted Lautaro his lieutenant-general, for the ſervices he had done in the late battle, finding him every way qualified for that poſt.

The Spaniards attempted to recover their loſſes; the war continued about 50 years, but the Chileſians were moſt generally ſucceſsful, and at length almoſt expelled them from their country. The Dutch being informed of theſe particulars in 1642, ſent a ſquadron of men of war under the command of captain Brewer, with ſome land forces on board to make a ſettlement at Chili.

Brewer arrived on the coaſt of Chili on the 30th of April, 1643; and landing 50 ſoldiers on the 20th of May, they had a ſmart engagement with a Spaniſh party, whom they defeated, and ſome Chileſians came on board, who gave the Hollanders hopes of ſucceſs; but Brewer, the Dutch commodore, dying, who projected the enterprize, and the natives growing jealous of the deſigns of the Hollanders, and ſeeming ready to join the Spaniards againſt them, Herekerman, who ſucceeded Brewer in the command of the ſquadron, thought fit to return home without effecting any thing, having firſt demoliſhed a little fort they had erected on the harbour of Valdivia.

In the year 1669, an old Spaniard, who reſided in the court of England, having repreſented to king Charles II. that the Spaniards had been beaten out of moſt of their ſettlements on the coaſt of Chili, and that it would be no difficult matter for the Engliſh to poſſeſs themſelves of them; Sir John Narborough was ſent with a man of war, called the Sweepſtakes, of 36 guns, to view the coaſt of Chili, and enquire into the feazableneſs of planting colonies there: he was accompanied thither by the old Spaniard, (Don Carlos abovementioned) Sir John paſſed through the ſtreights of Magellan, and not round Cape-Horn, as Brewer had done; and arriving on the coaſt of Chili near Valdivia, Don Carlos was ſet on ſhore, and took the road to the fort of Valdivia, which the Spaniards had rebuilt, being then in poſſeſſion of the country, and Don Carlos was never heard of more. The Spaniards permitted the Engliſh to trade with their people for trifles at firſt, but would not ſuffer them to have a communication with the Indians, and, at length, made one of the lieutenants and three ſeamen priſoners, whom they refuſed to releaſe, and what became of them was never known. Sir John Narborough, having no authority to commit hoſtilities againſt the Spaniards, returned home.

In queen Anne's reign the deſign of making ſettlements here was reſumed, but proved abortive. Thus the martial genius of the natives continually retarded the progreſs of foreigners, and has always been the cauſe why the Spaniſh ſettlements here are ſo diſproportionate to the extent, fertility, and riches of the country. The free Indians are much more numerous than the Spaniards, who are computed at no more than 20,000. All the inhabitants of Chili, including Europeans, Meſtizoes, Mulattoes, and Negroes, are reckoned at 150,000 only. Even the free Indians, it ſeems, now acknowledge the dominion of the king of Spain, and pay tribute to his governor; but the ſubjected Indians belong entirely to the Spaniards, living among them, and ſerving them in the ſame manner as the natives of Peru and Mexico. The greater part of Chili is ſtill poſſeſſed by the free Indians, who are rather allies than ſubjects of Spain, having, it is ſaid, in the laſt treaty, conſented to acknowledge the king of Spain for their lawful ſovereign, only upon condition that they were ſuffered to continue under the protection of their own laws and government; an engagement which it will be hazardous for the Spaniards to break, however it may counteract their great deſign of gaining entire poſſeſſion of theſe countries, and thereby repairing the conſtant decline of wealth and decay of their precious metals in their other ſettlements. The free Indians are governed by their own chiefs, whom the Spaniards call caciques, who claim no authority, beſides that of adminiſtring juſtice, and commanding their tribes in time of war; having neither palaces, guards, nor revenue, or any other badges of ſovereign authority.

CHAP. XIV.

PORTUGUESE DOMINIONS IN SOUTH AMERICA.

BRASIL.

THE name of Braſil was given to this country becauſe it was obſerved to abound with a wood of that name. It lies between the equator and 35 degrees of ſouth latitude. Its length is about 2500 miles, and its breadth about 700. It is bounded on the north by the mouth of the river Amazon and the Atlantic Ocean, on the eaſt by the ſame ocean, on the ſouth by the mouth of the river Plata, and on the weſt by a chain of mountains which divide it from Paraguay.

The aſpect of the country is not inviting from the ſea, as it appears mountainous and rough, but when entered nothing can be more delightful, as the mountains are covered with woods of evergreens, and the vallies are cloathed with verdure. Among the inland mountains are various ſprings and lakes, which diſembogue themſelves into the great river of Paraguay, and the river of Amazons.

The climate varies in different parts of this extenſive country. In the northern provinces, towards the equator, great rains, and variable winds, are frequent. The former ſometimes overflow the country, and occaſion the air to be very unwholeſome; but, in the ſouthern provinces, the heats are more tolerable, and the air more ſalubrious.

This

This country breeds a great variety of ſerpents and venomous creatures; among which are, the Indian ſalamander, a kind of four-legged inſect, whoſe ſting is mortal; the ibibaboka, a kind of ſerpent, about ſeven yards long, and half a yard in circumference, whoſe poiſon is inſtantaneouſly fatal to the human kind; the rattle-ſnake, which grows here to an enormous ſize; the iiboya, or roebuck-ſnake, which is able to ſwallow a roebuck whole, with its horns, being between 20 and 30 feet in length, and two or three yards in circumference; ſcorpions, one ſort of which are between four and five feet long; lizards of three or four feet long; milliepedes both venomous and dangerous; and many others. The piſmires here are very large, numerous, and deſtructive.

Here are ant-bears; tygers or madilloes; porcupines; janonveras, a very fierce ravenous animal, ſomewhat like a greyhound; armadilloes; various ſorts of monkies, ſome of which are very large; that called by Europeans the ſloth, or lazy beaſt; and the topiraſſou, a creature between a bull and an aſs, but without horns, and very harmleſs. The fleſh of the topiraſſou is good, and taſtes like beef. They have great plenty of deer, hares, and other game, and a variety of other animals, wild and tame.

Braſil abounds with birds, ſome of which are remarkable for their beauty, and others for their taſte. Of the firſt ſort is the humming-bird, ſo called from the noiſe he makes with his wings, when he ſucks the juice of flowers. A naturaliſt, who calls it calubri, ſays, it is not much bigger than a large beatle, and has a fine pipe like that of a nightingale, and near as loud. Their feathers, which way ſoever you turn them, appear of a different colour and hue, like thoſe of the ſun beams, on which account it is not unfitly called by the natives the ſun-beam. The anhima hath a horn two or three inches long growing out of his forehead, and, on that account, is called by Europeans the unicorn-bird. The toucan is of the bigneſs of a wood-pigeon, and of a perfect jet black all over, except under the breaſt and belly, which is of a fine yellow, and a ſmall circle of red about the neck; but what is moſt extraordinary in this bird is, that its bill is bigger than its body, yellow without and red within, and about a ſpan long. The guira, called by Europeans the ſea-curlew, is remarkable for often changing its native colour, being at firſt black, then aſh-coloured, next white, afterwards ſcarlet, and laſt of all crimſon, which laſt grows richer and deeper the longer the bird lives. The cocoi, a very beautiful bird, paroquets, parrots, cockatoos, macaws, and a variety of others, are very common here. Their poultry are, turkies very large and delicious; a ſort of white hens; ducks and other water-fowl. Their bats are of a prodigious ſize: they will go into houſes in the night, and if they find any perſons aſleep, and uncovered, they will faſten on them, and ſuck their blood.

The ſea-coaſts, lakes and rivers are ſtored with great plenty and variety of fiſh, among which is the globe fiſh, called by the Latins orbis minor, from its orbicular form, which is ſo beſet all round with ſharp ſpikes, like thoſe of a hedge-hog, that it bids defiance to all fiſhes of prey. But of all the living creatures in this ſea, the moſt remarkable is the ſea-bladder, ſo called becauſe it greatly reſembles one, and ſwims on the ſurface of the waves. The inſide is only filled with air, except about a ſpoonful of water that ſeems to poiſe it. The ſkin is thin and tranſparent, and like a bubble raiſed in the water reflects a great variety of colours.

The whole country contains a great deal of timber, but that which is termed Braſil wood is the principal ſpecies. This wood has a red colour, grows to a great height and conſiderable thickneſs, and thrives beſt among the rocks. The flowers are of a bright red, and have a ſtrong agreeable aromatic ſcent. The wood is red, hard and dry, and is uſed in dying, but the colour which it produces is none of the beſt. It is likewiſe uſed medicinally both as a ſtomachic and aſtringent. The palm-trees of Braſil are of five different kinds, beſides which here are woods of ebony, maſtick, cotton-trees, citron, &c. and many others which produce admirable fruits and balſams, and diffuſe around a moſt delicious fragrancy.

The principal commodities of this country are, ambergreaſe, balſams, ſugar, ſweetmeats, gold, emeralds, roſin, indigo, tobacco, pebbles, diamonds, &c.

The gold and diamond mines were firſt opened in the year 1681, and have ever ſince been computed to yield 5,000,000 ſterling, a fifth of which belongs to the king.

The Braſil ſugar is remarkably fine and white, and the tobacco is admirable. Of the laſt article great exports are made to Africa, where they not only diſpoſe of it to the natives, but even ſupply the veſſels of other nations, who are obliged to purchaſe it for the convenience of carrying on the gold duſt and ſlave trade with any tolerable advantage. The north and ſouth parts of Braſil abound with horned cattle, which are hunted for their hides, and great numbers are annually exported to Europe.

The Portugueſe trade is carried on at Braſil upon a very extenſive plan. They do not ſend out ſingle ſhips as the convenience of the ſeveral places, or the judgment of the European merchants may direct, but annual fleets, which ſail in the following order, and at the following ſtated periods: that to Rio Janeiro ſets ſail in January; that to Bahia, or the Bay of All Saints, in February; and the third fleet to Fernambuco, in the month of March. The cargoes of theſe fleets, like thoſe of the Spaniſh to their American colonies, conſiſt of woolen goods from England, France and Holland; linens and laces from Holland, France and Germany; ſilks from France and Italy; ſilk and thread ſtockings, hats, lead, tin, pewter, iron, copper, and all ſorts of utenſils wrought in thoſe metals, from England, as well as ſalt fiſh, bees, flour and cheeſe. Theſe articles are conveyed up and down from the lower to the upper city on ſledges, which are drawn by cranes turned by ſlaves, and tied with ſtrong cable ropes; and the aſcent being ſteep, is boarded along, that the ſledges may meet with nothing to obſtruct their way.

Braſil is divided into fifteen provinces, called capitaneas, or captainries, the whole being a principality, which gives title to the preſumptive heir of the crown of Portugal. Of theſe captainries only eight are annexed to the crown.

The principal places in Braſil are,

The city of San Salvador, or Ciudad da Bahia, ſituated on the bay of All Saints: it is large, rich and well built, but ſtands on ſo diſadvantageous and uneven a ground, (that is, on an eminence of about 100 fathoms, formed by the eaſt ſide of the bay) as to make the acceſſion to it very difficult, by reaſon of its great ſteepneſs, inſomuch that they are forced to have recourſe to cranes and other machines for conveying the goods up and down from the city to the ports. The plan of the upper town is as regularly drawn as the unevenneſs of the hills would permit; but though the ſtreets are ſtrait and of a good breadth, moſt of them have ſo deep a deſcent that they would be impaſſable for our coaches and chairs; to ſupply which defect the rich there, who are no leſs ambitious to diſtinguiſh themſelves from the reſt of mankind, by ſhewing themſelves above uſing thoſe legs which nature hath given them to walk on, cauſe themſelves to be carried about in a moſt lazy manner, in beds of fine cotton hanging by the ends to a long pole, which two negroes carry either on their heads or ſhoulders. The bed is covered with a teſter or canopy, to which are hung ſome curtains to draw cloſe or open, by which the perſon is ſecured from rain, wind, and, if he pleaſes, from ſight. Thus lying at his eaſe, and his head reclined on a ſoft velvet pillow, the proud ſluggard is carried about more gaily than in coaches or ſedans. The cotton hammocks are here called ſerpentins, and not palankins, as in other parts.

Notwithſtanding

Notwithſtanding the irregular and inconvenient ſituation, St. Salvador is one of the moſt trading and richeſt cities in this country, and we may add, that it contributes much to the ſtrength of it, ſo that with a ſmall expence it might be made impregnable, nature having formed ditches and outworks flanking one another in ſuch a manner that the ground might be diſputed inch by inch. The eaſt ſide of St. Salvador is almoſt inacceſſible; the reſt are all well fortified both by art and nature, and the avenues guarded by ſeveral forts, particularly that of St. Peter, which is a regular tetragon of earth faced with ſtone, ſurrounded with a ditch; of St. Diego or James, much of the ſame form the materials, but without ditches; Caſa de la Pulvera, or powder magazine, another ſtrong tetragon, containing eight diſtinct magazines, vaulted and covered pyramidwiſe; the fort of St. Anthony, of the ſame form, but larger, and ſituated on the north ſide exactly over the watering-place, and commanding the road on the other; that of Nueſtra Segnora de Victoria, ſituated about half a cannon ſhot from the laſt; that of St. Bartholomew, which defends a little harbour, where ſhips may careen; and laſtly, that of Montſerrat, beſides thoſe which command the entrance; ſo that upon the whole, there ſeems little elſe wanting to render it inacceſſible to the enemy, but the keeping thoſe fortifications in better repair, rebuilding ſome others gone to ruin, and furniſhing thoſe forts with better cannon, and greater ſupply of ammunition, than are commonly found in them. Both town and forts are garriſoned by regular forces maintained by the king of Portugal, all well armed, diſciplined, cloathed and paid.

The following place was viſited by *Captain Cook* on his firſt voyage, and from whoſe authority we ſhall give a particular deſcription of it.

RIO DE JANEIRO.

Town, Harbour, Country round it, Climate, Vegetables, Fiſh, Birds, Inſects. Gold Mines, Precious Stones, Diamonds, Reſtriction on Travellers, Coin, Manufactures, Inhabitants, Government, haughty ſeverities of the Military officers, deſpotic Power of the Viceroy, Manners and Cuſtoms, Religion, with ſome general Remarks.

THIS town, which is the capital of the Portugueſe dominions in America, derives its name from Rio de Janeiro, or the river of Jannarius, probably ſo called from its having been diſcovered on the feaſt day of that ſaint. *Captain Cook* ſays, it is rather an arm of the ſea, as it did not appear to receive any conſiderable ſtream of freſh water. The town ſtands on a plain cloſe to the ſhore on the weſt ſide of the bay, at the foot of ſeveral high mountains that riſe behind. It is neither ill deſigned or ill built; the houſes in general are of ſtone, and two ſtories high, every houſe having, after the manner of the Portugueſe, a little balcony before its windows, and a lattice of wood before the balcony. Its circuit was computed by *Captain Cook* at about three miles, for it appeared to be equal in ſize to the largeſt county in England. The ſtreets are ſtrait, and of a convenient breadth, interſecting each other at right angles: the greater part, however, lie in a line with the citadel called St. Sebaſtian, which ſtands at the top of a hill that commands the town.

Rio de Janeiro is ſupplied with water from the neighbouring hills by an aqueduct raiſed upon two ſtories of arches to a great height from the ground, from which the water is conveyed by pipes into a fountain in the great ſquare that fronts the viceroy's palace. At this fountain great numbers of people are continually waiting for their turn to draw water, and the ſoldiers who are poſted at the governor's door, find it very difficult to maintain any regularity among them. The water at the fountains, however, was ſo bad, that our people, who had been two months at ſea confined to that in the caſks, which was almoſt always foul, could not drink it with pleaſure. Water of a better quality is laid into ſome other part of the town; but our people could not learn by what means.

The harbour of Rio de Janeiro, ſituated weſt by north, 18 leagues from Cape Trio, may be known by a remarkable hill, in the form of a ſugar-loaf, at the weſt part of the bay; but as all the coaſt is very high, and riſes in many peaks, the entrance of the harbour may be more certainly diſtinguiſhed by the iſlands that lie before it; one of which, called Rodonda, is high and round like a hay-ſtack, and lies at the diſtance of two leagues and an half from the entrance, in the direction of ſouth by weſt.

Though the entrance is not wide, this harbour is certainly a good one; for the ſea breeze, which daily blows from ten or twelve o'clock till ſun ſet, makes it eaſy for any ſhip to go in before the wind; and it grows wider as the town is approached, ſo that a-breaſt of it there is room for the largeſt fleet, in five or ſix fathom water, with an oozy bottom. At the narrow part the entrance is defended by two forts.

The country, at a ſmall diſtance round the town, (which was all that was ſeen by any of our people) is beautiful in the higheſt degree; the wildeſt ſpots being varied with a greater luxuriance of flowers, both in beauty and make, than moſt of the gardens in England.

Though the climate is hot here, the ſituation of this town is wholeſome; for *Captain Cook* remarks, that, during his ſtay here, the thermometer never roſe higher than 83; though there were frequent rains, and once a very hard gale of wind.

With reſpect to cultivation, there is but little appearance: the greater part of the land, indeed, is wholly uncultivated, and very little care or labour ſeems to have been beſtowed upon the reſt. There are, indeed, ſpots, or gardens, in which many kinds of European garden ſtuff are produced, particularly cabbages, peas, beans, kidney beans, turnips, and white radiſhes, but all much inferior to thoſe of our country. Water melons and pine-apples are alſo produced in theſe ſpots; and they are the only fruits that were ſeen cultivated; though the country produced muſk-melons, oranges, lemons, limes, ſweet lemons, citron, plaintains, bananas, mangos, mamane-apples, accajou or cathou-apples and nuts; jamboira of two kinds, one of which bear a ſmall black fruit; cocoa nuts, plam nuts of two kinds, one long, the other round; and palm cherries; all of which were in ſeaſon when our people were here, which was in the month of December.

The water melons and oranges were the beſt fruits of their kind. The pine-apples, *Captain Cook* ſays, were inferior to thoſe he had eaten in England: he adds, that they are, indeed more juicy and ſweet, but have no flavour, and that he believed them to be natives of this country; though he heard of none that, at this time, grew wild. They have, however, very little care beſtowed upon them, the plants being ſet between any kind of garden ſtuff, and ſuffered to take the chance of the ſeaſon. The muſk melons are mealy and inſipid; but the water melons are excellent, having a flavour, at leaſt a degree of aſcidity, which ours have not. Several ſpecies of the prickly pea, and ſome European fruits, were ſeen, particularly the apple and peach, both which were very mealy and inſipid. In the gardens, alſo grew yams and mandioca, which, in the Weſt Indies, is called caſſava, and to the flour of which the people here give the name of *Farinha de Pao*, which may not be improperly tranſlated, Powder of Poſt.

The ſoil, though it produces tobacco and ſugar, will not produce bread-corn; ſo that the people here have no wheat flour, but what is brought from Portugal, and ſold at the rate of a ſhilling a pound; though it is generally ſpoiled by being heated in the paſſage. The naturaliſts were of opinion that all the products of our Weſt-India Iſlands would grow here; notwithſtanding

which the inhabitants import their coffee and chocolate from Liſbon.

Moſt of the land in this country is laid down in graſs, upon which cattle are paſtured in great plenty; but they are ſo lean, that Engliſhmen will ſcarcely eat of the fleſh. The herbage of theſe paſtures conſiſts chiefly of creſſes, and is, therefore, ſo ſhort, that, though it may afford a bite for horſes and ſheep, it can hardly be grazed by horned cattle in a ſufficient quantity to keep them alive. With reſpect to drugs, all that could be found in the apothecaries ſhops were, pareira brava and balſam capivi, both excellent in their kinds, and ſold at a very low price.

The river, and, indeed, the whole coaſt, abound with great variety of fiſh: almoſt every day one or more of a new ſpecies were brought to Mr. Banks. The bay is admirably adapted for catching theſe fiſh, being full of ſmall iſlands, between which there is ſhallow water, and proper places for drawing the ſeine. The ſea without the bay abounds with dolphins, and large mackarel of different kinds, which readily bite at a hook; and the inhabitants always tow one after their boats for that purpoſe.

Soon after the ſhip left the harbour ſome of the people hooked a ſhark, and, while they were playing it under the cabin window, it threw out, and drew in, ſeveral times, what appeared to be its ſtomach. It proved to be a female, and, upon being opened, ſix young ones were taken out of it: five of them were alive, and ſwam briſkly in a tub of water; but the ſixth appeared to have been dead ſome time.

The banks of the ſea, and of the ſmall brooks, which water this part of the country, are almoſt covered with ſmall crabs. Some of theſe had one of the claws called by naturaliſts the hand, very large; others had them both remarkably ſmall, and of equal ſize; a difference which is ſaid to diſtinguiſh the ſexes, that with the large claw being the male.

In this country is a variety of birds, eſpecially ſmall ones, many of them adorned with the moſt beautiful plumage. Among theſe is the humming bird, equal to any heretofore deſcribed.

There is as great a variety of inſects, ſome of which are very beautiful, eſpecially the butterflies, which being more nimble than thoſe of Europe, many of them flew near the tops of trees, and were, therefore, very difficult to be caught, except when the ſea-breeze blew freſh, which kept them nearer the ground.

The ſea, a league or two diſtant from this place, was obſerved to be covered with broad ſtreaks of a yellowiſh colour, ſeveral of them a mile long, and three or four hundred yards wide. Some of the water thus coloured was taken up, and found to contain innumerable atoms, pointed at the end, of a yellowiſh colour, and none of them the fortieth part of an inch long. In the microſcope they appeared to be ſmall fibres, interwoven with each other; but whether they were animal or vegetable ſubſtances, or for what they were deſigned, our naturaliſts could not determine.

The mines, in which the riches of the place conſiſt, our people ſuppoſed to lie far up the country, though they could never learn where, or at what diſtance; for the ſituation is concealed as much as poſſible; and troops are continually employed in guarding the roads that lead to them. It is almoſt impoſſible for any man to get a ſight of them, except thoſe who are employed there. Indeed, the ſtrongeſt curioſity would ſcarcely induce any man to attempt it; for whoever is found upon the road to them, if he cannot produce undeniable evidence of his having buſineſs there, is immediately hanged upon the next tree.

The gold from theſe mines is acquired at an expence of life, that muſt ſtrike every man with horror to whom cuſtom has not rendered it familiar. No leſs than 40,000 Negroes are annually imported, on the king's account, to dig in the mines: and *Captain Cook* was credibly informed, that the laſt year but one before he arrived here, this number fell ſo ſhort, probably from ſome epidemic diſeaſes, that 20,000 more were draughted from the town of Rio.

Such a plenty of precious ſtones is found here, that a certain quantity only is allowed to be collected in a year. To collect this quantity a number of people are ſent into the country where they are found, and when it is got together, which ſometimes happens in a month, ſometimes in leſs, and ſometimes in more, they return; and after that, whoever is found in theſe diſtricts, on any pretence, before the next year, is put to death.

Diamonds, topazes, and ſeveral ſorts of amethyſts, are found here. Our people did not ſee any of the diamonds, but were informed, that the viceroy had a large quantity by him, which he would ſell on the king of Portugal's account, but not at a leſs price than they were ſold for in Europe. Mr. Banks purchaſed a few pazes and amethyſts. Of the topazes there are three ſorts of very different value, which are diſtinguiſhed here by particular names. They are ſold, large and ſmall, good and bad, together, by octavos, or the eighth part of an ounce; the beſt at four ſhillings and nine-pence. All dealing, however, in theſe ſtones, is prohibited the ſubject under the moſt ſevere penalties. There were jewellers here formerly, who purchaſed and worked them on their own account. About fourteen months before the arrival of our people, orders came from the court of Portugal that no more ſtones ſhould be wrought except on the king's account. The jewellers were ordered to bring all their tools to the viceroy, and left without any means of ſubſiſtence. The people employed here to work ſtones for the king are ſlaves.

To reſtrain the people from travelling into the country, or getting into any diſtrict where gold or diamonds may be found, of both which there are more than the government could otherwiſe ſecure, certain bounds are preſcribed them at the diſcretion of the viceroy, ſometimes at a few, and ſometimes at many miles diſtance from the city. On the verge of theſe limits a guard conſtantly patroles, and whoever is found beyond it is immediately ſeized and thrown into priſon; and if a man is, upon any pretence, taken up by the guard without the limits, he will be ſent to priſon, though it ſhould appear he did not know their extent.

The current coin here is either that of Portugal, conſiſting chiefly of thirty-ſix ſhilling pieces, or pieces both of gold and ſilver, which are ſtruck at this place. The pieces of ſilver, which are very much debaſed, are called petacks, and are of different value, and eaſily diſtinguiſhed by the number of rees that is marked on the outſide. Here is alſo a copper coin, like that in Portugal, of five and ten ree pieces. A ree is a nominal coin of Portugal, ten of which are equal in value to about three farthings ſterling.

With reſpect to manufactures, none were ſeen or heard of here, except that of common hammocks, in which people are carried about as they are with us in ſedan chairs; and theſe are principally, if not wholly, fabricated by the Indians.

The inhabitants of this place, which are very numerous, conſiſt of Portugueſe, Negroes, and Indians, the original natives of the country. The Indians, who are employed to do the king's works in this neighbourhood, can ſcarcely be conſidered as inhabitants. Their reſidence is at a diſtance, from whence they come by turns to their taſk, which they are obliged to perform for ſmall pay. The guard boat was conſtantly rowed to theſe people, who are of light copper colour complexions, and have long black hair.

Though the government here, as to its form, is mixed, it is, in fact, very deſpotic. It conſiſts of the viceroy, the governor of the town, and a council. Without the conſent of this council, in which the viceroy has a caſting vote, no judicial act ſhould be performed; yet both the viceroy and governor frequently commit perſons at their own pleaſure; and ſometimes ſend them to Liſbon, without acquainting their friends or family with what is laid to their charge, or where they may be found.

The military eſtabliſhment here conſiſts of twelve regiments of regular troops, ſix of which are Portugueſe, and ſix Creoles, and twelve other regiments of provincial militia. To the regulars the inhabitants behave with the utmoſt ſubmiſſion. *Captain Cook* was told, that if any one ſhould neglect to take off his hat upon meeting an officer, he would immediately be knocked down. Theſe haughty ſeverities render the people extremely civil to any ſtranger who has the appearance of a gentleman. But the ſubordination of the officers themſelves to the viceroy is enforced with circumſtances equally mortifying, for they are obliged to attend in his hall three times every day to aſk his commands. The anſwer conſtantly is, "There is nothing new." *Captain Cook* was told that this ſervile attendance is exacted to prevent their going into the country, and remarks upon the occaſion, that, if ſo, it effectually anſwers the purpoſe.

With regard to the women, it is on all hands agreed, that the females of the Portugueſe and Spaniſh ſettlements in South America, are leſs averſe to granting amorous favours than thoſe of any other civilized part of the globe. According to Dr. Solander's account, as ſoon as the evening began, females appeared on all ſides, in every window, and particularized thoſe of the male ſex they liked by giving them noſegays. The Doctor, and two other gentlemen, received ſo many of theſe bouquets, that they threw handfuls away. *Captain Cook*, upon this occaſion, very candidly obſerves, that great allowance muſt be made for local cuſtoms; that which in one country would be an indecent familiarity, being a mere act of general courteſy in another; and that, therefore, he had only to ſay, he was confident of the truth of the fact thus related.

The churches are very fine; and there is more religious parade in this place than in any of the Popiſh countries of Europe. There is a proceſſion in ſome pariſh or other every day, with various inſignia, all ſplendid and coſtly in the higheſt degree. They beg money, and ſay prayers in great form, at the corner of every ſtreet.

While the Engliſh lay here one of the churches was rebuilding, and, to defray the expence, the pariſh to which it belonged had leave to beg in proceſſion through the whole city once a week, by which very conſiderable ſums were collected. At this ceremony, which was performed by night, all the boys of a certain age were obliged to aſſiſt, the ſons of gentlemen not being excuſed. Each of theſe boys was dreſſed in a black caſſock, with a ſhort red cloak hanging about as low as the waiſt, and carried in his hand a pole about ſix feet long, at the end of which was tied a lantern. The number of lanterns was generally above 200, and the light they gave was ſo great, that the people, who ſaw it from the cabin window, thought the town had been on fire.

The inhabitants, however, may pay their devotions at the ſhrine of any ſaint in the calendar without waiting till there is a proceſſion; for before almoſt every houſe there is a little cupboard, furniſhed with a glaſs window, in which one of the titulary powers is waiting to be propitious; and to prevent his being out of mind, by being out of ſight, a lamp is kept conſtantly burning before the window of his tabernacle in the night. The people, indeed, are by no means remiſs in their devotions, for, before theſe ſaints they pray and ſing hymns with ſuch vehemence, that, in the night, they were diſtinctly heard on board the ſhip, though ſhe lay at the diſtance of at leaſt half a mile from the town.

The churches here afford an aſylum to criminals in caſes of murder. It is related, that as *Captain Cook's* cockſwain was one day looking at two men who appeared to be talking together in a friendly manner, one of them ſuddenly drew a knife, and ſtabbed the other, who not inſtantly falling, the murderer drew out the weapon, and ſtabbed him a ſecond time. He then ran away, and was purſued by ſome Negroes, who were alſo witneſſes of the fact; but whether he eſcaped, or was taken, *Captain Cook* never heard.

Rio de Janeiro is a very good place for ſhips to put in for refreſhment. The harbour is ſafe and commodious, and proviſions, except wheaten bread and flour, may eaſily be procured. As a ſuccedaneum for bread, there are yams and caſſava in plenty. Beef, both freſh and jerked, may be bought at about twopence-farthing a pound, though, as before obſerved, it is very lean. The method of jerking beef here is by taking out the bones, cutting it into large thin ſlices, then curing it with ſalt, and drying it in the ſhade. It eats well, and, if kept dry, will remain a long time at ſea. Mutton is ſcarcely to be procured, and hogs and poultry are dear. There is abundance of garden-ſtuff and fruit, of which, however, none can be preſerved at ſea but the pumpkin. Rum, ſugar, and molaſſes, all excellent in their kind, may be had at a reaſonable price. Tobacco is cheap, but not good.

Ships water at the fountain in the great ſquare, tho', as before remarked, the water is not good. The caſks are landed upon a ſmooth ſandy beach, about an hundred yards diſtant from the fountain; and, upon application to the viceroy, a centinel may be appointed to look after them, and clear the way to the fountain where they are to be filled.

Here is a good yard for ſhip-building, and a ſmall hulk to heave down by: for as the tide never riſes above ſix or ſeven feet, there is no other way of coming at a ſhip's bottom.

Fernambuco, the chief town of the province to which it gives name, is a very conſiderable place. It is alſo called Rerief, or Arraiſe, from a neighbouring harbour of that name, which is now the ſtrongeſt in all Braſil, a number of forts being erected all round, and the acceſs naturally ſo intricate and dangerous, by that the aſſiſtance of a ſkilful pilot is abſolutely neceſſary to avoid them.

There are many more towns in Braſil, and ſome of them conſiderable; as Olinda, in the province of Fernambuco; Paraiba, St. Vincent, Tamora, or Tamarica, and Sierra, in the provinces ſo named; Belem, or Para, in the province of Paria; and Maragnano, in an iſland and captainry of that name, towards the northern extremity of Braſil.

About 30 miles north of the province of St. Vincent, which is the moſt ſouthern of Braſil, lies the little republic of St. Paul, ſurrounded by lofty mountains and thick foreſts. This ſtate was originally compoſed of outlaws from all the neighbouring colonies, Spaniards, Portugueſe Creoles, Meſtizoes, Mulattoes, and Negroes, who took refuge on this ſpot, and lived at firſt without order, ſociety, faith, honour, or religion; preying upon each other, and ſubſiſting by mutual rapine, and the plunder of their neighbours; but the inconveniences attending this way of life, and the danger to which it expoſed them, ſoon drove them into confederacies, and theſe, at laſt, produced a regular democracy. If they were more numerous, they would be formidable to the Portugueſe colonies; but as they are not reputed above 4 or 5000, and want firearms, they give no apprehenſions, and conſequently no attempts are made to reduce them. At preſent, this little community claims entire independence; though they pay an annual tribute to the king out of their gold mines, rather to preſerve commercial benefits than to acknowledge his ſovereignty. It was the tyranny of the Braſilian government that gave birth to this little ſtate, which is at length grown ſo jealous of its liberty, that no ſtranger is ſuffered to ſet foot within its dominions, outlaws and run-away ſlaves excepted. The convicts from Braſil are tranſported to the iſland of St. Catherine's, which is ſituated in 27 deg. 35 min. ſouth lat. and though appropriated to this purpoſe, is one of the moſt delightful ſpots imaginable, being about 27 miles long, and ſix broad.

Of the natives in Braſil, the moſt conſiderable tribes are, the Tapoyers and Topinamboys; of whom the former inhabit the northern, and the other the ſouthern parts.

parts. The former are men of a good ſtature, of a dark copper colour, their hair black, and hanging over their ſhoulders; but they ſuffer no hair on their bodies or faces, and go almoſt naked. Their ornaments are, glittering ſtones, hung upon their lips or noſtrils, and bracelets of feathers upon their arms: the men have alſo a cap or coronet of feathers.

The complexion of the Topinamboys are not ſo dark as their northern neighbours, who live nearer the line; and neither the one or the other as thoſe of the Africans, who lie under the ſame parallels. The native Braſilians are partly freemen, and partly ſlaves; but the negro ſlaves are much more valuable, being of a more robuſt conſtitution, and fitter for labour.

The Braſilians have been repreſented as very ſavage, devoid of all principles in religion, cruel in war, and cannibals, or devourers of fleſh; but theſe ſtories are generally looked upon as fictions of the Portugueſe, to juſtify their cruel and inhuman treatment of them. They believe in certain inviſible beings, the diſpenſers of good and evil, the rewarders and puniſhers of virtue and vice; and their notion with reſpect to a future ſtate is, that after death they ſhall viſit their anceſtors, dwelling beyond the Andes; but they have no temples. Their prieſts make them believe, that if they bring them offerings, thoſe inviſible beings, who give them food and all the good things they enjoy, will proſper their affairs, but if they neglect this, ſome terrible miſfortune will befall them. They have caciques who rule them in peace, and lead them in war. Their towns are without walls; their mode of carrying on war is by ambuſcades, and their weapons are bows, arrows, ſhields, and wooden clubs.

HISTORY OF BRASIL.

THIS country was firſt ſeen by Americus Veſpucius in 1489, but not planted till 1549, when the Portugueſe fixed themſelves at the Bay of All Saints, and founded the city of St. Salvador. The Portugueſe met with very great interruption in their ſettlement from the court of Spain, who conſidered the country as part of their dominions, till at length it was agreed that they ſhould poſſeſs all thoſe parts lying between the rivers Amazon and Plata, which they ſtill enjoy.

The French made an attempt to plant colonies on this coaſt, but were driven from thence by the Portugueſe, who remained without a rival till the year 1580, when their king, the great Don Sebaſtian, loſt his life in an expedition againſt the Moors in Africa, by which event a period was put to the liberty of the Portugueſe, their kingdom being abſorbed into the Spaniſh dominions.

After this the Dutch made bold and vigorous attempts to extend their power, attacked the poſſeſſions of the Portugueſe in the Eaſt Indies, and at length turned their arms upon Braſil, took ſeveral of its provinces, and would have ſubdued the whole country, had they not been ſtopped in their victorious career by the Archbiſhop Don Michael de Texira, at the head of a few ſcattered forces. The Dutch owed their conqueſts in Braſil to the famous Prince Maurice of Naſſau, whom they appointed governor of Fernambuco: but their Weſt India Company, to whom this colony was ſubject, diſapproving the meaſures of Prince Maurice, treated him with indignity, and thereby obliged him to reſign his government.

A change of fortune upon this took place; and, in 1654, the Dutch were totally expelled Braſil by the Portugueſe. But as they ſtill continued their pretenſions to the colony, the Portugueſe agreed, in 1661, to pay them an enormous ſum to relinquiſh their intereſt, which being accepted, the Portugueſe remained in peaceable poſſeſſion of the country till the cloſe of the year 1762, when the Spaniſh governor of Buenos Ayres, hearing that war was declared between Spain and Portugal, beſieged and took the fortreſs of St. Sacrament, which, by the treaty of peace, was ſoon afterwards reſtored to the Portugueſe.

CHAP. XV.

FRENCH AND DUTCH DOMINIONS IN SOUTH AMERICA.

SECTION I.

FRENCH GUIANA.

THAT part of Guiana that belongs to the French extends about 240 miles along the coaſt, from Cape Orange, in the latitude of 4 deg. 27 min. north, to the river Marani, in latitude 6 deg. 46 min. north. The ſettlements are not extended above twenty miles from the ſea-coaſt, the inland country being ſtill inhabited by the native Indians, of whom a particular account will be given in our deſcription of Dutch Guiana, or Surinam, which is ſeparated from French Guiana by the river Marani. The land along the coaſt is low and marſhy, and the climate of courſe unhealthy. But on the higher parts, where the trees are cut down, and the ground laid out in plantations, the air is healthy, and the heats are greatly mitigated by the ſea breezes.

The chief ſettlements of the French in Guiana are ſituated in the Iſle of Cayenne, which lies 100 miles weſt of Cape Orange, at the mouth of a river of the ſame name. It is about 45 miles in circumference, well wooded and watered, admirably cultivated, and extremely fertile in ſugar, tobacco, Indian corn, plants, fruits, and other neceſſaries of life. But the French fort, which ſtands at the bottom of the harbour, has no other freſh water than what is ſaved from rain in large ciſterns. On the eaſtermoſt part of the iſland are the town and fort of St. Douis. The town contains about 200 houſes, occupied by mechanics and tradeſmen, and the fort has a good garriſon.

The French firſt eſtabliſhed themſelves here in 1633. The place was afterwards poſſeſſed alternately by the Engliſh, then by the French again, to whom ſucceeded the Dutch, but the French finally prevailed, and ſtill keep it.

SECTION II.

DUTCH GUIANA.

THAT part of Guiana belonging to the Dutch is diſtinguiſhed by the appellation of Surinam. This country was formerly the property of the Engliſh. The Dutch took it in the reign of Charles II. and it was ceded to them by treaty in 1674, in exchange for what they had poſſeſſed in the province now called New York.

The only diviſions of the ſeaſon known here is into wet and dry; of which there are annually two, of about three months duration each. The exceſſive rains render the ſoil too rich, ſo that the canes being too luxuriant to make good ſugar are, during the firſt and ſecond crops, converted into rum. In the elevated parts

parts bloſſoms and green and ripe fruit are to be found on the ſame tree throughout the year.

The climate of this country is by no means diſagreeable or unhealthy; for the trade winds by day, the land breezes in the evening, and the invariable length of the nights, with refreſhing dews, render the air temperate and ſalubrious.

Beſides trees and plants belonging to other countries, the Simaraba tree, peculiar to Guiana, is eſteemed a ſpecific in dyſenteries. The carunce is a pernicious nut, the powder of which the Indians conceal unde their nails till they have no opportunity of putting it into the food or drink of thoſe they wiſh to poiſon.

There is an extraordinary animal here peculiar to the country, called laubba, an amphibious creature, about the ſize of a ſmall pig. The head and feet are like thoſe of a pug dog, but it is without a tail. The monkies of this country are innumerable, and their ſpecies various. Here are bats twice as large as ours, and without tails. Moſt people in Guiana ſleep in hammocks, as being more ſecure from ſerpents and poiſonous inſects; but this does not ſecure them from the bats which approach any part of the body that is uncovered, generally the feet, open a vein, and ſuck the blood till they are ſatisfied. There is alſo peculiar to Guiana a large venemous toad, called the pipa. Its young are bred in the back of the male, where the female depoſits the eggs.

There is ſo great a variety of beautiful birds in Guiana, that ſeveral perſons in the Dutch colony employ themſelves and their ſlaves in killing and preſerving birds for the cabinets of Europe.

Moſt of the fiſhes of Guiana alſo are common to it with other countries. The torporific eel, when touched either by the hand, or by a rod of iron, gold, ſilver, copper, or by a ſtick of ſome particular kinds of heavy American wood, communicates a ſhock reſembling that of electricity.

Guiana abounds in ſerpents of various kinds. There is one ſort, not venomous, that meaſures ſometimes above thirty feet in length, and three in circumference. It has a taper tail armed with two claws, like thoſe of a dunghill cock. Small deer have been found in their ſtomachs. There are alſo ſome of thoſe called amphis bæna.

The inſects of Guiana are innumerable, owing to the conſtant warmth and humidity of the climate.

The inhabitants of Guiana are either natives, who are of a reddiſh brown, or negroes and Europeans, or a mixed progeny of theſe in various combinations. The natives are divided into different tribes, more or leſs enlightened, and poliſhed as they are more or leſs remote from the ſettlements of the Europeans. They allow polygamy, and have no diviſion of lands. The men go to war, hunt and fiſh: the women look after domeſtic affairs. Their arms are bows, arrows, clubs, and poiſoned darts blown through a reed. They go almoſt naked, excepting upon particular occaſions; when they ornament their heads with feathers. They are chearful, humane and friendly; but timid, and addicted to drinking.

Their houſes are quadrangular, conſiſting of four ſtakes with croſs poles, and are covered with leaves. They ſet them up, pull them down, and carry the whole with them at pleaſure; as their dwellings are light, and their lives ambulatory. They bury their dead naked, and get drunk at the funeral to bury their ſorrows. When the body has been interred a ſufficient time for the fleſh to be rotten they take up the bones, diſtribute them among the relations and friends of the deceaſed, and again get drunk to teſtify their reſpect for the memory of the deceaſed. Their wants are eaſily ſupplied, and their vices are but few. Continence before marriage is not conſidered as a virtue; a man cares not whether the woman he marries is a virgin or not; but no injury is ſo ſurely revenged as the infidelity of a wife.

Nothing is cultivated here by the natives but plantains, caſſava and yams; and one month's cultivation is ſufficient for all theſe. The men are all hunters, and they can always find game or fiſh, if they prefer it, without danger or toil. They dreſs it by boiling, either in water or in the juice of caſſava, and ſeaſon it very high with kyan, or red pepper. The only ſet time of eating is the evening, when they return from hunting: in general, they eat when they are hungry. They ſcarce know ſalt, but ſometimes preſerve animal food by ſmoak-drying it. Their drink is water, or a fermented liquor, prepared from the plantain, called pievoree: when they have plenty of this they are continually drunk; ſo that their indolence and improvidence, by preventing a conſtant ſupply, become public and private bleſſings.

As ſupplying the wants of nature in ſo fertile and delightful a country takes up but a ſmall portion of their time, they fill up the intervals by various amuſements: they bathe and ſwim in the rivers, in large companies, ſeveral times a day, without paying any regard to diſtinction of ſex; and they ſwim ſo well, that they may be almoſt reckoned among amphibious animals. At other times they viſit each other, and are mutually entertained with the ſimple occurrences of their lives, and a great variety of fables, which are merry, ſignificant and moral. Sometimes they dance, and frequently burſt into immoderate laughter; and ſometimes they recline indolently in their hammocks, where they not only ſleep, but eat, converſe, and play, blow a kind of ruſtic flute, pluck out the hair of their beards, or admire themſelves in looking-glaſſes.

The women ſuffer nothing in child-birth, which is attended neither with danger or pain. The mother and child, immediately after delivery, are plunged into the water, and the next day ſhe returns to her domeſtic employment, as if nothing had happened. The children are fed, and during their infancy no other care is taken of them; none are ſickly or deformed: the boys, as they grow up, attend their fathers in hunting, and the girls aſſiſt their mothers. In old age they become wrinkled; but never either bald or grey. As they have no method of computing time to any number of years, their age cannot be aſcertained; but there is ſufficient reaſon to conclude, that their lives are long.

In all their traffic with each other, or with the Europeans, they eſtimate every thing by their preſent want of it; they will at one time demand a hatchet, for what at another time they will exchange for a fiſh-hook.

Theſe happy people live together upon terms of perfect equality, having no diſtinction but of age, or perſonal merit; neither have they any diviſion of property: each amicably participates the ample bleſſings of a delightful and extenſive country: envy, fraud, and violence are precluded, natural deſires are immediately and innocently indulged, and government rendered wholly unneceſſary.

The States of Holland, to whom the colony of Suriman originally belonged, made it over to the Dutch Weſt-India company; but that company not being in a condition to ſend thither the neceſſary ſupplies, made over a third part of their ſhare to the magiſtrates of Amſterdam, and another third part to Mynheer Van Aarſens, lord of Sommelſdyk. Hence this colony is the joint property of the Weſt-India company, the city of Amſterdam, and the lord of Sommelſdyk, but the ſovereignty is inveſted in the ſtates-general. Accordingly five directors of this colony are choſen by the city of Amſterdam, four by the Weſt-India company, and one by the lord of Sommelſdyk, but the governor muſt be approved by the ſtates-general as well as by the directors. The whole colony is at preſent in a very flouriſhing condition, and carries on a great trade in various commodities.

Surinam, the capital, gives name to the adjacent diſtrict, which is at leaſt 100 miles in circumference. It ſtands on a river of the ſame name, which is navigable for near 100 miles up the country, and commanded by ſeveral forts, particularly that of Zelandria, ſituated

about six miles from the entrance; near which fortress is the small town of Paramairambo.

About 32 leagues from Surinam is the colony of Berbice, so called from a river of the same name. Fort Nassau is the seat of government.

There are several settlements and plantations on the river Conya, which form a part of the colony of Berbice.

We might here mention, as connected with Surinam, the Dutch colonies of Demerary and Issequibo, on the Spanish main, which surrendered to the British arms in 1781, and were represented as a very valuable acquisition; but the report seems not to have had much weight, for the colonies were left in a defenceless state, and soon after retaken by a French frigate.

CHAP. XVI.

DOMINIONS IN SOUTH AMERICA IN POSSESSION OF THE NATIVES.

SECTION I.

AMAZONIA.

THIS extensive country derived its name from the Spaniards under the command of Orellana, being opposed by troops of women when they entered the river. The female warriors vied in heroism with the men; and from this circumstance the country was called Amazonia, or the country of the Amazons.

It is bounded on the north by Terra Firma, on the south by Praguay or La Plata, on the east by part of Brasil and the Atlantic Ocean, and on the west by Peru. It is 1200 miles in length, and 960 in breadth.

We have already mentioned the river of the Amazons as the largest in the known world, and shall only add, that, in the long course of this prodigious river, which is 5000 miles, there are several straits, or narrow passages, where the velocity of the current is very great.

No European nation has made any settlement in this country. Indeed, very little of it is known, except along the west banks of the river, and the west frontiers of the Portuguese colonies in Brasil.

The air is cooler here than might be well expected so near the equator, which proceeds from the heavy rains, that occasions the river to overflow their banks one half of the year; and from the cloudy weather, and shortness of the days, which never exceed twelve hours. A brisk easterly wind also cools the air, which blows from the Atlantic Ocean quite through the country, so strong, that vessels are thereby enabled to sail against the stream, and perform a voyage up the river Amazons almost as soon as down it, which requires eight or ten months. Here are terrible storms of thunder and lightning during the time of the rains.

The face of the country is very beautiful, and the soil fertile, producing cocoa-nuts, ananas or pine-apples, guavas, bananas, and other tropical fruits; cedar; iron wood, so called from its weight and density, red wood, oak, ebony, logwood, and many other sorts of dying woods and drugs; together with cotton, tobacco, sugar, maize, cassava root, yams, potatoes, sarsaparilla, and canela, or spurious cinnamon.

They have store of excellent honey, balm, wild fowl, and venison, in the woods, which also abound with tygers, wild boars, buffalos, &c. The honey is exquisite, and the balm good against all wounds. Parrots are as numerous here as pigeons in England. They have vast numbers of fish of all sorts in the rivers and lakes; and, among others, manatees, or sea-cows, that are amphibious, and feed on the banks; and tortoises of a large size and a delicate taste: but the fishers must be upon their guard against crocodiles, alligators, and water-serpents.

The natives, like almost all the Americans, are of a good stature, have handsome features, long black hair, and copper complexions. They have a taste for the imitative arts, especially sculpture and painting, and are good mechanics. Their cordage is made of the barks of trees, their sails of cotton, their hatchets of tortoise-shells or hard stones; their chissels, plains, and wimbles, of the teeth and horns of wild beasts; and their canoes are hollowed trees. They spin and weave cotton garments themselves; and their houses and huts are of wood, thatch, and clay. Their arms, in general, are darts and javelins, bows and arrows, with targets of cane or fish-skins. They are such good archers, that they kill fish in the water with their arrows, which they eat without bread or salt. The several nations are governed by their chiefs or caciques; for it is observable, that the monarchical form of government has prevailed almost universally, both among the ancient and modern barbarians, as requiring by far a much less refined policy than the republican system. The regalia by which the chiefs are distinguished are a crown of parrots feathers, a chain of lyons teeth or claws about their middle, and a wooden sword in their hand. Both sexes sometimes wear mantles of the skins of beasts or cotton, but generally go naked. In some districts the men thrust pieces of cane through their ears and under lips, and hang glass beads to the gristles of their noses, which bob to and fro when they speak; but in others they wear plates of gold at their ears and nostrils. All these nations allow of polygamy, or a plurality of wives and concubines; and the women here, as in the other American nations, do the most laborious work. They worship the images of their ancient heroes, or subordinate deities; but have no temples, or orders of priests among them.

Here are a people called Omaguas, who, to render their children what they call beautiful, flat the fore and hind parts of the head, which gives them a monstrous appearance. This practice is strictly kept up among them; and they make a jest of the other inhabitants of Amazonia calling them *calabash-heads*.

HISTORY OF AMAZONIA.

GONZALO Pizarro, brother to the famous adventurer Marquis Pizarro, conqueror of Peru, was the first who undertook to explore the climes of Amazonia. Preparatory to the expedition, he raised an army, composed of some Spanish veterans, horse and foot, together with about 4000 Indians. The latter were principally employed in carrying the baggage, and driving a great number of Indian sheep, hogs, &c. before them, for the subsistance of the army by the way. Thus prepared, he set out from Quito about Christmas, in the year 1539. A dreadful earthquake, and a terrible storm, which lasted near fifty days, greatly impeded his march, and many of his Indians died through the severity of the weather. After surmounting innumerable difficulties, they arrived at a province called Cumaco, where they found plenty of provisions, a great number of cinnamon trees, and many naked inhabitants. Here Gonzalo left the principal part of his people, taking with him only a few of the most active to search for a pass into the neighbouring country; for hitherto they had been enveloped with mountains and woods, through the latter of which they were forced to cut their way, and in the former they endured astonishing hardships.

With

With inexpreſſible labour and ſuffering they came at length to a province, called Cuca, which was more populous than any they had formerly paſſed. Here proviſions were plentiful, and the cacique, or king of the country, came in a peaceable manner to welcome them, and brought them proviſions.

In theſe parts they remained two months, in expectation of the arrival of thoſe Spaniards, whom they had left in Cumaco, and had directed to follow them by ſuch traces and marks as they ſhould find of the way they had taken before them. Their companions being come up and refreſhed after their journey, they marched by the banks of a great river, for the ſpace of 50 leagues, in all which way they neither found bridge or ford.

At length they came to a place, where the whole river falls from the top of a rock about 200 fathoms high, which cataract makes a noiſe that is heard about ſix leagues from the place; at which though the Spaniards were amazed, yet it was much more wonderful to ſee above 40 or 50 leagues lower, that immenſe quantity of water contracted and ſtraitened within a channel made by one great rock. This channel is ſo narrow, that from one ſide to the other, it is not above 20 feet wide; but ſo high, that the top where the Spaniards made their bridge was 200 fathoms from the water. Gozalo Pizarro, and his captains, conſidering there was no other paſſage to be found on the river, and that it was neceſſary to paſs to the other ſide, becauſe the country was barren on that ſide where they were, agreed to make a bridge over the top of the rock.

The Indians, on the oppoſite ſide, though few in number, ſtoutly defended the paſs, but were driven from it by the fire of the muſkets. The paſs being now clear, the Spaniards fell to work on the bridge of timber, which coſt much labour before the firſt beam could be paſſed over to the oppoſite rock; by the help of which, a ſecond was more eaſily laid, and then other pieces of timber; ſo that by degrees they formed a bridge, over which both men and horſes paſſed ſecurely: after this they marched by the ſide of the river over mountains covered ſo thick with wood, that they were forced to open their way again with hatchets. Through theſe difficulties they came at length to a country called Guema, where the Spaniards, and their Indian ſervants, were forced to ſuſtain themſelves with herbs and roots, and with tender ſprouts of trees. Thus with famine and perpetual rains many of the Spaniards fell ſick and died. They arrived afterwards at a country, where the natives were more civilived than in the former. Theſe eat maize, or Indian corn, and clothed themſelves with garments of cotton; but ſtill the climate was ſubject to violent rains.

While they ſtaid in this place they ſent out parties every way, to ſee if they ſhould diſcover a better country; but they met with nothing but wild mountains full of dogs, lakes and mooriſh grounds, over which was no paſſage. Hereupon they reſolved to build a brigantine, to ferry over from one ſide of the river to the other, which was become two leagues broad. In order to this, the firſt thing to be done was to ſet up a ſmith's forge, for nails and iron work, which they made of the ſhoes of the horſes they had killed for food, and ſome iron bars they had carryed with them; but iron was now become more ſcarce than gold.

Gonzalo Pizarro, though chief commander, was the firſt that laid his hand to an ax to hew down the timber, and to make charcoal, which was requiſite to forge the iron, and always the moſt forward in every menial office, that by thus given a good example, none might take occaſion to excuſe himſelf. The roſin, which iſſued from certain trees, ſerved them inſtead of pitch, and their old ſhirts and rags were made uſe of inſtead of oakum, to caulk the ſeams of their veſſel, which being in this manner finiſhed, they launched into the water with great joy and triumph, imagining that hereby they ſhould quickly eſcape out of all their dangers and difficulties. But it proved otherwiſe, for a few days ſhewed the contrary, and gave them cauſe to repent that they had ever made it.

All the gold they had gathered, which amounted to above the value of 100,000 pieces of eight, with abundance of emeralds, ſome of which were of great value, as alſo their iron and iron work, and whatſoever was of any eſteem, they loaded in their veſſel: and ſuch as were weak and ſick, and not able to travel, were alſo put on board. Then after a journey almoſt of 200 leagues, they departed from this place, taking their courſe down the ſtream, ſome by water, and others by land, keeping ſuch a convenient diſtance from each other, that at night they always joined and lodged together, which journey was performed with great difficulty; for thoſe on the land were forced to open a great part of the way with hatchet and bill, and thoſe on the water were put to hard labour, to keep the veſſel from being forcibly carried down by the current from the company on ſhore. When at any time their paſſage was interrupted by ſome mountain, ſo that they could not keep near the river, they ferried to the other ſide by help of their veſſel, and four canoes they had made; but this was a great hindrance to them, and very grievous to men ſtarving and periſhing with hunger.

Having in this manner, travelled for the ſpace of two months, they at length met with certain Indians, who by ſigns, and ſome words which they underſtood by their Indian ſervants, gave them intelligence, that about ten days journey from thence they would find a country well peopled, ſtocked with proviſions, and abounding with gold and other riches, of which they were in purſuit; and further ſignified to them, that this country was ſituated on the banks of another great river, which joined and fell into that wherein they now were. The Spaniards being encouraged with this news, Gonzalo Pizarro made Franciſco de Orellena captain of his brigantine, and put fifty ſoldiers on board giving them orders to paſs down the ſtream to that place where the two rivers met, and that there leaving the goods he had then on board, he ſhould load his veſſel with proviſions, and return towards them with all ſpeed imaginable, to relieve them in their diſtreſs; many of the Spaniards being already dead, and more Indians, who from 4000 were now reduced to half the number.

Accordingly to theſe orders, Franciſco de Orellana entered on the voyage, and in the ſpace of three days without oars or ſail, only by force of the current, was carried to the confluence of the two rivers, mentioned by the Indians, but found no proviſions there: whereupon Orellana, pretending it was impoſſible to return to Pizarro againſt the ſtream, reſolved to ſet up for himſelf; to continue his voyage to the mouth of the river, and then go over into Sprin and obtain the government of thoſe countries for himſelf; but this cruel reſolution was oppoſed by many of thoſe who were then with him. They told him plainly, that he was not to exceed the orders of his captain-general, and that it was inhuman to forſake his companions in their great diſtreſs, knowing how uſeful and neceſſary that brigantine was to them. In this point, none was more zealous than friar Gaſpar Carvajal, and a young native of Badajoz, named Hermando Sanchez de Vargas, whom thoſe of the contrary opinion made their chief, and were ſo warm in their debates on this ſubject, that the quarrels had come to blows, had not Orellana, with fair words, appeaſed the tumult: however, he managed ſo artfully afterwards with thoſe who had oppoſed his intentions, that he inticed them all over to his party; and then rudely treated the friar, whom he had expoſed to the ſame famine and miſery, (had it not been for reſpect to his habit and profeſſion) as he did Sanchez de Vargas, whom he left in that deſert, encompaſſed with high mountains on the one ſide, and a great river on the other, to periſh by famine.

Franciſco

Franciſco de Orellana afterwards found ſome proviſions amongſt the natives on the river below; but becauſe the women came out at firſt with their huſbands to oppoſe his landing, he gave it the name of the River of Amazons.

Proceeding yet farther down the river, they found theſe Indians more civil than the other, who received them amicably, admiring the brigantine, and men ſo ſtrangely habited. Theſe treated the Spaniards hoſpitably, and furniſhed them with as much proviſion as they had occaſion for. Orellana remained here, therefore ſeveral weeks, and built another brigantine, for they were very much ſtreightened for room in the firſt; and having fitted it up as well they were able, they adventured out to ſea, ſailing along the coaſt of Caribbiana, about 200 leagues to the northward, till they arrived at the iſland of the Holy Trinity, having eſcaped ſuch dangers that they often gave themſelves over for loſt. At this iſland Orellana brought a ſhip, with which he ſailed into Spain, where he requeſted his majeſty's commiſſion, for the requeſt and government of the country of the Amazons, as he thought proper to ſtile it.

To make his enterprize appear the more deſirable, he alledged, that it was a country abounding with gold, ſilver, and precious ſtones, and in teſtimony thereof produced the riches which he had brought with him; whereupon his majeſty granted the requeſt he made, for the government of what he ſhould conquer there; and Orellana was joined by 500 volunteers, the greateſt part of them men of rank, with whom he embarked at St. Sucar, for the river Amazon, in the year 1554; but he loſt one of his ſhips in his voyage thither, and met with ſo many difficulties and misfortunes before he had ſailed 100 leagues up the river, that he abandoned the enterprize, and died on his return home.

Gonzalo Pizarro, who was left in ſuch diſtreſs after Franciſco de Orellana ran away with the brigantine, firſt built 10 or 12 canoes, and then floats to paſs from one ſide of the river to the other, as often as his march was interrupted by impaſſable mountains or moraſſes, and proceeded in that manner down the river, in hopes to meet the brigantine they had diſpatched for proviſions. At the end of two months they arrived at the point where two rivers met; but inſtead of their brigantine, and the proviſions they expected to meet with they found only Hernan de Vergas, who, with conſtancy of mind becoming a man of honour, had endured, with great reſolution, famine, and all the miſeries, to which he was expoſed in that ſolitude. From him they received a particular account of the villainy of the perfidious Orellana, which Pizarro could ſcarce credit, having hitherto repoſed an entire confidence in him.

The general, however, cheared his men, and encouraged them with hopes of better fortune; telling them, that they ought, like Spaniards, to bear with equality of mind theſe labours and diſappointments; that the more danger, the more honour, and the greater their renown would be in hiſtory, which would tranſmit the fame of their adventures to future ages. The ſoldiers, obſerving the chearfulneſs of their general, who had moſt cauſe to reſent Orellana's uſage, took heart, and continued their march by the banks of the river, ſometimes one ſide, and ſometimes on the other.

But the difficulty of carrying the horſes over upon floats (for there ſtill remained about 50 of them) cannot be expreſſed, and more than the famine they were expoſed to. However, the Indians who remained alive ſerved their maſters with great faithfulneſs and affection in theſe extremities, bringing them herbs, roots and wild fruit; ſnakes and other vermin they found in theſe mountains, all which went down with the Spaniards; nor could they have ſubſiſted without ſuch kind of food.

Gonzalo Pizarro, being now reſolved to return to Peru, left the river, and took his way more to the northward, which proved ſhorter by 100 leagues than the way they came, but no leſs difficult, being forced frequently to cut their way through the woods; and for want of other proviſions they now cut up all their remaining horſes and dogs; for the 4000 Indians, who uſed to purvey for them, all died in this expedition; and there were but 80 Spaniards who returned to Quito alive, and theſe almoſt without cloaths, and ſo ſunburnt and emaciated with the fatigue and want of food, that their neareſt friends ſcarce knew them.

With ſuch inſupportable hardſhips and hazards did the firſt Spaniſh adventurers ſtruggle in ſearch of gold, even when they had before acquired enough to have ſatisfied the moſt boundleſs avarice. Gonzalo Pizarro, who was one of the proprietors of the mines of Potoſi, had not amaſſed leſs than 1,000,000 of crowns before he entered upon his expedition.

Peter de Orſua, who afterwards obtained a commiſſion from the governor of Peru, in the year 1550, to ſubdue the provinces bordering on the river Amazon, embarked on the river Xauxa in Peru with 700 armed Spaniards, and 200 Indians, and ſailed down the ſtream 200 or 300 leagues, till he came to the confluence of the two rivers Amazon and Xauxa, and continuing his voyage afterwards 200 leagues farther, was killed in a mutiny of his men, which put a period to that enterprize.

Several other adventures made the like attempts afterwards, but moſt of them proved unfortunate, till two monks and ſome ſoldiers, who ſet with John de Palacios from Quito in Peru, in the year 1635, and embarking on the river Amazon, where it firſt becomes navigable, ſailed the whole length of it, till they arrived at Paria in Braſil, which lies in the ſouth ſide of the mouth of this great river: but their captain John Palacious was killed in a ſkirmiſh with the natives in their paſſage.

The friars having given an account of their voyage to the governor of Braſil, he ordered ſloops and boats to be provided, on which he embarked 70 Portugueſe and 2000 Indians; and in October 1637 ordered them to ſail up the river, under the command of Texeira, a mariner of great ſkill and experience, who, by the help of the eaſterly wind, which generally blows here, ſailed up againſt the current, till he arrived at Les Reys, a town of Quito in Peru; but the river not being navigable hither for his veſſels, he left them there, and went by land to the city of Quito, where he was kindly received by the Spaniſh governor, and furniſhed with whatever he wanted to facilitate his return to Braſil. The governor ſent two Spaniſh jeſuits down the river with him, ordering them to embark for Spain, when they arrived at Braſil, and communicate the obſervations they ſhould make in this voyage to the Catholic majeſty; and embarking again at Les Reyes, on the river Amazon, with the two jeſuits, in the month of February 1638-9, arrived at Paria in Braſil the December following; from whence the jeſuits went over to Spain, and publiſhed a narrative of their voyage in 1640.

SECTION II.

TERRA MAGELLANICA, OR PATAGONIA.

THIS country, which lies a little to the northward of the Straits of Magellan, was called by the Spaniards Terra Magellanica, as are the Straits denominated the Straits of Magellan, from Ferdinando Magellan, a Portugueſe of that name in the ſervice of Spain, who diſcovered them in the year 1520.

The appellation of Patagonia was derived from a principal tribe of its inhabitants called Patagons. The whole country, which goes under the name of Patagonia, extends from Chili and Paraguay to the utmoſt extremity of South America, that is, from 35 almoſt to 45 deg. of ſouth lat. being 700 miles long and 300 broad where wideſt. The lofty mountains, called the

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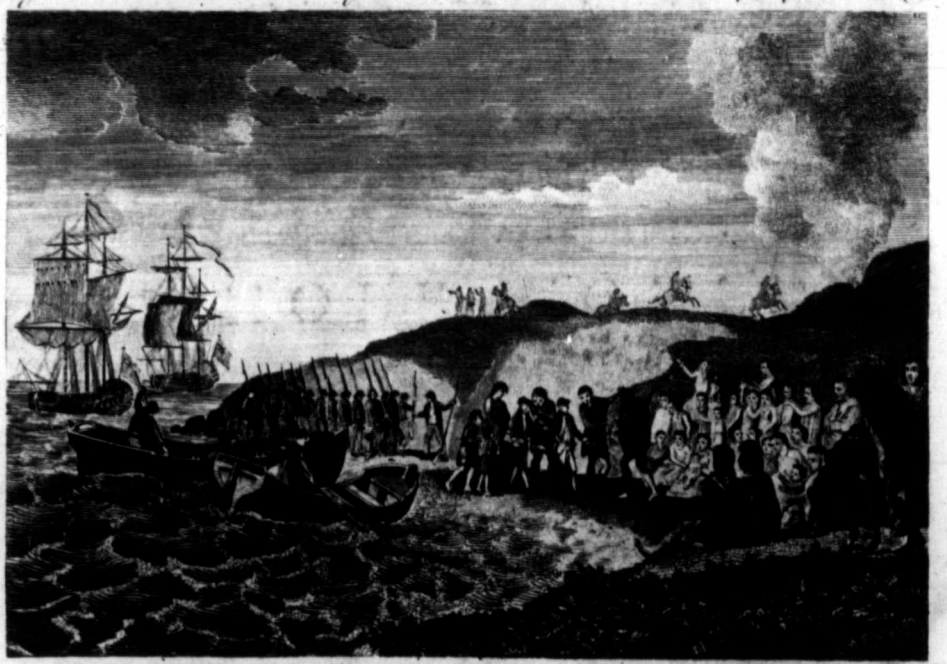

Interview between Commodore (now Lord) BYRON *and the Natives of*
PATAGONIA.

People of TERRA DEL FUEGO, *with their Habitations.*

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Andes, traverse the whole country from north to south. The northern parts contain an almost inexhaustible stock of large timber; but in the southern districts scarce a tree (fit for any mechanical purpose) is to be seen.

Here is good pasturage, and incredible numbers of wild horned cattle and horses, which were brought hither by the Spaniards, and have increased amazingly. The east coast is mostly low land, with few or no good harbours. One of the best is Port St. Julian.

Patagonia is inhabited by a variety of Indian tribes, as the Patagons, from which the country takes its name, the Pampas, the Coffares, &c.

The country and inhabitants of Patagonia are mentioned by an Italian author, who wrote an account of Magellan's voyage round the world; but the most accurate, authentic, and interesting details, are those of Commodore, afterwards Admiral Byron, and Captain Wallis, who have ascertained several points which before were matters of doubt, and from whom we shall give the following conjunctive account.

Interview with the Natives. Description of their Persons. Dress, and Weapons. Food. Language. Visit from the Natives. Productions of the Country, &c.

COMMODORE BYRON relates, that when he came to anchor on this coast, about two miles from the shore, he could plainly see with his glass a number of horsemen, riding backwards and forwards directly a-breast of the ship, and waving something white, as an invitation to the people to come on shore. In consequence of this, the Commodore, attended by some of his officers and seamen, advanced in his boat towards the beach, and, on a near approach, saw about 500 people, some on foot, but the greater part on horseback. They drew up upon a stony spot, and kept waving and hallooing, which our people supposed were invitations to land.

According to the account of the voyage of the Wager, this was the spot where the crew, as they were passing the Strait in their boat, after the loss of the vessel, saw a number of horsemen, who waved what appeared to be white handkerchiefs, inviting them to come on shore, which they wished to have done, but were prevented by a gale of wind, that obliged them to stand out to sea. The writer says, they were in doubt whether these people were Europeans wrecked on the coast, or natives of the country.

Though no weapons were seen among the natives, the Commodore deemed it prudent to make signs that they should retire to a little distance, with which they immediately complied. They continued to shout most vociferously; and the Commodore having landed with his people, drew them up upon the beach, with his officers at their head, giving strict orders that none of them should quit their station till he should give the signal. He then advanced alone towards the Indians, and, perceiving that they retreated, made signs that one of them should come near. Accordingly a person, who afterwards appeared to be a chief, approached. He was of gigantic stature, and seemed to realize the tales of monsters in human shape. He was not measured, but the Commodore judged, from the proportion of his stature to his own, that it could not be much less than seven feet.

When this frightful Colossus came up, he and Mr. Byron muttered something to each other as a salutation. The Commodore then walked with him towards his companions, to whom, as he advanced, he made signs to sit down, and they all readily complied. There were among them many women, who seemed to be proportionably large; and few of the men were less than the chief who came forward to meet the Commodore. He had heard the voices of the savages very loud at a distance, and when he came near, perceived a great number of very old men, who were chanting some unintelligible words in the most doleful cadence, with an air of serious solemnity, which inclined him to think that it was a religious ceremony.

Having looked round upon these enormous goblins with no small astonishment, and, with some difficulty, made those that were still galloping up sit down with the rest, the Commodore took out a quantity of yellow and white beads, which he distributed among them, and which they received with very strong expressions of pleasure. He then took out a whole piece of green silk ribbon, and giving the end of it into the hand of one of them, made the person that sat next take hold of it, and so on as far as it would reach. During this time they sat very quietly; nor did any of those that held the ribbon attempt to pull it from the rest; though it was easily perceived that they were still more delighted with it than with the beads. While the ribbon was thus extended, Mr. Byron took out a pair of scissars, and cut it between each two of the Indians that held it, so that he left about a yard in the possession of every one, which he afterwards tied about their heads, where they suffered it to remain, without so much as touching it, while he was with them. Their peaceable and orderly behaviour on this occasion did them honour, especially as the presents could not extend to the whole company. Neither impatience to share the new finery, or curiosity to gain a nearer view of what was doing, brought any one from the station allotted them.

It appeared evident to Mr. Byron, that the Indians on whom he had conferred these ornamental presents were not entirely strangers to European commodities, as, upon a nicer observation, he remarked one woman who had bracelets, either of brass or very pale gold, upon her arms; and some beads of blue glass, strung upon two long queues of hair, which, being parted at the top, hung down over each shoulder before her. She was of a most enormous size, and her face most hideously painted. The Commodore endeavoured, by every possible means, to learn where she procured the beads and bracelets, but could not effect it through want of being sufficiently understood.

It would be very natural for those who have read Gay's Fables, if they form an idea of an Indian almost naked returning to his fellows in the woods adorned with European trinkets, to think of The Monkey who had seen the World: yet before we despise their fondness for glass beads, ribbons, and other things which are held in no estimation among us, we should consider that, in themselves, the ornaments of savage and civil life are equal; and that those who live nearly in a state of nature have nothing that resembles glass so much as glass resembles a diamond. The value which we set upon a diamond is more capricious than the value which they set upon glass. The love of ornament seems to be an universal principle in human nature; and the splendid transparency and regular figure of a bead are the qualities that, by the constitution of our nature, excite pleasing ideas; and although in one of these qualities the diamond exceeds the glass, its value is much more than in proportion to the difference. The pleasure which it gives among us is principally by conferring distinction and gratifying vanity, which is independent of natural taste, which is gratified by certain hues or figures, to which, for that reason, we give the name of beauty. It should be remembered, that an Indian is more distinguished by a glass button or a bead, than any individual among us by a diamond; though, perhaps, the same sacrifice is not made to his vanity, as the possession of his finery is rather a testimony of his good fortune than of his influence or power, in consequence of his having what, as the common medium of all earthly possessions, is supposed to confer virtual superiority and intrinsic advantage.

One of the men produced the bowl of a tobacco-pipe, which was made of a red earth; but the Commodore soon perceived they had no tobacco among them. Indeed, this man gave him to understand that he wanted some. Upon this he beckoned to his people, who had remained upon the beach drawn up in the order he had

left them, and three or four of them ran forward, ſuppoſing that he wanted them. The Indians, who had been obſerved to keep their eyes continually upon them, no ſooner ſaw ſome of them advance, than they all roſe up with a great clamour, and were leaving the place, as imagined, to get their arms, which were probably left at a little diſtance. To prevent miſchief, and put an end to the alarm, the Commodore ran to meet the people, who were advancing in conſequence of the ſignal given, and told them, as ſoon as he was got within hearing, that he would have only one of them come up with all the tobacco he could collect from the reſt. When the Indians perceived this they recovered from their ſurprize, and every one returned to his ſtation, except a very old man, who came up to the Commodore and ſung a long ſong. Before the ſong was well finiſhed, an officer came up with the tobacco, and indicated a laughable aſtoniſhment in his countenance, upon perceiving himſelf, though ſix feet two inches high, become at once a pigmy among giants.

After the Commodore had preſented the tobacco, four or five of the chief men came up to him, and, as he underſtood by the ſigns they made, wanted him to mount one of the horſes, and go with them to their habitations; but as it would have been highly imprudent to comply, ſigns were made to them, that the Commodore muſt return to the ſhip, at which they expreſſed much concern, and ſat down in their former ſtations.

During this dumb-ſhew conference an old man often laid his head down upon the ſtones, and, ſhutting his eyes for about half a minute, afterwards pointed firſt to his mouth, and then to the hills, meaning, as the Commodore imagined, that if he would ſtay till the morning, they would furniſh him with ſome proviſions; but this offer he was obliged to decline. When he left them not one of them offered to follow, but, as long as they could be ſeen, continued quiet in their ſtations.

Commodore Byron's deſcription of his firſt interview with the natives of Patagonia is, in general, confirmed by that of Captain Wallis, who viſited this country two years after him. That navigator relates, that, when he approached Cape Virgin Mary, he ſaw ſeveral men riding upon the point of it, who made ſignals for the people on board to come aſhore. Having anchored in a bay cloſe under the ſouth ſide of the Cape, the natives continued a-breaſt of the ſhip all night, making great fires, and frequently ſhouting very loud. At day-light great numbers of them were ſeen in motion, making ſignals for our people to land.

Having taken the neceſſary precautions, and left particular orders on board to bring the ſhip's broadſide to bear upon the landing-place, Captain Wallis went in his barge, attended by ſome officers and men, properly armed, and having reached the beach, before he left the barge made ſigns to the natives to retire to ſome diſtance, with which they immediately complied.

Captain Wallis having landed with ſeveral officers, and ordered the marines to be drawn up, made ſigns to the natives to approach, and directed them to ſit down in a ſemi-circle, which they did with great order and cheerfulneſs. The Captain then diſtributed among them ſeveral knives, ſciſſars, buttons, beads, combs, and divers toys, particularly ſome ribbons to the women, which were received with equal pleaſure and reſpect.

After the diſtribution of theſe preſents, Captain Wallis endeavoured to make them underſtand that he had other things to diſpoſe of, but expected ſome articles in return. He then cauſed ſome hatchets and bill-hooks to be produced, and pointed to ſome guanicoes that happened to be near, and ſome oſtriches which he ſaw dead among them, making ſigns that he wanted to eat at the ſame time; but they either could not, or would not, underſtand him; for though they ſeemed very deſirous of the hatchets and bill-hooks, they gave not the leaſt intimation that they would give any proviſion in return. Theſe people, in general, had horſes.

With reſpect to the perſons of the natives, Commodore Byron expreſſes the higheſt admiration at ſeeing 500 people, the ſhorteſt of whom were at leaſt four inches taller than any even of thoſe of extraordinary ſtature among us, all bulky in proportion to their height; whereas with us ſcarcely any bear that proportion; and a man who ſhould meaſure only ſix feet two inches, and equally exceed a ſtout well-ſet man of common ſtature in breadth and muſcle, would ſtrike us rather as a giant than an individual of ordinary form.

Captain Wallis, at his firſt interview with the natives, cauſed thoſe that appeared to be the talleſt among them to be meaſured. One of theſe was ſix feet ſeven inches high; and ſeveral were ſix feet five and ſix feet ſix inches. They were well made, robuſt, and bony; but their hands and feet were remarkably ſmall. Their complexion was a dark copper colour, like that of the Indians in North America. Their hair was ſtraight, and nearly as harſh as hogs briſtles. It was tied back with a cotton ſtring: but neither ſex wore any head-dreſs. Their teeth were very white, even, and well ſet.

The chief who firſt came up to Commodore Byron had the ſkin of ſome wild beaſt thrown over his ſhoulders, as a Scotch Highlander wears his plaid, and was painted ſo as to make the moſt hideous appearance he had ever beheld. Round one eye was a large circle of white, a circle of black ſurrounded the other, and the reſt of his face was ſtreaked with paint of different colours. The whole group ſeen by the Commodore were painted and cloathed nearly in the ſame manner. The circles round the two eyes were in no inſtance of one colour; but they were not univerſally black and white, ſome being white and red, and ſome red and black. Except the ſkins, which they wore with the hair inwards, moſt of them were naked; a few only of them having a kind of boot upon their legs, with a ſhort pointed ſtick faſtened to each heel, which ſerved as a ſpur.

It appears from the account of Captain Wallis, that the chief cloathing of theſe people is compoſed of the ſkins of the guanico, ſewed together into pieces about ſix feet long and five wide. Theſe are wrapped round the body, and faſtened with a girdle, with the hairy ſide inwards. Some of them had a ſquare piece of cloth, made of the downy hair of the guanico, through which a hole being cut for the head, the reſt hung round them as low as the knee. They are deſcribed by Captain Wallis as wearing the buſkins, or boots, and painting themſelves in the *outré* manner mentioned by Commodore Byron, with this difference only, that the eye-lids of all the young women were painted black.

The Patagonians commonly carry a miſſile weapon of a ſingular kind tucked into a girdle. It conſiſts of two round ſtones, covered with leather, each weighing about a pound, which are faſtened to the two ends of a ſtring about eight feet long. This is uſed as a ſling, one ſtone being kept in the hand, and the other whirled round the head till it is ſuppoſed to have acquired ſufficient force, and then diſcharged at the object. They are ſo expert in the management of this double-headed ſhot, that they will hit a mark not larger than a ſhilling with both the ſtones, at the diſtance of fifteen yards. It is not, however, their cuſtom to ſtrike either the guanico or the oſtrich with them in the chace, but they diſcharge them ſo as that the cord comes againſt the legs of the oſtrich, or two of the legs of the guanico, and is twiſted round them by the force and ſwing of the balls, ſo that the animal, being unable to run, becomes an eaſy prey to the hunter.

With reſpect to food, our people, while they ſtaid on ſhore, obſerved the natives eat ſome of their fleſh meat raw, particularly the paunch of an oſtrich, without any other preparation or cleaning, than juſt turning it inſide out, and ſhaking it.

The natives talked much, and ſome of them called out to Mr. Wallis Ca-hi-ta-ne; but when they were ſpoken to in Spaniſh, Portugueſe, French and Dutch, they

they made no reply. Our people could diſtinguiſh only one word of their own language, which was Chevow. They ſuppoſed it to be a ſalutation, as they always pronounced it when they ſhook hands with them, and when by ſigns they aſked for any thing. When they were ſpoken to in Engliſh they repeated the words with eaſe, and got by heart the words "Engliſhmen, come on ſhore."

The diſpoſition of theſe people will be beſt diſplayed by a recital of their deportment during the incidents which occurred on their viſit to Capt. Wallis on board his ſhip.

When a propoſal was made to them by ſigns that the Captain would take ſome of them on board if they were deſirous to go, about one hundred eagerly offered to viſit the ſhip; but it was not deemed prudent to admit more than eight of the number. They jumped into the boat with the joy and alacrity of children going to a fair, and having no intention of miſchief againſt our people, diſcovered no apprehenſion of harm from them. They ſang ſeveral of their country ſongs while they were in the boat, and when they came on board did not expreſs either the curioſity or wonder which the multiplicity of objects, to them equally ſtrange and ſtupendous, that at once preſented themſelves, might be ſuppoſed to excite. When taken down into the cabin they looked about with great indifference, till one of them happened to caſt his eyes upon a looking-glaſs, which afforded them infinite diverſion. They advanced, retreated, and played a thouſand tricks before it, laughing exceſſively, and talking very earneſtly to each other. Some beef, pork, biſcuit, and other articles of the ſhip's proviſions, being ſet before them, they eat of them indiſcriminately; but would drink nothing but water.

When conducted throughout the ſhip, they looked at nothing with much attention except the animals. They examined the hogs and ſheep with ſome curioſity, and were delighted to the higheſt degree with the Guinea hens and turkies. They did not ſeem to deſire any thing except apparel, and only one of them, an old man, aſked for that. Captain Wallis gratified him with a pair of ſhoes and buckles, and gave to each of the others a canvas bag, in which were put ſome needles ready threaded, a few ſlips of cloth, a knife, a pair of ſciſſars, ſome twine, a few beads, a comb and a looking-glaſs, with ſome new-ſix-pences and half-pence, through which a hole had been drilled that was fitted with a ribbon to hang round the neck. They were offered ſome leaves of tobacco rolled up into what are called ſegars. They ſmoaked a little, but did not ſeem to enjoy it. When they were ſhewn the great guns, they did not appear to have any notion of their uſe. When the marines were drawn up in order to go through part of their exerciſe, and the firſt volley was fired, they were ſtruck with aſtoniſhment and terror. The old man, in particular, threw himſelf on the deck, pointed to the muſkets, and then ſtriking his breaſt with his hand lay ſome time motionleſs with his eyes ſhut. By this it was ſuppoſed he meant to indicate that he was not unacquainted with fire-arms and their fatal effects. The reſt, ſeeing the crew merry and finding themſelves unhurt, ſoon reſumed their chearfulneſs, and heard the ſecond and third volley fired without much emotion; but the old man continued proſtrate upon the deck ſome time, and never recovered his ſpirits till the firing was over.

Being made to underſtand by ſigns that the ſhip was proceeding farther, and that they muſt go on ſhore, they diſcovered much reluctance to comply: all, however, except the old man and one more, were got into the boat without much difficulty; but theſe ſtopped at the gang-way, where the old man turned about, went towards the ſtem, and ſtood ſome time without ſpeaking. He then uttered what was ſuppoſed to be a prayer, as he frequently lifted up his hands and eyes to the heavens, and ſpoke in a manner and tone different from what had been obſerved in their common converſation. His prayer ſeemed to be rather ſung than ſaid, ſo that our people could not diſtinguiſh one word from another.

When Captain Wallis intimated to him that it was expedient for him to go into the boat, he pointed to the ſun, and then moving his hand round to the weſt pauſed, looked in his face, laughed, and pointed to the ſhore. By this it was eaſy to underſtand that he wiſhed to ſtay on board till ſun-ſet, and no little pains were taken to convince him of the neceſſity of his going into the boat. At length, however, he went over the ſhip's ſide with his companion, and when the boat put off they all began to ſing, and continued their merriment till they got on ſhore. When they landed, great numbers of thoſe on ſhore preſſed eagerly to get into the boat; but the officers on board having poſitive orders to bring none of them off, to their great mortification, prevented them.

The moſt remarkable animal of this country is the Guanico, which in ſize, make, and colour, reſembles a deer; but it has a hump on its back, and no horns. They are very ſhy and very ſwift. Some parts abound with ſeals, of which upon one ſpot our people killed above fifty, many of them larger than a bullock. The tygers here are very ravenous. A part of the ſhip's crew being ſent on ſhore to fetch ſome guanicos, which had been ſhot the night before, they found nothing left except the bones, the tygers having devoured the fleſh, and even cracked the bones to come at the marrow. An officer upon an excurſion ſhot a tyger-cat, a ſmall but very fierce animal, for though it was much wounded, it maintained a very ſharp conteſt with a dog for a conſiderable time before it was killed. There are abundance of hares, the fleſh of which is very white and of excellent flavour. A great number of dogs were ſeen with the natives, which were ſuppoſed to be kept for the purpoſe of chaſing the wild animals which ſerve them for food. The horſes were well made and nimble, and in general fourteen hands high. Theſe as well as the dogs ſeemed to be of a Spaniſh breed. The horſe furniture were, a ſaddle, ſtirrups and bridle. The men had wooden ſpurs. One in particular was obſerved to have a large pair of ſuch as are worn in Spain. The women had no ſpurs. They rode aſtride, and, as well as the men, evinced great reſolution and dexterity in horſemanſhip, for they fearleſsly galloped over a ſpot where the ſtones were very looſe and ſlippery.

In ſome parts of the country birds are ſo numerous, that Commodore Byron ſays, when they roſe they literally darkened the ſky; and as they walked, the eggs were ſo numerous that they trod upon them. Among the reſt was one very remarkable for its plumage and magnitude. The head reſembled that of an eagle, except that it had a large comb upon it. Round the neck was a white ruff exactly reſembling a lady's tippet, the feathers on the back were as black as jet, and as bright as the fineſt poliſh could render that mineral. The legs were remarkably ſtrong and large, the talons were like thoſe of an eagle, except that they were not ſo ſharp, and the wings, when extended, meaſured from point to point no leſs than eight feet. The oſtrich is very large here, and conſtitutes part of the food of the natives. Our people eat of their eggs, and thought them very good.

There ſeemed to be plenty of fiſh on the coaſt, and many porpoiſes were ſeen ſwimming after the ſhips, that were as white as ſnow, with black ſpots, a very uncommon but beautiful ſight.

Of vegetables there is no particular account; indeed, the country is repreſented as being barren in the extreme.

Paſſage

Paſſage up the Straits of Magellan. Account of the Coaſt on each ſide. Incidents. Diſpoſitions, Cuſtoms, Manners, &c. of the Inhabitants.

COMMODORE Byron obſerves, that on his departure from Patagonia, to paſs through the Straits of Magellan, his courſe through the firſt narrow was very rapid, the tide being then remarkably ſtrong. The people ſaw a ſingle Indian on the ſouth ſhore, who kept waving to them as long as they were in ſight. They ſaw alſo ſome guanicoes on the hills, though it had been ſaid by a former navigator that there were none on that ſhore.

The ſhip coming to anchor on account of foul winds off St. Bartholomew's Iſland, ſix Indians came down to the water-ſide, and continued waving and hallooing for a long time; but as our people wanted reſt, the Commodore was unwilling to employ them in hoiſting out a boat, and the Indians, ſeeing their labour fruitleſs, at length departed.

The Commodore going in his boat in ſearch of Freſh Water Bay, landed with an officer upon Sandy Point, where they found plenty of wood and very good water, and for four or five miles the ſhore was exceeding pleaſant. Over the point there is a fine level country, with a ſoil that, to all appearance, is very rich, for the ground was covered with flowers of various kinds that perfumed the air with their fragrance, and among them were berries almoſt innumerable where the bloſſoms had been ſhed. The graſs was very good, and intermixed with a great number of peas in full bloſſom.

Among this luxuriance of herbage were ſeen many hundreds of birds feeding, which, from their form and the uncommon beauty of their plumage, our people called painted geeſe.

In the courſe of their walk, during which the Commodore and officer found great plenty of fine freſh water, though not the bay they ſought for, they fell in with great numbers of the huts or wigwams of the Indians, which appeared to have been very lately deſerted, as in ſome the fires they had kindled were hardly extinguiſhed. They were in little receſſes of the woods, and always cloſe to freſh water. In many places were found plenty of wild celery, and a variety of plants, which might prove of great benefit to ſeamen after a long voyage. The keen air of this place made the people ſo voraciouſly hungry, that they could have eaten three times their allowance: the Commodore was therefore pleaſed to find ſome of them employed in hauling the ſeine, and others on ſhore with their guns. Sixty very large mullets were taken with the ſeine, and the gunners had good ſport, for the place abounded with geeſe, teal, ſnipes, and other birds that were excellent food.

Captain Wallis, on his departure from Patagonia, turned into the Straits of Magellan with the flood tide between Cape Virgin Mary and the Sandy Point that reſembles Dungeneſs. When the ſhip got abreaſt of this point, they ſtood cloſe into the ſhore, where they obſerved two guanicoes, and many of the natives on horſeback, who ſeemed to be in purſuit of them. When the horſemen came near they ran up the country at a great rate, and were purſued by the hunters with their ſlings in their hands ready for the caſt, but neither of them was taken while our people were within ſight.

Having come to anchor about three miles from the ſhore the natives made ſeveral large fires a-breaſt of the ſhip, and at break of day about 400 of them were ſeen encamped in a fine green valley between two hills, with their horſes feeding beſide them.

Obſerving great numbers of the natives on horſes a-breaſt of the ſhip, and being given to underſtand by an officer that this was the place where Commodore Byron had the conference with the tall man, Captain Wallis ſent two officers to the ſhore, but with orders not to land, as the ſhips were at too great a diſtance to protect them. The officers, on their return, reported, that the boat having lain upon her oars very near the beach, the natives came down in great numbers, whom they knew to be the ſame perſons they had ſeen before, with many others, particularly women and children; that when they perceived our people had no deſign to land, they ſeemed to be greatly diſappointed; and thoſe who had been on board the ſhip waded off to the boat, making ſigns for it to advance, and pronouncing the words they had been taught, "Engliſhmen come on ſhore," very loud, many times; that when they could not get the people to land, they were with great difficulty prevented from getting into the boat; that they preſented them with ſome bread, tobacco, and a few toys, pointing, at the ſame time, to ſome guanicoes and oſtriches, and making ſigns that they wanted them as proviſions, but that they could not make themſelves underſtood; and finally, that finding they could obtain no refreſhment, they rowed along the ſhore in ſearch of freſh water; but ſeeing no appearance of a rivulet, they returned on board.

At *Port Famine*, where both our navigators touched, the Spaniards, in the year 1581, built a town, which they called Philippeville, and left in it a colony conſiſting of 400 perſons. When the Engliſh navigator Cavendiſh arrived here in 1587, he found one of theſe unhappy wretches (which was the only one that remained) upon the beach. They had all periſhed for want of ſubſiſtence except 24. Twenty-three of theſe ſet out for the river Plata, and were never afterwards heard of. This man, whoſe name was Hernando, was brought to England by Cavendiſh, who called the place where he had taken him up Port Famine. It is a very fine bay, and ſufficiently capacious for many ſhips to moor in great ſafety. In this place there is very good wooding and watering; and ſuch a quantity of drift-wood, as the Commodore ſaid would furniſh a thouſand ſail. Many fine ſmall fiſh were taken with a hook and line off the ſhip's ſide; and the ſeine was hauled with great ſucceſs in a fine ſandy bay, a little to the ſouthward of Sedger River. A great number of birds, of various kinds, were ſhot, particularly geeſe, ducks, teal, ſnipes, plovers, and race-horſes. The water of Sedger River is excellent, but the boats cannot get in till about the hour of flood, becauſe it is very ſhallow at low water for about three quarters of a mile. Commodore Byron went up it about four miles in his boat, but the fallen trees rendered it impoſſible to go farther. It was found not only difficult, but dangerous, to get up thus far. The ſtream is very rapid, and many ſtumps of trees lie hidden under it. One of theſe made its way through the bottom of the boat, and ſhe was full of water in an inſtant. The boat was got on ſhore, and afterwards, with great difficulty, hauled up upon the ſide of the river, where the hole was ſtopped; ſo that a ſhift was made to get her down to the mouth of the river, where ſhe was properly repaired.

On each ſide of this river are the fineſt trees ever ſeen. Commodore Byron was of opinion that they would ſupply the Britiſh navy with the beſt maſts in the world. Some of them are of a great height, and more than eight feet in diameter, which is proportionably more than eight yards in circumference; ſo that four men joining hand in hand, could not compaſs them. Among others were found the pepper tree, or winter bark, in great plenty.

In the woods, notwithſtanding the coldneſs of the climate, there are abundance of parrots and other birds of moſt beautiful plumage. The Commodore every day ſhot geeſe and ducks enough to ſerve his own table and ſeveral others; and every one on board might have done the ſame. There was, indeed, great plenty of freſh proviſions of all ſorts; for as much fiſh was caught every day as ſerved the whole ſhip's company. Being much on ſhore, the Commodore tracked many wild beaſts in the land, but never ſaw one. Many huts, or wigwams, were found, but not an Indian was met with.

The

The country between Port Famine and Cape Forward, which is diſtant about four leagues, is very fine; the ſoil appears to be pretty good; and there are three large rivers in this part, beſides ſeveral brooks.

While Commodore Byron lay in Port Famine, he went with a party to Cape Forward. On ſetting out they intended to have gone farther, but the weather became ſo bad with heavy rain, that they ſtopped there, and made a great fire to dry their clothes, which were wet through. From the place where they ſtopped the Indians had gone ſo lately, that the wood, which lay half burnt where they had made their fires, was ſtill warm; and ſoon after the fire was kindled they perceived that another was kindled directly oppoſite to it on the Terra del Fuego ſhore, probably as a ſignal, if our people had been Indians, they would have underſtood. The party having dried and refreſhed at the fire, and the rain being abated, they walked acroſs the Cape to ſee how the ſtrait ran, which they found to be about W. N. W. The hills, as far as could be ſeen, were of immenſe height, very craggy, and covered with ſnow from the ſummits to the baſes.

The country along the ſhore to the northward is very pleaſant, the ground being in many places covered with flowers, equally beautiful and fragrant with thoſe in our gardens. Mr. Byron gives it as his opinion, that if it were not for the ſeverity of the cold in winter, this country might, by cultivation, be rendered one of the fineſt in the world.

A ſmall tent had been ſet cloſe to a little rivulet, and juſt at the ſkirts of a wood, where three men had been employed in waſhing. They ſlept on ſhore; but ſoon after ſun-ſet were awakened out of their firſt ſleep by the roaring of ſome wild beaſts, which the darkneſs of the night, and their ſolitary ſituation on this pathleſs deſart, rendered horrid beyond imagination. The tone was deep and hollow, ſo that the beaſts, whatever kind they might be of, were certainly large; and the men perceived that they drew nearer and nearer, as the ſound every minute became more loud. From this time ſleep was renounced for the night; a large fire was immediately kindled, and a conſtant blaze kept up. This prevented the beaſts from invading the tent; but they continued to prowl round it at a little diſtance, with inceſſant howlings, till the day broke, and then, to the great joy of the affrighted ſailors, diſappeared. The latitude of Port Famine is 53 deg. 42 min. ſouth; longitude 71 deg. 28 min. weſt.

The account of Captain Wallis confirms that of Commodore Byron with reſpect to the abundance of proviſions in this place. He ſays, that during his ſhip's ſtay there, they caught fiſh enough to furniſh one meal a-day, both for the ſick and the well. Great plenty of celery was alſo found, and pea-tops, which were boiled with peas and portable ſoup. Beſides theſe were gathered great quantities of fruit, that reſembled the cranberry, and the leaves of a ſhrub, ſomewhat like our thorn, which were remarkably ſour. On the arrival of the ſhip all the crew began to look pale and meagre; many had the ſcurvy to a great degree, and upon others there were manifeſt ſigns of its approach, yet in a fortnight there was not a ſcorbutic perſon on board. The recovery was effected by their being on ſhore, eating plenty of vegetables, being obliged to waſh their clothes, and keep their perſons clean by daily bathing in the ſea.

An officer, who was ſent out in queſt of anchoring places, reported, on his return, that he had been on ſhore at ſeveral places, where he had found plenty of wood and water cloſe to the beach, with abundance of cranberries and wild celery. He had ſeen a great number of currant buſhes full of fruit, though none of it was ripe; and a great variety of beautiful ſhrubs in bloſſom, bearing flowers of different colours, particularly red, purple, yellow, and white, beſides great plenty of the winter's bark, a grateful ſpice, well known to the botaniſts of Europe. He ſhot ſeveral wild ducks, geeſe, gulls, a hawk, and other birds.

Port Egmont, ſo called by Commodore Byron in honour of the Earl, then Firſt Lord of the Admiralty, is one of the fineſt harbours in the world, and ſo capacious, that the whole Britiſh navy might ride in it with perfect ſecurity from all winds. In every part of this port there is plenty of freſh water. Geeſe, ducks, ſnipes, and other birds, are ſo numerous, that the people grew tired of them. Wood, however, is wanting here, except a little that is found adrift along different parts of the ſhore.

Among other refreſhments which are in the higheſt degree ſalutary to thoſe who have contracted ſcorbutic diſorders during a long voyage, here are wild celery and wood-ſorrel in the greateſt abundance. There are alſo muſſels, clams, cockles, and limpets. The ſeals and penguins are innumerable; and the coaſt abounds with ſea-lions, many of which are of an enormous ſize. This animal was found to be very formidable. The Commodore was once attacked by one of them very unexpectedly, and it was with the utmoſt difficulty that he could diſengage himſelf. The people at other times had many battles with them, and it has ſometimes afforded a dozen of them an hour's work to diſpatch one of them. A bite of one of theſe creatures almoſt tore a very fine maſtiff dog to pieces. Nor were theſe the only dangerous animals found here. An officer having been ſent out to ſound the coaſt upon the ſouth ſhore, reported, at his return, that four fierce creatures, reſembling wolves, ran up to their bellies in the water, to attack the people in his boat, and that, as they happened to have no fire-arms with them, they had immediately put the boat off into deep water. On the ſouthern ſhore the officer afterwards found one of the largeſt ſea-lions ever ſeen. As the boat's crew were well armed they immediately engaged him, and, during the conteſt, one of the other animals was ſeen running towards them. He was fired at before he came up, and preſently killed; though the Commodore wiſhed they had taken him alive, which, if they had been aware of his attack, might, he thought, eaſily have been done. When any of theſe creatures got ſight of any of the crew, though at ever ſo great a diſtance, they ran directly at them; and no leſs than five of them were killed in one day. They were always called wolves by the ſhip's company, though, except in their ſize, and the ſhape of their tails, they more reſembled foxes. They are as big as a middle-ſized maſtiff, and their fangs are remarkably long and ſharp. There are great numbers of them upon this coaſt, though it is not eaſy to gueſs how they firſt came thither. They burrow in the ground like foxes; and pieces of ſeal, which they had mangled, were frequently ſeen; and the ſkins of penguins lay ſcattered about their holes. To get rid of theſe creatures the people ſet fire to the graſs; ſo that the country was in a blaze, as far as the eye could reach, for ſeveral days, and they were ſeen running in great numbers to ſeek other quarters.

The Commodore, in the courſe of his paſſage, obſerved at the entrance of Jerom's Sound, on the north ſide, three or four fires, and ſoon afterwards perceived two or three canoes paddling after the ſhip. At length the canoes came up, and one of them had the reſolution to come on board. The canoe was of bark, badly conſtructed, and the people on board, which were four men and two women, the moſt miſerable wretches ever ſeen. They were all naked, except a ſtinking ſeal-ſkin that was thrown looſely over their ſhoulders. They were armed, however, with bows and arrows, which they readily gave in return for a few beads and other triſles. The arrows were made of reed, and pointed with a green ſtone. They were about two feet long, and the bows were three feet. The cord of the bow was the dried gut of ſome animal.

Soon after the ſhip was at anchor a-breaſt of Batchelor's River, ſeveral Indians came on board, and were preſented with beads, ribbons, and other triſles, with which they appeared highly delighted. Commodore Byron returned this viſit by going on ſhore among them,

taking only a few people with him in the boat, that the natives might not be alarmed by numbers. The viſitors were received with great expreſſions of kindneſs, and, to make them welcome, the natives brought ſome berries, which they had gathered for that purpoſe, and which, with a few muſſels, ſeemed to be the principal part, if not the whole of their ſubſiſtence.

The Commodore having ſent out an officer in the boat to look for harbours on the ſouthern ſhore, was informed by the officer, on his return, that near Cape Upright he had fallen in with a few Indians, who had given him a dog, and that one of the women had offered him a child which was ſucking at her breaſt. The offer was refuſed, as more degrading to theſe poor forlorn ſavages than any thing in their appearance or manner of life, as well as an inſtance of the ſtrangeſt depravity of human nature, that leaves them deſtitute of affection for their offſpring, or, a moſt deplorable ſituation, that impels them to neceſſities by which it is ſurmounted.

The Commodore, in the courſe of his paſſage, met with very tempeſtuous weather to the eaſtward of Cape Monday. He ſays, when the ſeaſon is ſo far advanced as it was when he attempted the paſſage of this Strait, it is a moſt difficult and dangerous undertaking, as it blows a hurricane inceſſantly, night and day; and the rain is as violent and conſtant as the winds; with ſuch fogs, as often render it impoſſible to diſcover any object at the diſtance of twice the ſhip's length.

Another officer, ſent out for the ſame purpoſe as the former, having found two anchoring places, reported on his return, that being on ſhore to the weſtward of Cape Monday, he had fallen in with ſome Indians, who had with them a canoe of a conſtruction very different from any that had been ſeen in the Strait before. This veſſel conſiſted of planks ſewed together; but all the others were nothing more than the barks of large trees tied together at the ends, and kept open; and ſhort pieces of wood thruſt in tranſverſely between the two ſides, like the boats which children make of a beanſhell. The people, he ſaid, were the neareſt to brutes, in their manner and appearance, of any he had ever ſeen. They were like ſome which had been met with before, quite naked, notwithſtanding the ſeverity of the weather, except part of a ſeal-ſkin thrown over their ſhoulders. They eat their food, which was ſuch as no other animal but a hog would touch, without any dreſſing. They had with them a large piece of whale blubber, which ſtunk intolerably, and one of them tore it to pieces with his teeth, and gave it about to the reſt, who devoured it with the voracity of a wild beaſt. They did not, however, look upon what they ſaw in the poſſeſſion of our people with indifference; for while one of them was aſleep, they cut off the hinder part of his jacket with a ſharp flint, which they uſe as a knife.

While the ſhip lay at anchor in a bay on the ſouthern ſhore, about a league to the eaſtward of Cape Upright, ſeven or eight Indians, in a canoe, came round the weſtern point of the bay, and having landed oppoſite to the ſhip, made a fire. Our people invited them to come on board by all the ſigns they could deviſe, but without ſucceſs: the Commodore, therefore, took a boat, and went on ſhore to them. He introduced himſelf by making them preſents of ſeveral trifles, with which they ſeemed to be much gratified, and an intimacy came on in a few minutes. Having ſent on board for ſome bread, he divided it among them, and remarked with equal pleaſure and ſurpriſe, that if a bit of the biſcuit happened to fall, not one of them offered to touch it till he gave his conſent. In the mean time ſome of the crew were cutting a little graſs for two or three ſheep ſtill remaining on board. At length the inhabitants, perceiving what they were doing, ran immediately, and tearing up all the weeds they could get, carried them to the boat, which was loaded in a ſhort time. This token of their good will gratified the Commodore, who perceived that they were pleaſed with the pleaſure he expreſſed upon the occaſion. They had, indeed, taken ſuch a fancy to our people, that when they returned on board the boat, they all got into their canoe and followed them. When our people came near the ſhip, however, they ſtopped, and gazed at her with an apparent mixture of aſtoniſhment and terror, till at length, with ſome difficulty, four or five of them were prevailed on to venture on board. As ſoon as they entered the ſhip they received ſeveral preſents, and appeared to be perfectly at eaſe in a ſhort time.

The Commodore being very deſirous to entertain them, one of the petty officers played upon the violin, and ſome of the crew danced. At this they were ſo much delighted, and ſo impatient to ſhew their gratitude, that one of them went over the ſhip's ſide into the canoe, and fetched up a ſeal-ſkin bag of red paint, and immediately ſmeared the fidler's face all over with it. He was very deſirous to pay the Commodore the ſame compliment, which, however, he thought fit to decline; but he made many very vigorous efforts to get the better of his modeſty. It was with ſome difficulty that he defended himſelf from receiving the honour deſigned him in his own deſpite. After having entertained them for ſeveral hours, it was intimated to them that it would be proper for them to go on ſhore; but ſuch was their attachment, that it was by no means an eaſy matter to get them out of the ſhip.

Captain Wallis repreſents the country about Cape Gallant as moſt dreary and forlorn, and the mountains on each ſide the ſtraits as of immenſe height. About one fourth of the aſcent is covered with trees of a conſiderable ſize: in the ſpace from thence to the middle of the mountain there is nothing but withered ſhrubs. Above theſe are patches of ſnow, and fragments of broken rock. The ſummit is altogether rude and naked, towering above the clouds in vaſt crags that are piled upon each other, and look like the ruins of nature, devoted to perpetual ſterility and deſolation. Captain Wallis ſays, that whoever navigates this part of the ſtrait ſhould keep the north ſhore cloſe on board, and not venture more than a mile from it till the Royal Iſlands are paſſed. The current ſets eaſterly through the whole twenty-four hours, and the indraught ſhould by all means be avoided. The latitude of Cape Gallant Road is 53 deg. 30 min. ſouth; longitude 73 deg. 9 min. weſt.

The ſhip having come to an anchor in Elizabeth Bay, which lies in latitude 53 deg. 43 min. ſouth, Captain Wallis ſent the boats on ſhore for water; and ſoon after our people landed, three canoes put off from the ſouth ſhore, and landed ſixteen of the natives on the eaſt point of the bay. When they came within an hundred yards of our people, they ſtopped, called out, and made ſigns of friendſhip. Our people did the ſame, ſhewing them ſome beads and other toys. At this they ſeemed pleaſed, and began to ſhout. Our people imitated the noiſe they made, and ſhouted in return. The Indians then advanced, ſtill ſhouting and laughing very loud. When the parties met they ſhook hands, and our people preſented the Indians with ſeveral of the toys which they had ſhewn them at a diſtance. They were covered with ſeal-ſkins, which ſtunk abominably; and ſome of them were eating the rotten fleſh and blubber raw, with a keen appetite, and great ſeeming ſatisfaction. Their complection was the ſame as that of thoſe our navigators had ſeen before, but they were low of ſtature, the talleſt of them not being more than five feet ſix inches. They appeared to be periſhing with cold, and immediately kindled ſeveral fires. How they ſubſiſt in winter is not eaſy to gueſs; for the weather was at this time ſo ſevere, that there were frequent falls of ſnow. They were armed with bows, arrows, and javelins. The arrows and javelins were pointed with flint, which was wrought into the ſhape of a ſerpent's tongue. They diſcharge both with great force and dexterity, ſcarce ever failing to hit a mark at a great diſtance. To kindle a fire they ſtrike a pebble againſt a piece of mundic, holding under it, to catch the

the ſparks, ſome moſs or down mixed with a whitiſh earth, which takes fire like tinder. They then take ſome dry graſs, and putting the lighted moſs into it wave it to and fro, and in about a minute a blaze will appear.

Three of the natives came on board with the boat, but they ſeemed to regard nothing with any degree of curioſity except clothes and a looking-glaſs. The looking-glaſs afforded them as much diverſion as it had done the Patagonians, and it ſeemed to ſurpriſe them more. When they firſt peeped into it they ſtarted back, firſt looking at our people, and then at each other. They then took another peep, as it were by ſtealth, ſtarting back as before, and then eagerly looking behind it. When by degrees they became familiar with it they ſmiled, and ſeeing the images ſmile in return, they were exceedingly delighted, and burſt into fits of the moſt violent laughter. This, however, they left, and every thing elſe, with perfect indifference, the little they poſſeſſed being, to all appearance, equal to their deſires. They eat whatever was given them, but would drink nothing but water.

Captain Wallis went on ſhore with them when they left the ſhip, and by this time ſeveral of their wives and children were come to the watering-place. He diſtributed ſome trinkets among them, with which they ſeemed pleaſed for a moment, and gave ſome of their arms in return. They alſo gave ſeveral pieces of mundic, ſuch as is found in the tin mines of Cornwall. They gave our people to underſtand, that they found it on the mountains, where there are probably mines of tin, and perhaps of more valuable metal.

As this ſeemed to be the moſt dreary and inhoſpitable country in the world, the people appeared to be the loweſt and moſt deplorable of human beings. Their perfect indifference to every thing they ſaw, which marked the depravity between our ſtate and their own, though it may preſerve them from the regret and anguiſh of unſatisfied deſires, ſeem, notwithſtanding, to imply a defect in their nature, for thoſe who are ſatisfied with the gratifications of a brute can have little pretenſions to the prerogatives of men.

When they embarked in their canoes they hoiſted a ſeal-ſkin for a ſail, and ſteered for the ſouthern ſhore, where our people ſaw many of their hovels, and remarked that not one of them looked behind, ſo little impreſſion had the wonders they had ſeen made upon their minds, and ſo much did they appear to be abſorbed in the preſent, without any habitual exerciſe of power to reflect upon the paſt.

About three miles up Batchelor's River, on the weſt ſide, between Mount Miſery and another mountain of ſtupendous height, there is a cataract which has a very ſtriking appearance. It is precipitated from an elevation of above 400 yards; half the way it rolls over a very ſteep declivity, and the other part is a perpendicular fall. The ſound of this cataract is not leſs awful than the ſight.

The country to the ſouthward of the Strait appeared horrid and dreary beyond deſcription. It conſiſted of craggy mountains much higher than the clouds, that were altogether naked from the baſe to the ſummit, there not being a ſingle ſhrub, nor even a blade of graſs, to be ſeen upon them. The vallies between them were equally deſolate, being entirely covered with deep ſnow, except in a few places where it had been waſhed away, or converted into ice, by the torrents which were precipitated from the crags of the mountains above, where the ſnow had been diſſolved, and even thoſe vallies, in the parts that were free from ſnow, were as deſtitute of verdure as the rocks between which they lay.

Having ſteered for Cape Upright, and anchored in the bay, while the people were employed in getting wood and water, and gathering celery and muſſels, two canoes full of Indians came along-ſide the ſhip. They had much the ſame appearance as the deplorable wretches ſeen before in Elizabeth's Bay. They had on board ſome ſeals fleſh, blubber, and penguins, all of which they eat raw. Some of our people, who were fiſhing with a hook and line, gave one of them a fiſh ſomewhat bigger than a herring, alive, juſt as it came out of the water. The Indian took it haſtily as a dog would take a bone, and inſtantly killed it by giving it a bite near the gills. He then proceeded to eat it, beginning with the head and going on to the tail, without rejecting either the bones, fins, ſcales, or entrails. They ate every thing that was given them indifferently, whether ſalt or freſh, dreſſed or raw, but would drink nothing but water.

They ſhivered with cold, yet had nothing to cover them but a ſeal ſkin thrown looſely over their ſhoulders, which did not reach to their middle, and they were obſerved, when rowing, to throw even this aſide, and ſit ſtark naked. They had ſome javelins rudely pointed with bone, with which they uſed to ſtrike ſeals and penguins, and one of them was obſerved to have a piece of iron about the ſize of a common chiſſel faſtened to a piece of wood, as if intended rather for a tool than a weapon.

They had all ſore eyes, which was imputed to their ſitting over the ſmoke of their fires, and they ſmelt more offenſively than a fox, which, perhaps, was partly owing to their diet, and partly to their natural filthineſs.

Their canoes were about fifteen feet long, three broad, and nearly three deep. They were made of the bark of trees ſewed together either with the ſinews of ſome beaſt, or thongs cut out of a hide. Some kind of ruſh was laid into the ſeams, and the outſide was ſmeared with a gum, which prevented the water from ſoaking into the bark. Fifteen ſlender branches bent into an arch were ſewed tranſverſely to the bottom and ſides, and ſome ſtraight pieces were placed acroſs the top from gunwale to gunwale, and ſecurely faſtened at each end. On the whole, however, it was poorly made, nor had theſe people any thing among them in which there was the leaſt appearance of ingenuity. An hatchet or two were given them, with ſome beads and a few other toys, with which they went away to the northward, and were no more ſeen by any of our people.

A party ſent out in ſearch of anchoring places ſpent a night upon an iſland adjacent to Cape Upright, called Dolphin Bay. They there ſaw ſeveral ſmall coves, which were all dangerous. While they were there ſix canoes landed about thirty Indians, who ran to the boat, and were carrying away every thing they found in her, but our people diſcovered them juſt time enough to prevent them. As ſoon as they found themſelves oppoſed, they went to their canoes, and armed themſelves with long poles and javelins pointed with the bones of fiſh. They did not begin an attack, but ſtood in a threatening poſture. Our people, who were twenty-two in number, acted only on the defenſive, and by parting with a few trifles among them rendered them friends, and induced them to behave peaceably during their ſtay.

After a ſeries of fatigue and hardſhips, Captain Wallis, and thoſe under his command, quitted this dreary and inhoſpitable region, where they were almoſt in perpetual danger of ſhipwreck for near four months, having entered the Straits on the 17th of December 1766, and quitted them on the 11th of April 1767: a region where, in the midſt of ſummer, the weather was cold, gloomy, and tempeſtuous; where the proſpects had more the appearance of a chaos than nature; and where, for the moſt part, the vallies were without herbage, and the hills without wood.

Commodore Byron obſerves, that it is probable thoſe navigators who may read of the difficulties and dangers, which are by him repreſented to attend the paſſage through the Straits of Magellan will conclude, that it ought never to be attempted again; but that all the ſhips which might after him ſail a weſtern courſe from Europe into the South Seas ought to go round

Cape

Cape Horn. He profeſſes himſelf of a different opinion, and thinks that, at a proper ſeaſon of the year, not only a ſingle veſſel, but a large ſquadron, might paſs the Straits in leſs than three weeks; and adds, that, to take the proper ſeaſon, they ſhould be at the eaſtern entrance ſome time in the month of December. As one great advantage of this paſſage, he adduces the facility with which fiſh is almoſt every where to be procured, with wild celery, ſcurvy-graſs, berries, and many other vegetables in great abundance.

Our late celebrated navigator *Captain Cook* declares, that though the doubling of Cape Horn is ſo much dreaded in the general opinion, it is more eligible to paſs than through the Straits of Magellan. The weather was ſo moderate when he doubled that Cape, that the ſhip was not once brought under cloſe-reefed topſails after ſhe left the Strait of Le Maire. He was juſt thirty-three days in coming round the land of Terra del Fuego, or Cape Horn, from the eaſtern entrance of the Strait. He obſerves, that Captain Wallis, in the Dolphin, at the ſame ſeaſon of the year, had been three months in getting through the Straits of Magellan; and is fully perſuaded, that if he had come by that paſſage, his people would have been fatigued, and his anchors, cables, ſails, and rigging, much damaged; neither of which inconveniences he had ſuffered.

Theſe reſpective opinions are ſubmitted to the candid and judicious reader, who will determine upon them accordingly as the mind may be impreſſed by ſcientific or experimental knowledge.

That the reader may form a judgment of the perſons and characters of the original inhabitants of South America in general, we ſhall preſent them with the following deſcription.

All the ancient natives of the country are tawny, of a colour ſomewhat reddiſh, and more or leſs clear. This variety of ſhades in their complexion is probably owing chiefly to the different temperature of the air in the ſeveral climates they inhabit, varying from the intenſe heat of the torrid zone, to the nipping cold cauſed by the vicinity of the ſnows.

This diverſity of climes, with that of woody countries, plains, mountains, and rivers, as alſo the difference of their diet, and the little correſpondence the neighbouring nations have with each other, with a thouſand other cauſes, muſt neceſſarily have produced great variety in the occupations and cuſtoms of theſe people. Beſides, it may eaſily be imagined, that a nation who have been Chriſtians, and ſubject to the crowns of Spain and Portugal for an age or two, muſt inevitably have learned ſome of the manners of their conquerors; and conſequently that an Indian who lives in a town or village of Peru muſt differ from a ſavage in the inner parts of the continent, and even from a new inhabitant of the miſſions lately ſettled on the banks of the Maranon. It would be needful therefore, in order to give any one an exact idea of the Americans, to make almoſt as many deſcriptions as there are nations among them. Nevertheleſs, as all the European nations, though differing among themſelves in tongues, manners, and cuſtoms, would ſtill have ſomewhat in common to all of them in the eyes of an Aſiatic, who ſhould examine them attentively; ſo all the American Indians of the ſeveral countries have certain touches of reſemblance in common with each other; and, ſome ſlight touches excepted, all of them, at the bottom, ſeem to be of one common temper, whereof inſenſibility is the baſis, which, whether it ought to be honoured with the name of apathy, or branded with that of ſtupidity, we leave others to decide.

This undoubtedly proceeds from the ſmall number of their ideas, which extend no farther than their neceſſities. Gluttons even to voracity, when they have wherewith to ſatisfy themſelves; yet moderate when they needs muſt, even to ſhifting without any thing, or ſeeming to deſire aught. Puſillanimous and cowardly to the laſt degree, if drunkenneſs does not tranſport them; enemies to labour; unmoved by any incentive to glory, honour, or gratitude; wholly intent upon the object that is before them, and always determined thereby, without any regard to futurity. Incapable of foreſight and reflection; giving themſelves up, when not under reſtraint, to a childiſh joy, which they expreſs by ſkipping about, and immoderate fits of laughter, without either meaning or deſign: thus they paſs their lives without thought; and grow old without having taken leave of infancy, all the failings whereof they retain.

Having thus given an ample Geographical account and deſcription, not only of the whole continent of America, but likewiſe of the adjoining iſlands, with every New Diſcovery made by the moſt modern, accurate and authentic navigators and travellers, and preſerved every incident and circumſtance we could collect for the entertainment of the Reader, we ſhall conclude our account of this part of the globe with giving a conciſe detail of the particular circumſtances that unfortunately occaſioned the ſeparation of a great part of it from the Mother-country.

Conciſe Hiſtory of the War between GREAT BRITAIN *and* AMERICA; *with its ſubſequent conſequences.*

THE circumſtance that gave riſe to the diſſentions which took place between Great Britain and her American colonies (and which was productive of a tragic progreſs and unfortunate iſſue) was that unpopular act of the Britiſh legiſlature called the Stamp Act.

The firſt commotions were in the province of Maſſachuſetts Bay, and more particularly at Boſton, where the commiſſioners for enforcing the revenue acts, and collecting the monies ariſing therefrom, were badly received, and narrowly eſcaped with their lives. All perſons, directly or indirectly, belonging to government, were looked upon with a ſuſpicious eye; the cool and diſpaſſionate were ſilent, and the commonalty declared they would not be taxed by the Britiſh parliament without their own conſent; that was to ſay, without actual repreſentation. Some of the commiſſioners were compelled, upon oath, to renounce at that time and for ever all concern with theſe taxes. The tax-gatherers were tarred and feathered; the ſhips which carried over the ſtamps were threatened with conflagration unleſs they delivered up the exceptionable parts of their cargoes to be committed to the flames; and, in fine, anarchy ſucceeded amity, and mutual enmity uſurped the place of reciprocal concord.

At length, the inhabitants of Boſton, and ſome other parts of New England, came to a determination not to make uſe of any articles of Britiſh manufacture; and about the beginning of February 1768 the Houſe of Repreſentatives gave their ſanction and authority to this reſolution.

The moſt acrimonious diſputes now took place between many of the inhabitants of New England in general; moſt of the people of Boſton in particular on the one part, and governor Bernard with the loyaliſts on the other. Aggravating things were ſaid, ill-natured actions done, and libels were publiſhed by both parties. Thus a war of ſentiments commenced before real hoſtilities; the obſolete terms of Whig and Tory were revived, and the ſouls of each faction were in arms, previous to any manual exertions of the animoſity that ſubſiſted between them.

In the middle of June 1768, the captain of a ſhallop wanting to run ſome wine, and ill uſing the tide-water, the veſſel was ſeized, and, for better ſecurity, put along-ſide the Romney man of war. This occaſioned a riot, when the comptroller and collector of the cuſtoms took refuge on board the ſaid man of war.

Government, however, in order to conciliate matters as much as poſſible, repealed the ſtamp act; but ſtill the Americans were diſſatisfied; for they inſiſted that

that, though the act itſelf was repealed, yet the ſpirit of it remained, while a revenue was demanded from the colonies. Frequent meetings were continued, riots were frequent, and interreſted perſons fomented the diſputes.

In June, 1768, the governor directed the houſe of repreſentatives at Boſton, to reſcind a reſolution concerning a circular letter to ſome of the other governments, but they refuſing, he diſſolved the aſſembly on the 3d of Auguſt following.

At length it was determined to coerce the Americans, and a body of troops arrived there accordingly, from Halifax, September 30, 1768, eſcorted by ſome ſhips of war.

The riotous proceedings of the Boſtonians increaſing, more troops were ordered to Boſton, and a variety of altercations took place, not only between the governor and the people, but between them and General Gage.

In the beginning of the year 1769, many perſons in the colony of New York thought proper to adopt the ſentiments of the Boſtonians, and to engage in the political ſquabbles which were daily heightening in New England. Other colonies ſoon after acceded to the combination, and, in particular, to the reſolutions for the non-importation of the Britiſh manufactures and Eaſt-India goods: and thus the fire of diſſention increaſed with great rapidity, and the flame of diſcord blazed through the greateſt part of North America.

The Boſtonians now ſummed up a variety of grievances, among which complaints were theſe: "That the civil power was diſregarded, and centinels placed in various parts of the town: That the negroes had been united to take away the lives and properties of their maſters, and to repair to the army for protection: That ſome of the ſoldiers had attacked the magiſtrates of the town: That many ſoldiers had been repeatedly reſcued from the peace-officers: That many perſons had been wounded by the military: And that on the 5th of March, 1770, eleven perſons were either killed, or dangerouſly wounded."

Theſe charges were either denied or palliated by the other party, by the plea of the military being compelled to act as they did, and to defend themſelves; and at the ſame time accuſations, equally attrocious, were brought againſt the people of New England. Some perſons were tried for the murders, but none executed.

Sir Francis Barnard having returned to England, the animoſities and diſputes ſtill continued between the people and Lieutenant-governor Hutchinſon, who remained in his room. But as political ſquabbles are not worthy of recording in a performance of this kind, and acrimonious accuſations, proceeding from prejudice, and propagated by partiality, ought to be conſigned to oblivion, and not introduced into a work of ſcience, we ſhall wave trivial altercations, and only regiſter the more important points of theſe unhappy differences by which the mind may be informed, and the memory will not be oppreſſed.

About the middle of December, in the year 1773, ſome ſhips, laden with tea, being at Boſton, (as a duty was to be paid,) the people would not ſuffer them to be landed. The ſhips being refuſed a clearance by the governor, unleſs the cargoes were landed, and properly diſpoſed of, a mob, dreſſed like Mohawk Indians, entered the three ſhips which contained the tea, and were commanded by the Captains Hall, Bruce, and Coffin, and emptied the cargoes, conſiſting of 342 cheſts of tea, into the water. This, and other outrages, occaſioned the Boſton-Port Bill, paſſed April 4, 1774, by which the town of Boſton was proſcribed and blocked up.

The people of New England now began to form themſelves into companies, practiſe the military arts, enter into ſolemn leagues and covenants, &c. Several of the other colonies followed their example, provincial aſſemblies were held, and a general congreſs eſtabliſhed, to which diſputes from the ſeveral provinces were invited.

Excluſive of Bickerings and animoſities between the Royaliſts and Provincials, and the martial parade of the latter, the next martial tranſaction was the ſeizure of Fort William and Mary, near Portſmouth, in New Hampſhire, by the Provincial militia, in which they found 106 barrels of gunpowder, ſeveral cannon, ſhot, ſmall arms, &c.

General Gage being informed that a great quantity of military ſtores were in the poſſeſſion of the Provincial troops, at the town of Concord, ſent a detachment of troops, under the command of Lieutenant-Colonel Smith, and Major Pitcairn, ſupported by another body, commanded by Lord Percy, in order to ſeize or deſtroy them. This ſervice was effectually performed, after ſome ſkirmiſhes; but on April 19, 1775, the troops were attacked at Lexington, on their return towards Boſton, Several were killed and wounded on both ſides, the Provincials firing from behind ſtone walls, hedges, buſhes, &c.

The Provincials now inveſted the town of Boſton; and the people of New York, hearing of the action at Lexington, and the affair of Concord, roſe in a tumultous manner, entered the town-houſe, ſeized a great many ſtands of arms, appropriated to their own uſe the cargoes of two ſhips laden with military ſtores for General Gage, and then marched to the aſſiſtance of the Boſtonians.

The Provincials not only continued to block up the town of Boſton, but began to raiſe batteries on the heights of the peninſula of Charles Town, in order to cannonade his Majeſty's troops. This brought on the action of Bunker's Hill; for, on the 17th of June, 1775, a conſiderable body of troops, under the command of Major-General Howe, and Brigadier-General Pigot, were ſent to diſlodge the Provincials. This body of forces, with a proportionable quantity of artillery, made good their landing againſt Bunker's Hill, under the protection of the ſhips of war, armed veſſels, floating batteries, &c. and being ſoon after reinforced by another detachment, a deſperate action commenced, in which the Britiſh forces were victorious, the Provincial lines being forced, and themſelves compelled to retreat, leaving behind them ſeveral pieces of cannon, and other military ſtores. The loſs of the Provincials, in killed and wounded, was very great. Of the Britiſh troops, according to the return of General Gage, 226 were killed, and 828 were wounded, ſome of the latter dying ſoon after; and more than a proportionable number of officers being included in both liſts.

At New York, on the night of the 23d of Auguſt, 1775, the cannon were ſeized upon, by order of the congreſs, though the Aſia man of war, which lay in the harbour, tried to prevent it, by cannonading the town.

At the ſame time General Carleton was indefatigable in putting the province of Canada into a proper ſtate of defence. And the earl of Dunmore, governor of Virginia, having thought proper to take refuge on board a ſhip of war, harraſſed the coaſt, and made frequent deſcents upon the laſt mentioned province, laying waſte the country; carrying off, or ſpiking up, a great number of cannon; deſtroying vaſt quantities of military ſtores belonging to the Provincials, &c. &c. But, on the other ſide, Fort St. John ſurrendered to the Provincial forces, on the 3d of Novetnber, 1775, and the garriſon became priſoners.

On the 18th of November, 1775, the Regulars and Provincials had a hot engagement near Savannah, in Georgia, in which the latter were defeated: And on the 31ſt of December, in the ſame year, the Provincial General Montgomery, who had for ſome time laid ſiege to the city of Quebec, attempted to take it by ſtorm. In this attempt, however, he was defeated and ſlain, with ſeveral of his officers, and about 60 private men, and 300 were taken priſoners. On January the 4th, 1776, ſome ſhips of war deſtroyed the town of Norfolk, in Virginia.

General Gage having been recalled, General Howe, who ſucceeded in the command, thought proper to evacuate the town of Boſton, which he effected on the 17th of March, 1776, and made good his landing, and the capture of New York. In June, 1776, a battle was fought in Canada, between the Regulars, under General Carleton, and the Provincials, at a place called Three Rivers, when the latter were defeated, many of them being killed and wounded, and about 200 taken priſoners. In June, 1776, an attempt was made on Charles Town, South Carolina, by Sir Peter Parker, at the head of a fleet of ſhips of war, and General Clinton, with a body of land forces; but it failed of ſucceſs. On the 4th of June following, the congreſs declared the colonies independent.

After the King's troops were in poſſeſſion of New York, many ſkirmiſhes happened between them and the Provincials, but nothing deciſive till October, 1776, when the latter were defeated, in an action, which, from the place where it was fought, was termed the battle of the White Plains.

In the month of November, 1776, Fort Waſhington, and Fort Lee, were taken by the Britiſh forces, together with a great variety of military ſtores, and many priſoners. In December Rhode Iſland was taken by General Clinton. About the ſame time Lord Cornwallis took poſſeſſion of Eaſt Jerſey; and General Lee was taken priſoner by a patrole, conſiſting of 30 Britiſh dragoons, commanded by Lieutenant-Colonel (afterwards Lord) Harcourt.

Several ſkirmiſhes happened in the beginning of the year 1777, in the Jerſeys, with various ſucceſs. On the 23d and 24th of March, a great quantity of proviſions, ſtores, &c. with barracks, ſtorehouſes, &c. belonging to the Provincials, were deſtroyed by the King's troops at Peek's Hill, upon the North River. The cruizers belonging to Lord Howe and Commodore Hotham's fleet, continued to take many prizes. In Connecticut, on the 27th of April, 1777, the King's troops deſtroyed a great quantity of ſtores at Danbury.

General Burgoyne, with the northern army, proceeded to Ticonderago, and Fort Independence, which he took poſſeſſion of July 6, 1777, and found in them great quantities of ſtores and proviſions, beſides what he deſtroyed of both at Skeneſborough. Soon after he took poſſeſſion of Fort Edward, which the Provincials abandoned, and then proceeded to Saratoga, where they were ſtrongly poſted.

On the 11th of September, 1777, the troops under the command of General Howe, had an engagement with the Provincials on the Heights of Brandywine, in which many were killed and wounded on both ſides, and 400 Provincials were taken priſoners: but though the latter were defeated, and the action at firſt ſeemed of an indeciſive nature, yet it occaſioned Philadelphia to fall into the hands of the Britiſh toops. While General Howe was thus employed, an unſucceſsful attack was made by the Provincials on Staten iſland; for they were repulſed. Much about the ſame time General Clinton ſtormed and took Fort Clinton and Fort Montgomery.

On the 16th of October, 1777, the provincials, under the command of General Gates, having ſurrounded General Burgoyne's army at Saratoga, the latter thought proper to enter into articles of capitulation, by which himſelf and his troops, after laying down their arms, were to have a free paſſage to Great Britain.

In the latter end of the year 1777 ſeveral forts were taken by the troops and ſhipping; and many ſkirmiſhes happened on the banks of the Delaware, in order to keep up the communication with the army at Philadelphia. The Provincials likewiſe evacuated their intrenchments at Red Bank.

The campaign of 1778 began by many ravages made by the Britiſh troops in the neighbourhood of Philadelphia, and they poſſeſſed themſelves of great quantities of military ſtores, proviſions, veſſels, &c.

On the 18th of June General Clinton (Sir William Howe having previouſly departed for England, and left to him the grand command of the Britiſh forces,) purſuant to the inſtructions received from government, evacuated Philadelphia. He was attacked on his march by the Provincials, whoſe principal object appeared to be the gaining poſſeſſion of the Britiſh baggage: but in this, however, they were diſappointed, and every where repulſed.

About this time the Earl of Carliſle, Mr. Eden, and Governor Johnſtone, were ſent as commiſſioners from Great Britain, to treat of a pacification with America, but they did not meet with the ſucceſs that every true lover of both countries wiſhed.

On the 10th of December Commodore Hotham arrived at Barbadoes with about 4000 troops from England, where he was joined by a ſmall ſquadron under the command of Admiral Barrington. They ſailed together to St. Lucia, where they landed the troops; but before they could make themſelves maſters of the iſland, Count D'Eſtaign appeared, and landed 5000 men. He was, however, repulſed with great ſlaughter, and the men obliged to make a precipitate retreat to their ſhips; againſt which Admiral Barrington's ſmall force had fully defended the harbours.

In the beginning of the year 1779 two bodies of forces, one under the command of Colonel Campbell, and the other from St. Auguſtin, in Florida, were ordered for the reduction of Georgia, in which they ſucceeded after a few actions and deſperate reſiſtance from their opponents.

In the month of December Count D'Eſtaign, having conquered the Grenades and St. Vincent's, laid cloſe ſiege to Charles Town, then in the hands of Sir Henry Clinton, but was repulſed with great ſlaughter, and himſelf ſeverely wounded in the action.

In the month of April, 1780, Sir Henry Clinton quitted Charles Town, and went to New York, leaving the care of the former place to the Lords Cornwallis and Rawdon. The Americans, during his abſence, made ſeveral attempts on the place, but were always repulſed, owing to the vigilance of the Britiſh commander.

During Admiral Byron's ſtay in the Weſt-Indies, he, in company with Admiral Barrington, engaged the French off St. Vincent's, with ſome loſs, both parties claiming the victory. About the ſame time Count D'Eſtaign made an unſucceſsful expedition to the Savannah, and afterwards returned to France.

Some time after this Admiral Rodney (who had been with ſuccours to the relief of Gibraltar, then cloſely beſieged by the Spaniards) arrived in the Weſt-Indies, and engaged the French fleet under the command of M. Guichen, but it terminated without any material victory on either ſide.

About this time hoſtilities were commenced between Great Britain and the United States of Holland, owing to a bag of papers being found belonging to Mr. Laurens, formerly preſident of the continental congreſs, who was taken by his Majeſty's frigate the Veſtal, as he was paſſing over to Holland. Mr. Laurens, after his examination, was committed cloſe priſoner to the Tower.

During theſe tranſactions a mutinous ſpirit prevailed among the continental forces in America. Brigadier Arnold had for ſome time held a correſpondence with the Engliſh General, which was principally carried on by means of Major André, adjutant-general to the Britiſh army. This young officer gave Arnold a meeting at a place appointed, the latter of whom adviſed him to diſguiſe himſelf, and, under the feigned name of John Anderſon, to make his way for New York. This advice he readily followed; but at a place called Ferry Town was ſeized by three militia men, and conducted to General Waſhington. He was immediately tried by a court-martial as a ſpy, and being found guilty, and ſentenced to death, was executed accordingly.

The

The campaign of the year 1781 was opened by a desperate battle between the British forces, under the command of Lord Cornwallis, and the Provincials, under the command of General Sumpter. The British forces proved victorious, all the artillery and ammunition waggons belonging to the enemy being taken, and between eight and nine hundred slain, besides great numbers taken prisoners.

On 17th of February Lieutenant-Colonel Tarleton, being detached with a body of forces, engaged a strong party of the enemy near Broad River, under the command of General Morgan. The battle continued obstinate on both sides for some time, till at length Tarleton was obliged to retreat, leaving his killed and wounded behind him.

While these things were taking place on the continent, an attack was made on the Island of St. Eustatius, by Sir George Brydges Rodney and General Vaughan, and the place was surrendered by the enemy without the least resistance. The quantity of merchandize found on the island was so great that the warehouses could not contain it. The Islands of St. Martha and Saba likewise surrendered. This blow was severely felt by the Dutch. The ships in the harbour were seized, and a fleet of 30 sail of merchantmen fell into the hands of the English; but, on their way home, 22 of them were re-taken by the French.

About this time the Spaniards laid siege to Pensacola, which they took up after an obstinate resistance. The garrison obtained honorable terms, and were conveyed to New York.

During these transactions the war was carried on with great vigour on the continent. The British troops repeatedly baffled the efforts of the Provincials, and in most encounters came of victorious. Lord Cornwallis engaged a considerable body of troops, under the command of General Greene, at the town of Guildford, and, after an obstinate resistance, which lasted about half an hour, obtained a complete victory, great numbers of the Provincials being killed, and the rest put to flight. General Greene, however, after being thus defeated, marched to Wilmington, where getting some supplies, and recruiting his scattered forces, he set out for Camden, which he expected to have found ill defended; but Lord Rawdon, who was left there, did not wait for the attack of the enemy; on the contrary, he with about 800 men, marched out to meet General Greene, whom he encountered and defeated, obliging the enemy to save themselves by a very precipitate flight.

On the 20th of May Earl Cornwallis arrived at Petersburgh in Virginia, where he joined a body of British troops that had been under the command of Major-general Philips, but the command of which, in consequence of the death of that officer, had devolved upon Brigadier-general Arnold. Before this junction he had encountered considerable inconveniences from the difficulty of procuring provisions and forage.

On the 26th of June, about six miles from Williamsburgh, Lieutenant-colonel Simcoe, and 350 of the Queen's Rangers, were attacked by a much superior body of the Americans, but whom they repulsed with great gallantry, and with equal success, making four officers and twenty private men prisoners. The loss of the Americans in this action amounted to 120, besides great numbers taken prisoners.

On the 6th of July an action happened near a place called the Green Springs in Virginia, between a reconnoitring party of the Americans under General Wayne amounting to about 800, and a large part of the British army under lord Cornwallis, in which the Americans had 127 killed and wounded, and the loss of the royal troops was considerably greater. It was an action in which no small degree of military skill and courage were exhibited by the Americans.

In South Carolina an action happened on the 9th of September near the Eataw Springs, between a large body of British troops, under the command of Lieutenant-colonel Stewart, and a much superior body of Americans, amounting to 4000, under the command of General Greene. It was an obstinate battle, and lasted near two hours; but the Americans were defeated, and two of their six pounders fell into the hands of the English. The loss, however, of the royal troops was very considerable, amounting to more than 400 killed and wounded, and upwards of 200 missing.

In the course of the same month General Arnold was sent on an expedition against New London in Connecticut, where he destroyed a great part of the shipping, and an immense quantity of Naval stores, European manufactures, and East and West India commodities. The town itself was also burnt, which was unavoidable on account of the explosions of great quantities of gunpowder, which happened to be in the storehouses that were set on fire. A fort, of which it was thought necessary to gain possession in this expedition, was not taken without considerable loss. This was fort Griswold, which was defended by the Americans with great gallantry, and the assault was made by the English with equal bravery. The British troops entered the works with fixed bayonets, and were opposed with great vigour by the garrison with long spears. After a most obstinate defence of near forty minutes the assailants gained possession of the fort, in which 85 Americans were found dead, and 60 wounded, most of them mortally. Of the British troops Major Montgomery was killed by a spear in entering the American works: and 192 men were also killed and wounded in this expedition.

During these transactions the most effectual measures were adopted by General Washington for surrounding the British army under earl Cornwallis. A large body of French troops under the command of Lieutenant-general the Count de Rochambeau, with a very considerable train of artillery assisted in the enterprize. The Americans amounted to near 8000 continentals, and 5000 militia, and General Washington was invested with the chief command of these combined forces.

In the mean time various skirmishes took place in different parts of the American continent, and were attended with various success; but in general the English gained the superiority.

On the 18th of October, 1781, a most desperate battle took place between the conjunctive forces under the Provincial General Washington and M. Rochambeau, the French commander, and the British troops under the command of Lord Cornwallis. The latter was situated in a very disadvantageous spot, being hemmed in on one side by the French fleet in the Chesapeak River, and on the other by the continental land forces. The attack was made with great resolution by the enemy, and, for some time, as strongly resisted by the brave Cornwallis, who cut to pieces the greater part of three regiments of the French forces; but being at length overpowered with numbers, he was obliged to surrender, and enter into the like articles of capitulation as took place with general Burgoyne at Saratoga. Sir Henry Clinton had left New York with a considerable body of forces, in order to give assistance to the brave Cornwallis; but, by a manœuvre of General Washington (who, a short time before, appeared to have some designs against New York) Sir Henry was too late, and the whole army of Lord Cornwallis, which amounted to 7000 men, fell into the hands of the Provincials. The earl made a defence suitable to the character he had acquired for courage and military skill; but he was compelled to submit to superior numbers. A considerable number of cannon, and a large quantity of military stores, fell into the hands of the Americans on this occasion.

The surrender of earl Cornwallis was the last military transaction of moment on the continent of North America, and led to the conclusion of a civil war, which had been unhappily attended with the loss of a vast profusion of blood and treasure on both sides.

No

No other event of that war contributed ſo affectually to produce a general conviction in the minds of men of the impracticability of the conqueſt of the American colonies, eſpecially as they had formed ſuch powerful alliances.

When intelligence of the defeat of Earl Cornwallis arrived in England, that conviction appeared to be irreſiſtible; for men of all ranks and parties now declaimed againſt the continuance of a war unproductive of the effects originally deſigned, and abſolutely ruinous to the intereſts of both countries.

A member of the Britiſh Houſe of Commons, in December 1781, made two motions declaratory of the ſenſe of the houſe againſt the further proſecution of the American war.

On the 22d of February 1782 a motion was made of the ſame tendency by a military officer, and negatived by only one voice. In a ſhort time after the ſame motion being carried, inſtructions were diſpatched in conſequence of the reſolution of the houſe of Sir Guy Carleton (who ſucceeded Sir Henry Clinton in the command of the army and the government of New York) to uſe his utmoſt endeavours for producing an accommodation with the Americans.

Sir Guy Carleton having received theſe advices, diſpatched, in the month of May, 1782, a letter to General Waſhington, informing them of the proceedings of parliament, of the diſpoſition prevalent both in that body and the Britiſh government, and of his own conſequent inſtructions, accompanied with ſuch written or printed documents as were neceſſary to illuſtrate and authenticate what he had ſtated.

As by a reſolution of the Britiſh Houſe of Commons powers had been granted to the crown for negociation and concluding a general or particular peace or truce with the whole, or any part, of the Americans, the ſeveral ſtates reprobated the idea of opening ſeparate negociations with particular governments, or bodies of men, or even of attempting to open a treaty with Congreſs without the concurrence of his allies, and came to a general determination to exert their utmoſt power conjunctively to carry on the war with vigour until peace ſhould be obtained in a manner conſiſtent with their national union.

A reſolution was alſo paſſed by Congreſs, that the United ſtates could not, with propriety, hold any conference, or treaty, with any commiſſioners on the part of Great Britain, unleſs they ſhould, as a preliminary thereunto, either withdraw their fleets or armies, or elſe, in poſitive and expreſs terms, acknowledge the independence of the ſaid States.

In the month of October Congreſs iſſued a public declaration, in which, after reciting, that France and they were equally bound by the conditions of their alliance, that neither ſhould conclude either peace or truce with Great Britain without the conſent of the other, and obſerving that their miniſters in Europe were veſted with full power and authority in their behalf, and in conſort with their allies, to negociate and conclude a general peace, they proceeded to declare, in the ſtrongeſt terms, their fixed and unalterable determination inviolably to adhere to the treaty of alliance with his moſt Chriſtian Majeſty, and to conclude neither a ſeparate peace or truce with Great Britain; and that they would not enter into the diſcuſſion of any overtures for pacification, but in confidence and in conſort with his moſt Chriſtian Majeſty.

While the Americans were thus avowing their inflexible attachment to their allies, and endeavouring, as it were, to ſhut out every overture towards a ſeperate accommodation, the belligerent powers in Europe ſeemed diſpoſed to pacific meaſures.

As the attainment of the independence of America was avowedly the grant object of the French court in the war, its being granted ſeemed at once to remove the very ground of contention. With reſpect to the adjuſtment of matters with the Britiſh court, that did not ſeem to be very difficult, as, though the acquiſitions of France in the Weſt Indies were conſiderable, her loſſes in the Eaſt left the means of a conſiderable equivalent in the hands of the Engliſh.

As to Spain, which ſeems to have entered into the war rather as an auxiliary, and in conſequence of the family compact, than as acting upon national principles, neither the embarraſſed ſtate of her finances, the repeated failure of her deſigns upon Jamaica, her very ſignal defeat at Gibraltar, or other circumſtances of her then condition, ſeemed to afford any ſolid ground upon which ſhe could reaſonably eſtabliſh further claims.

The United States of Holland, fallen and degraded to the loweſt degree, were reduced to the neceſſity of depending entirely upon the favours and protection of France, as well in the concluſion of a peace as ſhe had through the progreſs of the war.

With reſpect to the general circumſtances of the contending parties, the moſt ſucceſsful members of the alliance, great and formidable as it was, ſcarcely ſtood much leſs in need of peace than Great Britain, notwithſtanding all her loſſes, and expoſed as ſhe had ſo long been as a common mark to withſtand ſingly all their attacks in every quarter.

Under theſe general circumſtances of the contending powers, the independence of America being allowed, there did not ſeem to be any inſurmountable obſtacle in the way to the reſtoration of the public tranquility.

This plan was adopted by the new adminiſtration in England by their coming into power; commiſſioners and plenipotentiaries were appointed by the reſpective powers, and on the 30th of November 1782, proviſional articles were ſigned by the commiſſioners from his Britannic Majeſty, and the commiſſioners on the part of the United States of America, which were to be inſerted in, and to conſtitute a future treaty of peace to be finally concluded between the parties, when that between Great Britain and France took place.

The hiſtory of this civil war is handed down at large to poſterity by able writers, in order to ſerve as the moſt forcible leſſons of inſtruction to the ſovereigns and ſubjects of every ſtate. In the courſe of ſuch a war the paſſions may be ſuppoſed to be inflamed to a high degree of rancour; but this will ever be the caſe in all ſublunary events; and the cruelties prepetrated on either ſide by heated or unprincipled individuals no intelligent perſon will impute to the national character at large. The virtues that ſhine in human nature, and render life deſirable and happy, are the growth of no particular country; for where the light of knowledge is diffuſed, their endearing influence will be felt with irreſiſtible force; and the poſterity of Great Britain and America, while they read with concern the phrenzy of their fathers, may be nobly vying with each other in virtuous and philoſophical emulation, and cultivating ſuch friendly connections as may render both a great and happy people.

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A NEW, ROYAL, AUTHENTIC,

And COMPLETE SYSTEM of

UNIVERSAL GEOGRAPHY.

BOOK V.

EUROPE.

INTRODUCTION.

THIS part of the globe was formerly called by the Romans, as it is at preſent by the Spaniards and Italians, by the name of Europa; but from whence that appellative originated has not been determined. By the Engliſh and French it is ſtiled Europe; by the Turks Alfrank, or Rumelia; by the Georgians of Aſia Frankoba; and by the Aſiatics in general Frankiſtan.

Europe is bounded on the north by the Frozen Sea, on the eaſt by Aſia, on the ſouth by the Mediterranean Sea, and on the weſt by the Atlantic Ocean.

This grand diviſion of the earth is ſituated between 35 and 72 degrees of north latitude, and between 9 deg. 35 min. weſt, and 72 deg. 25 min. eaſt longitude. Its utmoſt extent, in length, is about 3600 miles, and in breadth about 2200.

Europe, though inferior, in point of magnitude, to Aſia, Africa, and America, is far ſuperior to them all in ſeveral important reſpects. As to the advantages of ſituation, it is to be obſerved, that no part of it is expoſed to the ſcorching heat of the torrid, and but a ſmall part of it to the chilling cold of the frigid zone.

To theſe advantages may be added many ſeas, navigable rivers, mountains, &c. admirably adapted to the purpoſes of extenſive commerce between different ſtates and nations; and happily ſituated as barriers againſt the efforts either of invaſion or deſpotiſm.

The principal rivers of Europe are the Danube and the Rhine in Germany, the Volga and Divina in the Ruſſian empire, the Loire and Seine in France, the Thames and Severn in England, &c. &c.

The chief Lakes are Conſtance in Germany, Geneva and Guarda in Italy, Wener in Sweden, Ladoga and Onega in Ruſſia, Loquabar in Scotland, and Neagh in Ireland.

The principal mountains are the Pyrenean Mountains between France and Spain, the Alps between France and Italy, the Doſrin hills in Sweden, the Grapach hills in Hungary, ſome hills in the Highlands of Scotland, and ſeveral, particularly Snowden, in Wales.

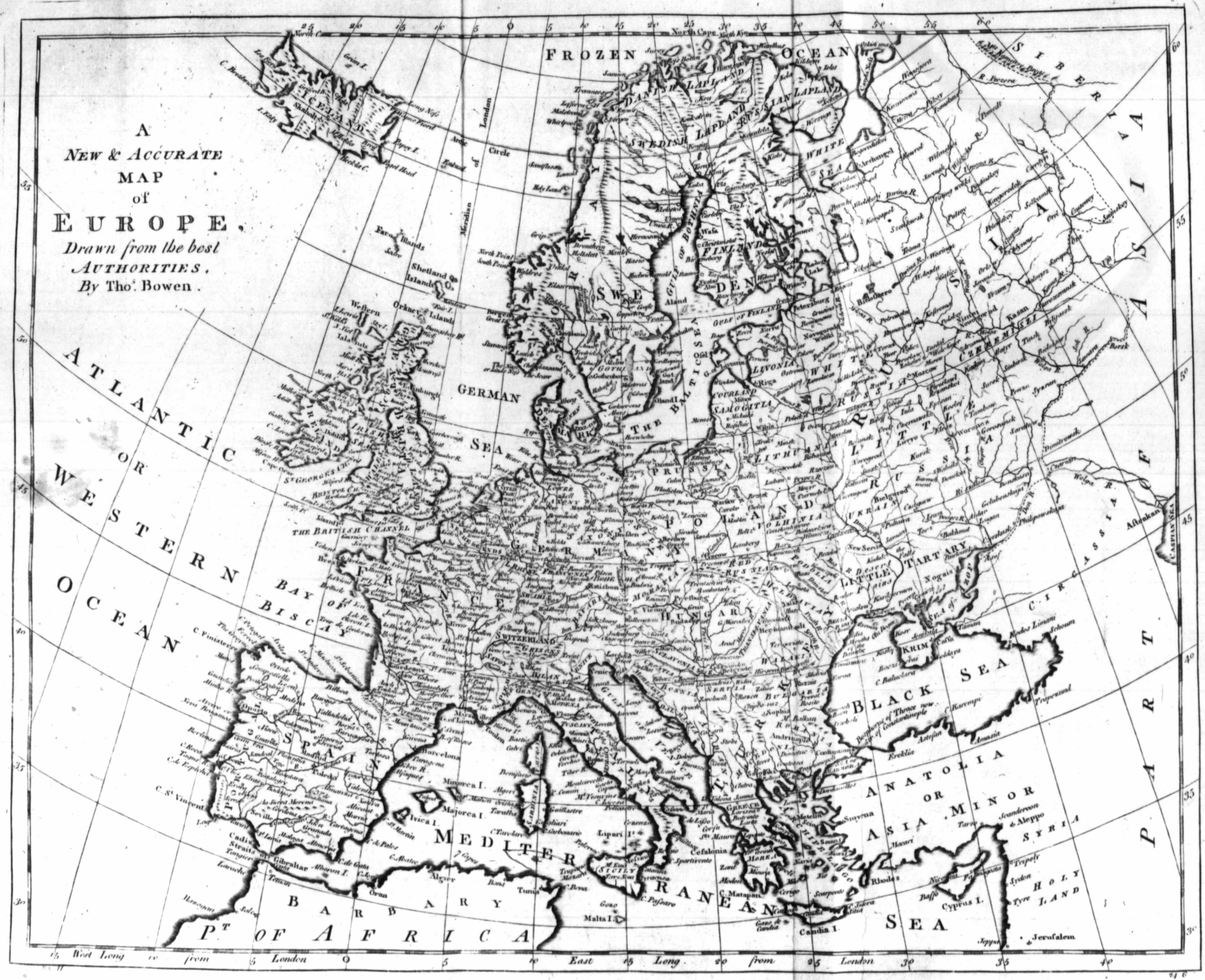
Europe, through ſuperiority of cultivation, produces a greater abundance of corn, wines, fruit, cattle, and, indeed, moſt of the luxuries, as well as neceſſaries, of life, than the other quarters of the globe. As to the valuable articles of gold, ſilver, jewels, ſpices, &c. though not its natural productions, they are ſupplied by means of navigation and commerce.

Fearleſs the merchant now purſues his gain,
And roams ſecurely o'er the boundleſs main:
Now o'er his head the polar bear he ſpies,
And freezing ſpangles of the Lapland ſkies;
Now ſwells his canvas to the ſultry line,
With glitt'ring ſpoils, where Indian grottos ſhine,
Where fumes of incenſe glad the ſouthern ſeas,
And waſted citrons ſcent the balmy breeze;
And here the ore whoſe melted maſs ſhall yield,
On faithful coins, each memorable field,
Which, mix'd with medals of immortal Rome,
May clear diſputes, and teach the times to come.

Europe is fuller of cities, towns, villages, and the buildings, in general, more ſtrong, elegant, and commodious, than thoſe of the other parts. The inhabitants are better featured, and better made, than either the inhabitants of Aſia, or Africa, and are all whites; though their complexions have different degrees of delicacy, according to their ſituations, and other local circumſtances.

With reſpect to mental endowments, and the exertion of the intellectual faculties, the inhabitants of Europe muſt be permitted to claim pre-eminence. Pertinent to this remark may be cited ſome obſervations of a very learned and ingenious writer, in words to the following effect. Having premiſed that in Greece the human mind ſeemed firſt to have duly conceived and exerted its powers in the invention and improvement of ſuch arts as were conducive either to pleaſure or utility, this writer goes on to obſerve, that what Greece is in this

A
New & Accurate
MAP
of
EUROPE,
Drawn from the best
Authorities,
By Tho. Bowen.



West Long. from London East Long. from London

point of view with regard to Europe, Europe itſelf is with regard to the other diviſions of the earth; and concludes with this reflection; "That as ancient Greece was diſtinguiſhed above all the reſt of Europe for the equity of its laws, and the freedom of its political conſtitution, ſo has Europe, in general, been remarkable for ſmaller deviations at leaſt from the laws of nature and equality, than have been admitted in other quarters of the world."

To this pre-eminence in mental acquiſitions muſt be attributed the invention of printing, the revival of learning, arts, and ſciences, and, laſtly, the happy reformation in religion, which diſtinguiſh the 15th and 16th centuries, and embelliſh the hiſtory of Europe. In theſe ages the powers of Europe were formed into one grand political ſyſtem, in which each took a ſtation, wherein it has ſince remained, with leſs variation than could have been expected, after the ſhocks occaſioned by ſo many internal revolutions and foreign wars. The eſtabliſhed political principles and maxims ſtill continue to operate; and the ideas concerning the balance of power, long introduced, and rendered general, have ſtill ſome degree of influence in the councils of the nations of Europe.

From theſe concurring circumſtances it is evident that the concurrence of ſo many rival princes will always prevent any one of them from gaining the empire over Europe. It is equally evident that, in contending for it, they muſt weaken their own force, and may at length render themſelves incapable of defending their juſt poſſeſſions. The partial conqueſts they make are illuſive; for, inſtead of promoting, they rather oppoſe their deſigns. The more any kingdom is extended, it becomes the weaker; and great projects have not been ſo often executed by ſlow reiterated efforts, as in the courſe of a few years, and ſometimes by a ſingle expedition.

A prince may form a deliberate plan for deſtroying the rights of his ſubjects; he may proceed by ſlow degrees in the execution of it; and if he dies before the accompliſhment, his ſucceſſor may purſue the ſame ſteps, and avail himſelf of what was done before him: But external conqueſts cannot be concealed. They, in general, excite alarms, and occaſion confederacies, by which the conquering prince is reduced to the laſt extremities. This maxim, however contrary to the prejudices of a powerful and victorious nation, is one of the beſt eſtabliſhed in the whole ſyſtem of politics, and confirmed by a variety of examples, both ancient and modern.

To theſe remarks may be juſtly added, as an inſtance of the pre-eminence of Europe, the invention and improvement of the art of navigation in particular, of all others the moſt beneficial to mankind: and amongſt theſe we may here be permitted to enroll the name of our renowned countryman *Captain Cook*.

To this improvement of the mind, and cultivation of the liberal arts, it is owing that, though ſeveral of the moſt extenſive parts of Europe are under monarchial forms of government, the adminiſtration of thoſe forms are by no means ſo arbitrary, nor are their ſovereigns ſo deſpotic, as thoſe of Aſia and Africa. Various, indeed, are the forms of government, excluſive of that of monarchy, which prevail in Europe. Here are ariſtocracies, or governments of the nobles; democracies, or governments of the people; and, laſtly, there is the mixed form of government, compoſed of three parts, participating of the benefits, and exempted from the inconveniencies, of the other three claſſes or forms. This form is the peculiar boaſt and glory of Great Britain.

The languages of Europe are derived from ſix radical ones, viz.

1. Latin, of which the Italian, French, and Spaniſh, are dialects.

2. Teutonic, from whence proceed the German, Dutch, Swediſh, Daniſh, and Engliſh tongues.

3. Sclavonian, which reigns in different dialects in Poland, Muſcovy, Bohemia, and a great part of Turkey in Europe.

4. The Celtic, of which there are remaining dialects in Wales, Ireland, the Highlands of Scotland, Brittany in France, and Lapland.

5. Greek, of which ſeveral dialects are ſpoken in the Morea, and the iſlands of the Levant.

6. Gothic, ſome remains of which are preſerved in the iſlands of the Baltic, and the ſouthern parts of Sweden.

To theſe we may add the languages ſpoken in Turkey and little Tartary as European languages.

The Chriſtian religion prevails throughout every part of Europe, except that in the poſſeſſion of the Turks: but as men conceive differently concerning points of ſpeculation, according to their different paſſions and education, that religion is divided into a number of ſects. Hence Italy, Spain, France, part of Germany and the Netherlands, with part of Poland, ſtill follow the doctrine of the church of Rome; whereas England, Scotland, Ireland, Denmark, Sweden, Norway, great part of Germany, the United Provinces, part of Switzerland, &c. have embraced the reformation, and profeſs the Proteſtant religion: And in Muſcovy, ſome parts of Poland, in Walachia, Moldavia, Padolia, Volhinia, and Greece, the doctrine of the Eaſtern or Greek church is followed.

Europe may claim, upon the whole, pre-eminence over the reſt of the world, by having the doctrines of Chriſtianity profeſſed throughout the greateſt part of it, and being enlightened by a religion at once pure, majeſtic, chearful, and ſecuring the eternal felicity of its profeſſors.

Sudden religion on the wond'ring blaze,
From heav'n's broad concave burſt the rapid blaze;
At once deſcending from the realms on high,
An angel ſhape arreſts the dazzled eye:
Looſe o'er her limbs the floating garments roll'd,
Her ſparkling pinions flam'd with beamy gold;
Her eyes like light'ning glanc'd a piercing ray,
And all th' illumin'd æther glean'd with day!
Near as ſhe came, ſuperior, tho' reſign'd,
Her form majeſtic aw'd the dubious mind;
With heighten'd grace her bloomy features glow'd;
Free on her robe the mazy ringlets flow'd;
Her balmy breath ambroſial ſcents perfume,
And o'er her cheek was pour'd celeſtial bloom.
Pale ſorrow brighten'd as religion came,
And ſlow-pac'd time ſtood trembling at the name;
Rage, dragg'd in triumph, ſwell'd her ſolemn train,
And death behind her grin'd and clank'd his chain.

To theſe introductory remarks concerning Europe conſidered in general, we ſubjoin the following Table, exhibiting, in one point of view, its ſeveral parts, continental and inſular, with their length, breadth, chief cities, diſtances and bearings from London, religions, &c. &c. And, we preſume, ſuch a general view will afford our readers a pleaſing anticipation of our ſubſequent particular deſcription, to render which as entertaining and inſtructive as poſſible, no pains ſhall be wanting, either in the ſelection or arrangement of the moſt modern and beſt authenticated materials.

A GENERAL

A GENERAL INSPECTION TABLE FOR EUROPE.

CONTINENTS.

Nations.	Length.	Breadth.	Chief Cities.	Distance and Bearing from London.		Religions.
Including the general Names of Italy.						
Groenland	Uncertain.		- - - - -	- -	- - -	- - - - - - -
Greenland						
Lapland						
Norway	1000	300	Bergen	540	N.	
Denmark	240	180	Copenhagen	500	N. E.	Lutherans
Sweden	800	500	Stockholm	750	N. E.	
Ruſſia	1500	1100	Peterſburgh	1140	N. E.	Greek Church
Poland	700	680	Warſaw	760	E.	Papiſts, Luth. and Calv.
King of Pruſſia's Dominions	Uncertain, from the continual fluctuation in the affairs of the different monarchs.		Berlin	540	E.	Lutherans and Calviniſts
Germany	600	500	Vienna	600	E.	Papiſts, Luth. and Calv.
Bohemia	300	250	Prague	600	E.	Papiſts
Holland	150	100	Amſterdam	180	E.	Calviniſts
Flanders	200	200	Bruſſels	180	S. E.	
France	600	500	Paris	200	S. E.	Papiſts
Spain	700	500	Madrid	800	S.	
Portugal	300	100	Liſbon	850	S. W.	
Switzerland	260	100	Bern	420	S. E.	Calviniſts and Papiſts
Italy. Popedom, or Eccleſiaſtical State	240	120	Rome	820	S. E.	
Naples	280	120	Naples	870	S. E.	
Piedmont	140	98	Turin	- -	- -	
Monſerrat	40	22	Caſal	- -	- -	
Milan	155	70	Milan	- -	- -	
Parma	48	37	Parma	- -	- -	Papiſts
Modena	65	39	Modena	- -	- -	
Mantua	47	27	Mantua	- -	- -	
Venice	175	95	Venice	- -	- -	
Genoa	160	25	Genoa	- -	- -	
Tuſcany	115	94	Florence	- -	- -	
Hungary	300	200	Buda	780	S. E.	
Turkey in Europe. Danubian Provinces	600	420	Conſtantinople	1320	S. E.	Mahometans
Little Tartary	380	240	Caffa	1500	E.	and
Greece	400	240	Athens	1360	S. E.	Greek Church.

ISLANDS.

Names.	Where ſituated.	Chief Cities or Towns.	To whom Subject.
Iceland	Northern Ocean	Skalholt	Denmark
Zealand, Funen, Alſen, Falſter, Langland, Laland, Femeren, Mona, Bornholm	Baltic Sea	- - - - - - - - - -	Denmark
Gothland, Oeland, Aland, Rugen	- - - - - -	- - - - - - - - -	Sweden
Oſel, Dagho	- - - - - -	- - - - - - - - -	Ruſſia
Uſedom, Wollin	- - - - - -	- - - - - - - - -	Pruſſia
Great Britain	- - - - - -	London & Edinburgh	Great Britain
Ireland	- - - - - -	Dublin	
Angleſey	- - - - - -	Beaumaris	
Wight	- - - - - -	Newport	
Scilly	Atlantic Ocean	- - - - - - - -	
Man	- - - - - -	Douglas	
The Hebrides or Weſtern Iſles	- - - - - -	Durart	
Orcades	- - - - - -	Pomona	
Shetland	- - - - - -	Larwick	
Guernſey, Jerſey, Alderney, and Sark	Engliſh Channel	- - - - - - - -	
Ivica	- - - - - -	Ivica	Spain
Majorca	- - - - - -	Majorca	
Minorca	Mediterranean Sea	Port Mahon	
Corſica		Baſtia	France
Sardinia	- - - - - -	Cagliari	King of Sardinia
Sicily	- - - - - -	Palermo	King of the Two Sicilies
Luſiena, Corfu, Cephalonia, Zant, Leucadia	Adriatic, or Gulph of Venice.	- - - - - - - -	Venice
European Iſlands of the Archipelago and Levant	- - - - - -	- - - - - - - -	Turkey

Excluſive of the before mentioned are the electorates of Germany, and about 300 ſmaller ſovereignties in Germany, Italy, &c. the ſovereigns of which are either ſpiritual, as archbiſhops, &c. or temporal, as princes, landgraves, dukes, marquiſſes, counts, margraves, hoſpodars, &c.

Europe, excluſive of the circumſcribing oceans and ſeas, contains

CHAP. I.

GREENLAND.

IN our deſcription of this country we ſhall conſider it as compriſing two parts, viz. Groenland, Weſt Greenland, or Old Greenland; and Eaſt Greenland, New Greenland, or Spitzbergen.

SECTION I.

GROENLAND.

Diſcovery, &c.

A NORWEGIAN, named Torwald, and his ſon Erick, ſurnamed Raude, or the Red-haired, having committed a murder in his country, fled over to Iceland, where Torwald died. His ſon Erick, having afterwards committed another murder in Iceland, to eſcape the ſeverity of the law, reſolved to ſeek for ſhelter in a country which one Gunderbairne had told him he had ſeen to the weſt of Iceland. Erick landed, by his direction, in a certain harbour, made by two capes or points of land, one at the end of an iſland oppoſite to the continent of Groenland, the other on the continent. The cape of the iſle was named Huidſerken, and that of the continent Huarſs, having between both a very good harbour called Sanſtaffin, where ſhips may ride ſafely at anchor even in the greateſt ſtorm.

It appeared to this adventurer moſt eligible to land on the iſland, to which he gave the name of Erickſand, i. e. Erick's Iſle, and continued there all the winter. In the ſpring he paſſed over to the continent, which he called Groenland, i. e. the Green Country, from the verdure of its paſtures and trees. To the place where he had landed he gave the name of Ericksfiorden, i. e. Erick's Haven; at a ſmall diſtance from which he built habitations called Oſtraburg, i. e. Eaſt borough or plantation. Next autumn he went to the weſtern ſide, where he erected another plantation called Weſtreburg. But whether the air of the continent ſeemed to him colder and ſharper than that of the iſland, or whether he found it leſs ſecure, he went back the next winter to Erickſand. He returned, however, from thence the next ſummer to the continent, taking his courſe towards the north to the foot of a great rock, which he called Sneefiel, or the Snow-Rock, and thence to a certain harbour, upon which he beſtowed the name of Ravenſfiorden, or Raven's Harbour, from the great number of thoſe birds he found there. Ravensfiorden lies directly oppoſite to the north ſide of Ericksfiorden, which is ſeated on the ſouth ſide, being divided only by a branch or arm of the ſea. About the end of autumn Erick returned to his iſland, where he paſſed the third winter. In the ſpring he reſolved to go in perſon to Iceland, to engage the inhabitants of that iſle, with whom he had a good correſpondence, to follow him into Groenland. He deſcribed the wonders of this new diſcovered country, its plenty of large and ſmall cattle, excellent paſtures, fiſh, and all ſorts of game, in ſo alluring a manner, that great numbers of the Icelanders were prevailed on to croſs the ſea with him into Groenland.

Erick had a ſon named Leiffe, who accompanied him to Iceland, and from thence croſſed over into Norway, where he gave a favourable account, to King Olaus Trugger, of the country diſcovered by his father. The king of Norway, having then but lately embraced the Chriſtian religion, cauſed Leiffe to be inſtructed in the ſame, and to be baptized. Having continued at his court all the winter, the next ſummer he ſent him back to his father, into Groenland, accompanied by a prieſt, to inſtruct Erick and his people in the Chriſtian faith, who, by Leiffe's perſuaſion, were all baptized. This happened about the year 770 of the Chriſtian æra.

As the ſucceſſors of Erick increaſed in number in Groenland, they ventured farther into the country, and met with a fruitful ſoil, meadows, and rivers, in the vallies between the mountains. They divided the country into Eaſt and Weſt Groenland, according to the different ſituations of the two boroughs, Oſtraburg and Weſtreburg, built by Erick. In the eaſt they laid the foundation of a town named Garde, whither the Norwegians tranſported divers merchandizes, and ſold them

them to the inhabitants. Their poſterity advanced, and built a city, to which they gave the name of Albe; and, as their zeal for religion increaſed, they built a monaſtery upon the ſea ſhore, dedicated to St. Thomas. The city of Garde was the reſidence of their biſhops; and the church of St. Nicholas (the patron of ſeamen) the cathedral of Groenland.

In the year 1256 Groenland revolted, and refuſed to pay tribute to King Magnus, of Norway, which induced King Erick, of Denmark, at the requeſt of King Magnus, who had married his neice, to equip a fleet againſt them: but they no ſooner ſaw the Daniſh flags diſplayed on the coaſt of Groenland, than they were ſeized with a panic, which induced them to ſue for pardon, and deſire peace. The king of Denmark, from the love he bore his neice and her children, would not take any advantage of the weakneſs of the king of Norway, but left him in full poſſeſſion of Groenland.

A conſiderable commerce was carried on between Norway and Groenland, and a regular intercourſe maintained, till the year 1046, when the laſt biſhop was ſent over to Groenland; but, from that period, all correſpondence was cut off, and all knowledge of Groenland conſigned to oblivion. This ſtrange and abrupt ceſſation of trade and intercourſe has been aſcribed partly to the change and tranſlation of the Norwegian government in the reign of Queen Margaret, partly to the enſuing wars between Denmark and Sweden, which could not fail to interrupt the maritime commerce, and partly to the difficulty and danger which attended the navigation of Groenland. But the moſt probable cauſe of ſuch a ſudden privation is found in another event. The inland colony, from its firſt ſettlement, had been harraſſed by the Aborigines of Groenland, a ſavage barbarous people, agreeing in cuſtoms, garb, and appearance, with thoſe Americans who have ſince been found to the northward of Hudſon's Bay. This nation, called the Schrellings, at length prevailed againſt the Iceland ſettlers, who had choſen their habitation in the weſtern diſtrict, and exterminated them in the 14th century, inſomuch, that when their brethern of the eaſtern diſtrict came to their aſſiſtance they found nothing alive but ſome cattle, and flocks of ſheep, running wild about the fields and meadows. Perhaps they themſelves afterwards experienced the ſame fate, and were totally deſtroyed by thoſe Schrellings, whoſe deſcendants ſtill inhabit the weſtern parts of Groenland, 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 ſome 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 froſt and ſnow, which divide the two parts of Groenland; while they have been rendered inacceſſible at ſea, from the vaſt quantity of ice driven from Spitzbergen, and other northern coaſts upon the eaſtern ſhore, to which it adheres, forming an inſuperable barricade.

All that we gather from authentic records is, that Groenland was divided into two diſtricts, viz. Weſt Bygd, or the weſtern diviſion, and Eaſt Bygd, or the eaſtern diviſion. The weſtern diviſion contained four pariſhes and 100 villages. The eaſtern diviſion was ſtill more flouriſhing, as being nearer to Iceland, ſooner ſettled, and more frequented by ſhipping from Norway.

About a century after all intercourſe had ſubdued between Groenland and Norway, many ſhips were ſucceſſively ſent by the Engliſh and Danes, in order to rediſcover, and again ſettle this country, but all their attempts proved unſucceſsful.

The moſt remarkable of theſe voyages was made by the Engliſh, under Martin Forbiſher; we ſhall, therefore, preſent the following account of it. In the year 1557 this adventurer ſet ſail from England, to attempt the diſcovery of Groenland, which he got ſight of at laſt; but, by reaſon of the vaſt quantities of ice, and the approaching winter, not being able to come near the ſhore, he was forced to return home, where he gave an account of his voyage to Queen Elizabeth, who ſent him in the following ſpring with three ſhips, to purſue the former deſign, when he got ſafe to Groenland. The inhabitants, at the approach of the Engliſh, leaving their huts, retired among the rocks, from whence ſeveral of them precipitated themſelves into the ſea. The Engliſh, after they had in vain endeavoured to conciliate theſe ſavages, went to their huts, where they met with no living creature except an old woman with a child, which they took from her, and ſhe made a moſt terrible outcry for the loſs. From thence they ſailed along the coaſt, where they ſaw a ſea monſter's head above water, with a horn about three or four feet long. They landed again, and found the ſurface of the earth rocky, but very good ground beneath it. They alſo met with great ſtore of glittering ſand, containing gold, of which they took a great quantity with them. They uſed their utmoſt endeavours to enter into diſcourſe with the ſavages, who ſeemingly ſhewed no great averſion to them, and gave them to underſtand, by certain ſigns, that, if they would row higher up the river, their expectation ſhould be anſwered. Accordingly Forbiſher got a boat with ſome ſoldiers, and, having ordered his ſhip to follow him, went up the river; but ſeeing great numbers of the ſavages poſted among the rocks, would not expoſe himſelf by approaching too near the banks. At laſt three of the ſavages, who appeared of ſome conſequence among them, having made a ſignal for him to land, he reſolved to do it, all the reſt being at a conſiderable diſtance: but his boat ſcarce touched the bank of the river, when the ſavages began to appear in great numbers, which cauſed him to put back again. Nevertheleſs, the ſavages endeavoured to purſuade them, by ſigns, to come aſhore, throwing to them ſome raw fleſh; but finding the Engliſh miſtruſtful, they reſolved to draw them thither by the following ſtratagem: They laid one of their men upon the bank, who pretending to be lame, they ſuppoſed the Engliſh would come to take him, whilſt they made a ſhew of retiring to a farther diſtance, being all out of ſight behind the adjacent rocks. The Engliſh, being aware of the ſnare, diſcharged a gun at him, which made him ſoon recover his legs; and the ſavages, coming to his aſſiſtance, pelted the Engliſh in the boat with ſtones and arrows, but were ſoon diſperſed by the great guns. Forbiſher, however, landed in another place, took poſſeſſion of the country in the name of Queen Elizabeth, and, beſides his glittering ſand, brought away great quantities of a black ſtone, which contained gold ore, and likewiſe two of the natives, a male and a female, whom he contrived to enſnare.

A third armament was afterwards fitted out, and the command given to Forbiſher, who was now promoted to the rank of an admiral. This armament conſiſted of 15 ſail, on board of which were many ſoldiers, miners, ſmelters, carpenters, bakers, &c. who were to remain all the winter near the mines, or the places which produced the gold ſand, and black ſtones that contained gold ore. They carried with them all the materials neceſſary to erect a wooden fort, which might be put together as ſoon as they landed, the different pieces having been properly prepared in England. They, however, met with boiſterous weather, impenetrable fogs, and prodigious ſtrong currents, on the coaſt of Groenland, which retarded their operations till the ſeaſon was too far advanced. They had likewiſe loſt part of their wooden fort at ſea, and had neither fuel or proviſions ſufficient to ſubſiſt thoſe who were appointed to be left there during the winter. On theſe accounts the admiral determined to procure as much ore as he poſſibly could, and then return to England, without leaving any perſon behind him. Purſuant to this deſign, they traced out a mine, to which they gave the name

of the counteſs of Suſſex, and from which they procured a great quantity of ore, having erected a houſe of lime and ſtone, provided with ovens, and many other conveniencies, for their reſidence and ſecurity during their ſtay. In order to attract the notice, and gain the affection of the natives, they left behind them looking-glaſſes, beads, knives, bells, leaden pictures, and other things, with ſome loaves of bread, &c.

Before their departure they ſowed corn and other grain, peas, &c. by way of experiment, to try how they would thrive, and aſcertain what the country would produce, on their return the enſuing year. They likewiſe buried the remaining part of the wooden fort, in ſuch a manner as to be able eaſily to find it again; and having taken theſe neceſſary precautions, ſet ſail from hence in the commencement of September, and, after a diſagreeable paſſage of a month, arrived ſafe in England.

This noble deſign being abandoned by the Engliſh, the Danes took it up, and endeavoured, in ſeveral expeditions, to complete it. The firſt of theſe was undertaken under the command of Godſke Lindenow with three ſhips. When he arrived on the eaſt coaſt of Groenland he found none but wild and uncivilized people. He ſtaid three days, during which time the wild Groenlanders came to trade with him, changing furs and ſkins, with pieces of precious ſtones, for all kinds of ſmall trifling iron-ware, as knives, ſciſſars, needles, &c. common looking-glaſſes, and other ſuch trifles. When he ſet ſail from thence there were two Groenlanders remained in the ſhip whom he carried off and brought home with him. The other ſhips that ſet ſail in company, under the command of Lindenow, after they had doubled Cape Farewell, ſteered directly for Davis's Strait: in this navigation they diſcovered many fine convenient harbours and delightful meadows; but all the inhabitants along the coaſt were wild and ſavage as before. Theſe ſhips brought four ſavages home with them to Copenhagen.

Nothing can be more repugnant to the dictates of common juſtice than this practiſe of tearing away poor creatures from their country, their families and connexions, unleſs we ſuppoſe them altogether deſtitute of natural affection. That this was not the caſe with thoſe poor Groenlanders, who were brought to Copenhagen, appears from the whole tenor of their conduct, upon their firſt capture, and during their confinement in Denmark. When firſt made captives 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 countenance 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 a wife with a young child in Groenland. Two of them went to ſea in a ſmall canoe, in hopes of reaching Groenland, but one of them was retaken; two more made the ſame attempt, but were driven by a ſtorm on the coaſt of Schonen, where they were apprehended by the peaſants, and re-conveyed to Copenhagen. One of them afterwards died of a fever, caught by fiſhing for pearl during the winter for the governor of Konding. The reſt lived ſome years in Denmark; but at length, ſeeing no proſpect of being able to re-viſit their native country, ſunk into a kind of melancholy diſorder, and expired."

The ſecond expedition was made in the year 1606, with five ſhips, under the command of the before-mentioned admiral Lindenow. This time he directed his courſe to the weſtward of Cape Farewell, ſtanding for Davis's Strait, where, coaſting along, he took the ſurvey of ſeveral plans, and returned home again.

The third expedition proved abortive on account of the ice.

The fourth, under captain John Munk, in the year 1626, was not made for the diſcovery of Groenland, but to find out a paſſage between Groenland and America to China.

Beſides theſe four expeditions at the king's coſt, a fifth was undertaken, by a company of merchants at Copenhagen, in the year 1636. They fitted out two ſhips which directing their courſe to the weſtward of Groenland, fell in with the Strait of Davis, where they traded for ſome time with the ſavages; but this was not the principal object of the commander, who was acquainted with a coaſt the ſand of which had the colour and weight of gold; he accordingly directed his courſe thither, and freighted the ſhips with the ſame. After his return to Copenhagen the goldſmiths were ordered to make trial whether this ſand would yield any gold or not. But not being ſkilful enough to make ſuch trial, condemned it to be all thrown overboard; which was done accordingly by order of the high-chancellor, preſident of the company. Some part of this ſand was, however, kept as a curioſity, out of which a ſkilful artificer, who afterwards came to Copenhagen, extracted a great deal of pure gold. The honeſt and well-meaning commander, who went upon this adventure, was turned out of favour, and died ſoon after of grief, whereby not only the treaſure he had brought home, but alſo the knowledge of the place where it was to be found, was entirely loſt, as he kept this a profound ſecret.

After ſome other unſucceſsful expeditions, the Danes laid aſide all thoughts of Groenland till the year 1721, when, after many well-concerted plans propoſed by Mr. Egede (a learned and ingenious divine) to the Groenland company at Bergen in Normandy, approved and authoriſed by Frederic IV. the company reſolved not only to ſend ſhips, but alſo to ſettle a colony in Groenland, on the river Boalt, in latitude 64. Mr. Egede himſelf went over thither, and continued there fifteen years. During his ſtay he endeavoured to get all the intelligence he could procure, both by ſea and land, of the ſtate of the country. Nor did he loſe his labour; for he met with ſome places that formerly were inhabited by the ancient Norwegians, on the weſtern ſhore.

But his main deſign being to diſcover the eaſtern diſtrict of Groenland, which was always deemed the beſt of the Norwegian colonies, he reſolved to make the voyage in perſon. Accordingly he coaſted along ſouthward as far as the States Promontory (called Staten-Hoeck in the maps) in the latitude 60, looking out for Forbiſher's Strait, which would have been his ſhorteſt way, according to thoſe charts which lay the Strait down in this place; but he failed in his deſign, probably through the advanced ſtate of the ſeaſon, the month of September being nearly at an end, when the winter commences in thoſe parts, attended with dreadful ſtorms.

In the year 1724 the directors of the Bergen company fitted out a ſhip to attempt a landing on the eaſtern ſhore, which lies oppoſite to Iceland; but the large quantity of ice which barricadoed the coaſt rendered that enterprize abortive, as many others had been before. As there was no poſſibility for ſhips to approach this ſhore, the king, in the year 1728, reſolved to make horſes tranſported to this colony, in hopes that, by their help travelling might be effected by land to the eaſtern diſtrict. But this project proved impracticable, on account of the high and craggy mountains perpetually covered with ſnow. All the difficulties, and continual diſappointments, made moſt people loſe every hope of ſucceeding in this attempt.

Mr. Egede offered it as his opinion, that it might be rendered practicable by coaſting the land from the States Promontory, or (as the Danes now call it) Cape Chriſtian northwards. This opinion was confirmed by information received from ſome Groenlanders, who, with their boats, had coaſted a great part of the eaſt ſide. It is judged, however, on the whole, unſafe for any

any ſhip to venture ſo far up, under the eaſtern ſhore, as the 62d degree of latitude, and recommended as more practicable, as well as prudent, to coaſt it from the Promontory along the ſhore in ſmall veſſels. By this means a conſtant correſpondence might be maintained betwixt the colonies, though large ſhips can only touch at the moſt ſoutherly.

Deſcription of the Country; Climate, Soil, Productions Vegetable, Animal, &c.

GROENLAND, Weſt Greenland, or Old Greenland, begins in 59 deg. 50 min. north lat. The eaſtern coaſt is ſuppoſed to extend as far northward as Spitzbergen, or Eaſt Greenland; and the weſtern part is only ſeparated by a channel of 40 miles in breadth. The weſtern ſhore has been diſcovered higher than the 70th deg. of north lat.

This country is exceeding mountainous; and the mountains are ſo very high that they may be diſcerned at ſea at the diſtance of 30 leagues. The inland mountains and hills are perpetually covered with ſnow; but the low lands on the ſea ſide are, in ſummer, cloathed with verdure. The coaſt is difficult of acceſs, on account of the great number of rocks with which the ſurrounding ſeas, and the mouths of the Groenland rivers, abound, independent of the vaſt mountains of floating ice which ſeem to threaten the adventurous navigator with deſtruction.

From the moſt ſoutherly part of Groenland to the 68th degree of north latitude is not ſo ſevere as might at firſt be imagined. The ſummer includes the latter end of May, the whole of June, July and Auguſt, and half the month of September; during which the weather is generally warm: while the wind blows eaſterly the ſky is always ſerene, but when it veres to the other points ſtorms are ſure to enſue. The ſea coaſt is generally infeſted with unhealthy and diſagreeable fogs, which are, however, ſo fattening to the land, that the ſhores are covered with verdure; but the inland mountains are perfectly capped with ſnow.

To the northward of the 68th degree the weather is much more ſevere, and the cold ſo very intenſe, that even in the midſt of ſummer the very ſtrongeſt ſpirituous liquors will freeze cloſe to the fire ſide. The winter in this part continues from September to May, and ſometimes June, during which time the ſea is covered with vaſt mountains of ice. "Nothing (ſays an eminent writer) can exhibit a more dreadful, and, at the ſame time, a more dazzling appearance than thoſe prodigious maſſes of ice that ſurround the whole coaſt in different forms of rocks, caſtles, towers and ſpires, reflecting a variety of colours according to the nature of the concrete, and floating from place to place as if the whole ſcene was illuſion, or enchantment; ſuch are the proſpects they yield in calm weather, but when the winds begin to blow, and the ſea to ſwell in vaſt ſucceſſive billows, the conflict of thoſe congregated bodies of ice encountering, daſhing, cracking, burſting, and ſhivering into ten thouſand fragments, fills the eye and ear with terror and aſtoniſhment. Thunder and lightning ſeldom diſturb the air of Groenland, which, however, is ſubject to many other natural phænomena, ſuch as ſhooting ſtars, and in particular the aurora borealis, or northern lights. In the ſpring of the year, and about the new moon, this phænomenon appears ſo univerſally bright over the face of the whole northern ſky, darting its rays, and glaring with ſuch radiancy, as to afford ſufficient light whereby to read.

At the ſummer ſolſtice there is no night, and thoſe who reſide here have the pleaſure to ſee the ſun turn about the horizon all the twenty-four hours: but in the depth of winter they have but little comfort in the planet, the nights being proportionably long; yet they can ſee to travel up and down the country, though ſometimes it is neither moon-ſhine or ſtar-light.

The temperature of the air is not unwholeſome; for, except the ſcurvy, and the diſtemper of the lungs, the inhabitants know nothing of many other diſeaſes with which other countries are plagued; and theſe pectoral infirmities are not ſo much the effects of the exceſſive cold, as of the foggy weather, to which this country is very much ſubject. From the beginning of April to the end of July is the foggy ſeaſon; and from that time the fog daily decreaſes. But as in the ſummer-time they are troubled with fogs, ſo in the winter ſeaſon they are plagued with the vapour called froſt-ſmoak, which, when the cold is exceſſive, riſes out of the ſea, as the ſmoak out of a chimney, and is as thick as the thickeſt miſt, eſpecially in bays, where there is any opening in the ice.

There is a wonderful harmony and correſpondence obſerved in Groenland between fountains and the main ſea: at ſpring tides in new and full moon, when the ſtrongeſt ebbing is at ſea, the hidden fountains or ſprings of freſh water break out on the ſhore, and diſcover themſelves often in places where they might be little expected, eſpecially in winter, when the ground is covered with ice and ſnow; yet at other times there are no water ſprings in thoſe places.

The hills of Groenland are barren, and indeed frozen all the year; the low lands are tolerably fertile, particularly towards the ſea. A few oak trees are found in the ſouthern parts near the States Promontory.

In theſe particular parts the meadows are rich in graſs: turnips and coleworts are eaſily raiſed, and excellently flavoured; underwood, which grows to a vaſt height, is plentiful: birch, elm and willows are not ſcarce, and juniper berries grow in abundance.

The herb angelica grows wild, and is found in great profuſion: it is endued with the turpentine flavour, and yields an aromatic oil, which is extracted by diſtillation.

The ſhores abound with pleaſant and ſalutary kind of ſcurvy-graſs, and the mountains near the bays and creeks are covered with wild thyme. A ſpecies of graſs bearing yellow flowers, the herb tormentil, and many other plants, herbs and vegetables, abound in this country. The fruits of Groenland are bramble-berries, bil-berries, blue-berries, and juniper berries. Here it is to be obſerved, when any thing is ſaid relative to the fertility of Groenland, that the ſouthern parts are only meant, for with reſpect to the northern parts they are deſtitute of herbs and plants.

Groenland produces various metals: to the ſouthward of the Dutch colony copper ore is found. Mr. Egede once received a lump of ore from a Groenlander, and himſelf found calamine of a yellow colour. He likewiſe ſent a conſiderable quantity of yellow ſand mixed with vermillion ſtreaks to the Bergen company, who, by letter, requeſted him to procure as much as poſſible of that commodity: he could not, however, execute his commiſſion, as he was never after able to find the place where he got the firſt ſpecimen: it was, it ſeems, one of the ſmalleſt among a great cluſter of iſlands, and the mark he had ſet up was blown down by a ſtorm, ſo that he could not a ſecond time trace out the ſpot.

Rock chryſtals, both red and white, are the produce of this country; and a baſtard marble, of various colours, is very plentiful about the Daniſh colony, which is known by the name of Good Hope; of the latter the natives make bowls, lamps, pots, and crucibles. The ſeas and bays, beſides a variety of beautiful ſhells, yield great quantities of excellent coral. But one of the greateſt natural curioſities of this country is the aſbeſtos, or amianthus, which has the vulgar appellation of earth-flax, and is a fibrous, flexible, and mineral ſubſtance, compoſed of ſhort and abrupt filaments. It is a ſtony concrete, of the talcky kind, though differing from talc in its external appearance. It is neither ſo bright, ſo ſmooth, or ſo unctuous, and is not compoſed of leaves or plates, but of long filaments, like flax. It has been ſpun into cloth, and formed into paper, both of an incombuſtible nature, and not to be conſumed

ſumed by fire. Some kinds have filaments that are rigid and brittle, and others more flexible. The firſt cannot be ſpun, or formed into cloth; the latter may, but not without difficulty. This manufacture appears to have been known to the ancients, who, according to Pliny, wrapped the bodies of the dead in cloth made of earth-flax, to preſerve their aſhes ſeparate from thoſe of the funeral pile, a uſe to which this kind of cloth is ſtill applied by ſome of the Tartarian chiefs.

Groenland is not infeſted with any ravenous animal, the great white bear excepted, which, however, very ſeldom appears near the Daniſh colony.

The quadrupedes of Groenland are dogs, foxes, hares, and rein-deer. The dogs are large and rough, white or ſpeckled; and their ears ſtand upright, which is a peculiarity belonging to curs in general in all cold climates. Theſe dogs are timorous and ſtupid, do not bark, but make a moſt diſmal howling at times. In the northern parts they are rendered of infinite ſervice, as the natives there yoke them to ſledges, which, when heavy laden, they are able to draw upon the ice at the rate of 70 miles a day. Theſe poor uſeful animals are, however, very ill rewarded for their ſervices, being left to provide for themſelves, except when their owners happen to be ſucceſsful in taking a great number of ſeals, at which times their maſters gratify them with a meal, compoſed of the intrails and blood.

The foxes appear of different colours, white, grey, and blueiſh. They are neither ſo hairy, or ſo large, as thoſe of Denmark and Norway.

Hares are found in Groenland in great abundance: they are of a white colour, very fat in ſummer, and of an exquiſite flavour.

Rein-deer feed in great herds, and are hunted all the ſummer by the natives, who are uſually accompanied by their wives and children in theſe excurſions, and penetrate very far into the country in purſuit of their game.

Serpents, lizards, toads, newts, &c. are unknown in Groenland; but gnats ſwarm in the ſummer time, and are exceedingly troubleſome.

Partridges, which are white in winter, and grey in ſummer, abound here; as do ſparrows, linnets, ſnow-birds, and ice-birds.

A great number of ravens hover about the huts of the Groenlanders, as, near the habitations of theſe people, the ground is uſually ſtrewed with the offals of ſeals, and other fiſh. Groenland likewiſe abounds with eagles and falcons of a prodigious ſize, and large ſpeckled owls.

The inſects of this country are bees, waſps, ſpiders, and flies. The people, however, are not plagued with beetles, ants, rats, or mice.

The Groenlanders are fond of the ſeal, which contributes at once to their ſuſtenance and conveniency. There is ſome difference in ſeals, but the moſt remarkable ſpecies is that called the Cap-miſs, which appellation it receives from the cap, or cawl, with which it covers its head occaſionally. The head itſelf reſembles that of a dog with cropped ears, his ſnout is bearded like a cat, his eyes are large, and his teeth ſharp. His ſkin is covered with a ſhort thick fur, which is white, black, brown, or tawny: he is web-footed, which is a great convenience to him in ſwimming; and he ſeems to drag himſelf along, rather than walk.

Seals are from five to eight feet in length. The fat of this creature furniſhes the Groenlanders with oil, the fleſh with food, the ſkin with cloathing, and with coverings for their huts and boats.

Beſides ſeals, the Groenland ſeas abound with turbut, cod, haddock, ſcate, ſalmon, halibut, cat-fiſh, roe-fiſh, ſtents, whiting, bream, muſcles, crabs, ſhrimps, &c.

That aſtoniſhing creature the whale will be amply deſcribed from ſome late minute obſervations, under the article of East or New Greenland.

With reſpect to ſea fowl, the principal, in Groenland, is the eider-fowl, ſwarms of which, at times, ſeem to cover the whole ſurface of the ocean. In the warm ſeaſon infinite numbers of them hover about the Daniſh colony every evening, and take their flight to the ſea regularly the enſuing morning. In ſpring they retire to the iſlands to lay their eggs, and hatch their young, and return to the continent about June or July. The Groenlanders are very fond of their eggs and their young, but make no manner of uſe of their fine down feathers, which are excellent in their kind, and to be found in large quantities in and about their neſts.

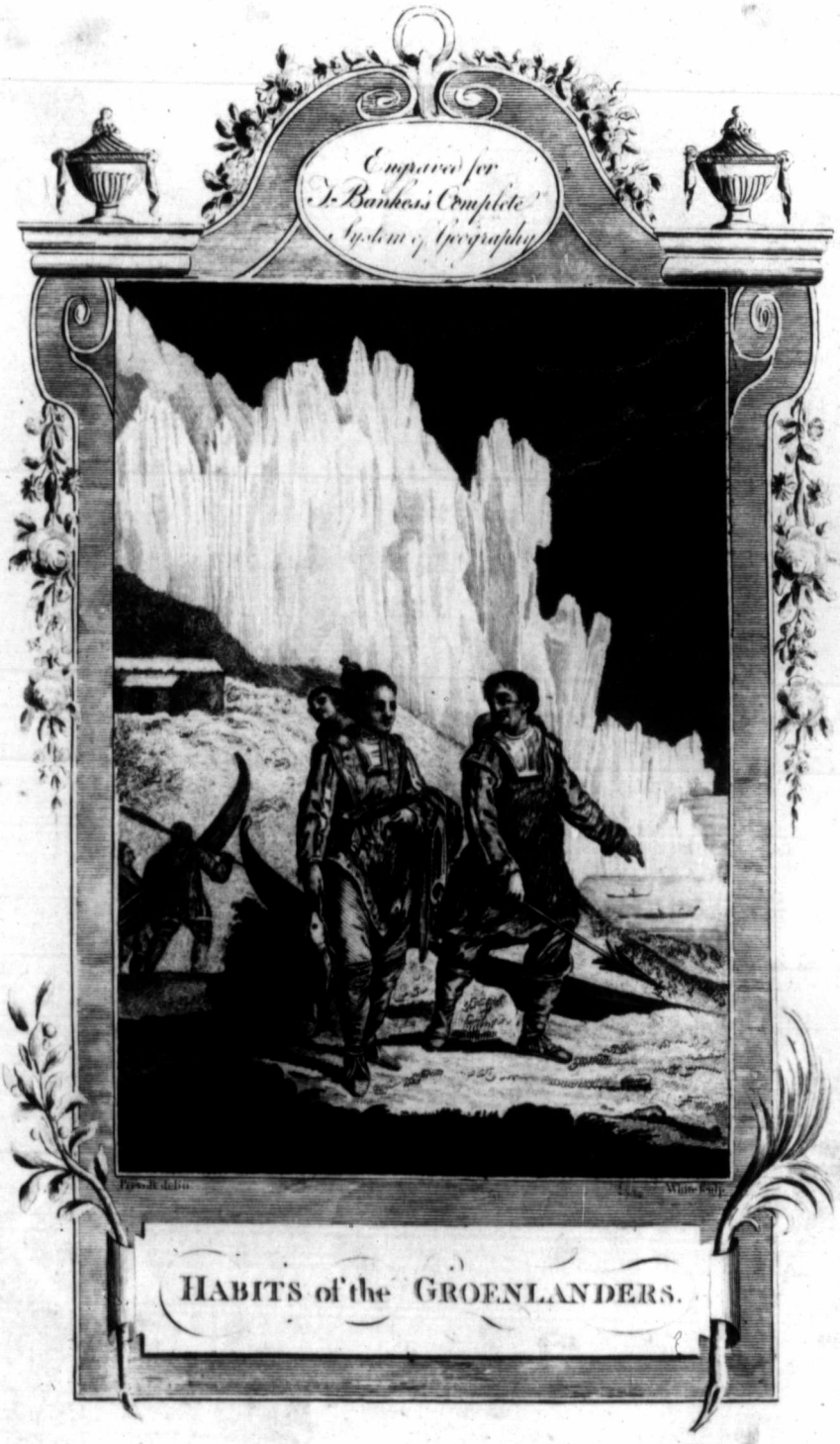
There are three ſpecies of ducks, which are found in, or frequent Groenland. The firſt, which is of the tame duck kind, has fine ſpeckled feathers, and lays and hatches its eggs in the iſlands, returning afterwards with its young to the continent. The ſecond ſort is ſmaller, has a long pointed bill, frequents only freſh waters, and builds its neſt in the flags, or reeds of rivers. The third kind, which is the largeſt of all, has the appellation of the wood-duck, and is diſtinguiſhed by a black breaſt and grey belly.

The alkes is another kind of ſea fowl, which the Groenlanders are fond of feeding on: it is leſs than a duck, and of a rancid taſte. But the moſt beautiful ſea bird in theſe parts is the tungoviarſek. This bird is not bigger than a lark, but its feathers are uncommonly elegant. Swarms of wild geeſe come to the northern parts of Groenland, from more ſouthern climates, in the ſpring, and breed, and quit the place at the commencement of winter. Many ſea-mews build in the rocks and cliffs; and ſea-terns lay their eggs on the iſlands about Groenland. Lundes, or Groenland ſea-parrots, are common here, as are ſea-ernes, and ſea-ſnipes.

Deſcent, Perſons, Dreſs, Diſpoſition, Food, Marriage and Funeral Ceremonies, Amuſements, particular Cuſtoms, Employment, Weapons, Habitations, Articles of Traffic, Language, Religion, Diſeaſes, ſcientific Knowledge, &c. of the inhabitants of Groenland.

ACCORDING to the concurring teſtimony of different authors, the native or original Groenlanders are deſcended from the Schrellings, who formerly exterminated the Iceland ſettlers. Theſe people bear a near reſemblance to the Laplanders and Lamoides, in their perſons, complexions, and way of life. There will always be found a ſtrong affinity between the cuſtoms of different nations living in the ſame kind of climate, expoſed to the ſame wants and neceſſities, and involved in the ſame ignorance and brutality. The Groenlanders are ſhort of ſtature, thick made, and inclined to fat: their faces are broad, their lips thick, and their noſes flat. They have black hair and eyes, and yellow complexions, poſſeſs health and vigour, but have very ſhort lives.

Their cloaths are, for the moſt part, made of rein-deer, or ſeal ſkins; as alſo of birds ſkins, nicely dreſſed and prepared. The mens habits are, a coat, or jacket, with a cape or hood ſewed to it, to cover the head and ſhoulders. This coat reaches nearly to the knees. Their breeches are very ſmall, not coming above their loins, that they may not hinder them from getting into their boats; and the hair of the ſkins the coat is made of is turned inward to keep them warm. Over this coat they put on a large frock, made of ſeal ſkins dreſſed and tanned without hair, in order to keep out the water; and thus they are dreſſed when they go to ſea. Between the leathern frock and the under coat they wear a linen ſhirt, or, for want of linen, one made of ſeals guts, which alſo helps to keep out the water from the under coat. Of late they appear ſometimes in more gaudy dreſſes; as ſhirts made of ſtriped linen, and coats and breeches of red and blue ſtuffs or cloth, which they buy of the Daniſh or Dutch merchants, but faſhioned after their own way. In theſe they parade and feaſt, when they keep holidays on ſhore. The hoſe they wore formerly were made of rein-deer or ſeal-ſkins; but now they prefer our ſort of worſted,



HABITS of the GROENLANDERS.

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worſted, of different colours, white, blue, and red, which they buy of the Danes. Their ſhoes and boots are made of ſeal-ſkins, red or yellow, well dreſſed and tanned. They are nicely wrought, with folds behind and before, without heels, and fit well upon their feet. The only difference between the dreſs of the men and women is, that the womens coats are higher on the ſhoulders, and wider than the mens, with higher and larger hoods. The married women, that have children, wear much larger coats than the reſt, like gowns, becauſe they muſt carry their children in them upon their backs. They wear drawers which reach to the middle of the thigh, and over them breeches. The drawers they always keep on, and ſleep in them. Their breeches come down to the knees: theſe they do not wear in ſummer or in winter, but when they go abroad; and, as ſoon as they come home, they pull them off again. Next to their bodies they wear a waiſt-coat made of young fawn-ſkins, with the hairy ſide inward. The coat, or upper garment, is alſo made of fine coloured ſwan-ſkins, or (in defect of that) ſeal-ſkins, trimmed and edged with white, and neatly wrought in the ſeams, and about the brim. Their hair, which is very long and thick, is braided, and tied up in a knot. They commonly go bare-headed, as well without as within doors: nor are they covered with hoods, but in caſe of rain or ſnow. Their chief ornaments are glaſs beads, of divers colours, or coral, about their necks and arms, and pendants in their ears. They alſo wear bracelets made of black ſkin ſet with pearls, with which they trim their cloaths and ſhoes. Some have, beſides this, another ſort of embelliſhment; they make long black ſtrokes between the eyes on the forehead, upon the chin, arms, and hands, and even upon the thighs and legs. They keep their cloaths pretty clean, though in other things, eſpecially in their victuals, they are not ſo nice. The women, in general, who have children, are very dirty and ſlovenly, well knowing that they cannot be repudiated. But thoſe unfortunate women that are barren, or whoſe children are dead, and do not know the moment they may be ſent away, are obliged to take more care to be cleanly, that they may pleaſe their huſbands.

With reſpect to diſpoſition, the Groenlanders are good-natured and orderly, but indolent, dull, and phlegmatic. They live peaceably without laws, and act regularly without diſcipline.

In caſes of murder (which, however, ſeldom happen) no cognizance is taken of the murderer, unleſs the neareſt relation to the deceaſed thinks proper, perſonally, to revenge his death. Old women, who, from an untoward diſpoſition, are ſuppoſed to be witches, they kill, by the unanimous conſent of the neighbourhood.

As they think all the productions of nature deſigned for mankind in general, they deem every thing common property. This naturally obviates the idea of robbery, as none can ſteal where he has a right to take whatever he happens to lay his hands on. But this idea they extend to ſtrangers, and take as freely from them as from their own neighbours, which occaſions them to have a worſe name than they deſerve; as the notions they are brought up in excuſe, in ſome meaſure, their ſuppoſed delinquency.

Fornication and adultery are unknown to the Groenlanders, except upon particular occaſions, when certain ceremonials, at which both ſexes attend, admit of promiſcuous intercourſe; and theſe permiſſions do not proceed ſo much from vice as arbitrary cuſtom; for, in general, the Groenlanders are modeſt, civil, generous, and hoſpitable. Only married people are admitted to the above mentioned feſtivals; for the unmarried, of both ſexes, are remarkable for their modeſty and continency. To confirm this aſſertion, Mr. Egede, the Daniſh miſſionary, ſays, he never ſaw any of them hold any looſe converſation, or ſhew the leaſt inclination to it, either in word or deed. During fifteen years that he lived in Groenland, he did not hear of more than two or three unmarried young women who were pregnant, becauſe it is reckoned the greateſt diſgrace.

The moſt exceptionable propenſity of the Groenlanders is their being ſo exceeding dirty, for they are ſlovens to a degree of beaſtiality. The men are ſo fond of dirt, that they never waſh themſelves with clean water, but, in the manner of cats, lick their fingers, and clean their faces, as well as they can, with the ſpittle. They even eat their victuals in the ſame bowls and platters that have been licked by their half ſtarved dogs, without the leaſt idea of making them clean. The women think they are never ſo ſweet as when they waſh themſelves in urine, that being deemed their grand perfume; and a female, when ſo cleaned, imagines her ſmell to be peculiarly grateful. Even the men adopt this opinion ſo far as to compliment a woman, after having been thus ſcowered, with the title of *niviarſiar ſuarneaks*, or, maidenly ſweet. Company never hinders either ſex from complying with the calls of nature; and the utenſils for thoſe purpoſes being always in the ſame room as the family, a diſagreeable effluvia ariſes, which is extremely offenſive to any but thoſe who are, by long uſe, familiarized to ſuch ſtenches. Many of theſe people ſoak raw hides in theſe very utenſils, which contributes conſiderably to the nauſeous ſmell of the place, and renders a Groenlander's habitation almoſt inſufferable.

The Groenlanders feed upon the fleſh of ſea-partridges, hares, ſeals, rein-deer, and whales. Their fleſh-meat they eat either boiled, dried in the ſun or wind, or raw. Their fiſh they either boil or dry thoroughly. Indeed, it is by perfectly drying that they preſerve their ſalmon, halibut, or ſtents, which are caught in the ſummer, and laid up for winter ſtore: for theſe people, with all their ignorance, are as careful as the ant in providing for future exigencies. Seals are only to be caught in the ſummer, unleſs they happen, in the winter, now and then to meet with a few floating upon the ice. The mode of preſerving theſe animals is by burying them under the ſnow, from whence they are dug out as occaſion requires, and eaten without further preparation. They are as naſty in eating as other things; for they never clean either platters, pots, or kettles; and the dirty ground ſerves them for a table. But they act wiſer than many more poliſhed nations, in not eating ſet meals at particular hours, but gratifying the calls of hunger when the craving appetite requires. The women uſually eat by themſelves; but when the Groenlanders return from ſea, they make merry together, and regale ſumptuouſly.

As theſe people are not delicate in their appetites, they are not very particular, in times of ſcarcity, with reſpect to their food, as they will feed upon pieces of rotten ſkins, ſea-weeds, flags, any kind of roots, whale's fat, train oil, &c. In ſummer they uſe wood as fuel to dreſs ſuch victuals as they do not chooſe to eat raw; but, in winter, they uſually boil their food upon their train-oil lamps. Their kettles are made either of braſs, copper, or marble, and, in general, manufactured by themſelves. Their method of kindling a fire is by the friction of a piece of hard wood upon a dried fir-tree block.

The Danes found great difficulty in bringing the Groenlanders to taſte their proviſions. Some, however, at length came to be fond of bread and butter; but very few have, as yet, overcome their ſtrong averſion to ſpirituous liquors; and none can be perſuaded to chew or ſmoak tobacco.

The men are commonly contented with one wife. There are ſome, indeed, but thoſe are very few, that keep two, three, or four wives; but theſe paſs for heroes, or more than ordinary men; becauſe, by their induſtry, they are able to maintain ſo many wives and children. Before the arrival of the Danes, jealouſy never prevailed among thoſe wives; but they agreed well together; though the firſt wife was reckoned the miſtreſs. But ſince the Danes have informed them of

the word and will of God, importing, that, in the beginning, the all-wife Creator made one man and one woman to live in matrimony as husband and wife, there have been some resentment in the wives, when their husbands have been disposed to take any others beside them. They have applied to Mr. Egede, desiring him to put a stop to such a proceeding. Also, when he has instructed them in their catechism, they have always reminded him fully to instruct their husbands in the duty of the seventh commandment. They refrain from marrying their next relations, even in the third degree, deeming such matches unwarrantable and unnatural. It is likewise censurable, if a young man and woman, that have served and been educated in one family, should desire to be married together; for they look upon them as brother and sister.

Their marriage ceremonies are as follow. When a young man fancies a maiden, he commonly proposes it to the parents and relations on both sides. After he has obtained their consent, he procures two or more old women to fetch the bride. These go to the place where the young woman is, and carry her away by force; for, though she approves of the match, yet, out of modesty, she must effect coyness, in order to avoid the censure of forwardness. After she is brought to the bridegroom's house, she keeps, for some time, at a distance, and sits retire in some corner, upon a bench, with her hair dishevelled, and her face veiled. In the mean while the bridegroom uses all the rhetoric he is master of, and spares no caresses to bring her to compliance, which being effected, the maiden yields to his embraces and the wedding is over.

Husbands often repudiate their wives, either if they do not suit their humours, or if they are barren, (which they hold to be very ignominious,) and for many other reasons: but if they have children by them they keep them for life.

The robust constitution of the women is particularly evinced in child-bearing; for as soon as it is over they will go to work and do their ordinary business: but sometimes it costs them their lives. They have a tender love for their children. The mother always carries her infant upon her back, wrapped up in her coat, wherever she goes, or whatever business she has in hand; for they have no cradles. They suckle their children till they are three or four years old, or more; because, in their tender infancy, they cannot digest the strong victuals that the rest must live upon.

They are negligent in the education of their children, for they never chastise or correct them when they do amiss, but leave them to their own discretion; notwithstanding which, when they are grown up to years of maturity, they seldom seem inclined to vice. Altho' they shew no great respect to their parents in any outward forms, they are always very willing to do what they order them. They are under the care of their parents, boys as well as girls, till they are married; afterwards they shift for themselves; yet they continue to dwell in the same house, or under the same roof, with their fathers, together with other kindred and relations; and what they get they all enjoy in common.

On the death of a Groenlander all his property is thrown away as impure and unfortunate. All who reside in the same house are obliged to carry whatever belongs to them in the open air to purify; but in the evening they fetch their effects back again. They dress the corpse in its best apparel, bend the legs under the back, wrap the whole up in rein deer and seal skins, and bury it under a heap of stones. Those who are concerned in the funeral are for some time deemed unclean; and the mourners, to testify their grief, make most hideous howlings. A corpse is always conveyed out of the back part of a hut, but never through the door; and, at the funeral a woman lights a stick, and, waving it round her head, pronounces the words "Pikleruk pok," which is, he is no more to be procured.

They fix a dog's head upon the burial place of a young child, for this curious reason, that as a child is deficient in point of understanding, it would not be capable of finding its way to the land of spirits without a faithful dog to run before and guide it.

The principal amusements of the Groenlanders are singing in a very harsh discordant manner, dancing after a very rustic mode, running, wrestling, foot-ball, &c. They very seldom quarrel with each other, not having, indeed, in their language any scurrilous words, or such as are calculated to express anger or resentment. They are never known to fight: but when a Groenlander conceives himself aggrieved or affronted, he challenges the aggressor to a trial of satirical skill, or bandy sarcasm with him. The two parties meet accordingly, when the challenger begins first, and, in a humerous poetical manner, charges his antagonist with having affronted him, and likewise recapitulates whatever faults or follies he has been guilty of. The person challenged replies in a similar strain, exculpates himself as well as he can, and retorts by recounting the errors of the challenger. In this war of words, if the challenger has the advantage, his antagonist is obliged to apologize for having affronted him; but, on the contrary, if he is out-satirized, he must confess himself wrong, and beg pardon for having made the accusation. Let the satirical contest conclude how it will, a reconciliation is sure to take place, and the day to conclude with the utmost mirth and festivity. In this manner terminate the quarrels of the Groenlanders, and such is their severest resentment. It is to be wished that nations which pretend to great politeness and benevolence, would terminate their differences in a like sensible and friendly manner, without having recourse to that Gothic, unchristian, and inhuman practice of duelling, or appealing to the savage brutality of blows.

The songs, which are sung at their assemblies, are satires against their neighbours follies, or rather good-natured poetical documents and representations of each others faults. The person who sings always beats a little drum with his finger, as an accompaniment to his verses, and likewise make strange gesticulations for the greater entertainment of those present.

The greater part of the year is employed by these people either in hunting or fishing. The principal game they hunt is the rein-deer. To pursue this animal they penetrate into the interior parts, accompanied by their whole families. Having found a herd of rein-deer, a number of Groenlanders surround them at a considerable distance, and then, with shouts and hideous yellings, drive them into a narrow compass, by contracting the circle they have formed round them. The animals being thus cooped up, become an easy prey, and may be killed with great facility.

The hunting weapons of the Groenlanders are fir-tree bows, wound about with the twisted sinews of animals, and strung with the same, or with slips of seal-skins. The arrows are near six feet in length, and bearded with iron or sharp pointed bone; but those they shoot birds with are blunt pointed, that they may not tear the flesh, the blow being sufficient to kill the bird, without mangling it. In killing sea fowls they use lances, which they throw with astonishing dexterity, and very seldom miss the mark.

Their method of whale-fishing is different from what is practised by other Europeans. When they set our upon those expeditions, they go in a large long-boat, called kone-boat, because it is rowed by women; for the word *kone* implies a women. About 50 persons go in one of these boats, and when they find a whale, the men strike him with their harpoons, to which are fastened, with very long lines, blown seal-skins, which are filled with wind like bladders. These artificial bladders are of infinite use to the Groenlanders in their whale-fishing; for by floating on the surface of the sea, they not only discover the track of the whale after he is wounded, but hinder him from diving under the water for any length of time. When the whale loses his strength, and is exhausted by fatigue, the Groenlanders again attack him with spears and lances till he

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expires. On this occaſion they are clad in ſkin coats, conſiſting of only one piece, with boots, gloves, and caps, ſewed and laced ſo tight together, that no water can penetrate them. In this garb they jump into the ſea, and begin to ſlice the fat all round the whale's body, even under water: for in theſe coats they cannot ſink, as they are always full of air; ſo that they can ſtand upright in the ſea. Nay, they are ſometimes ſo daring that they will get upon the whale's back while there is yet life in him, to make an end of him, and cut away his fat.

Seals are taken by various methods, ſuch a ſtriking them with harpoons, ſimilar in form, to thoſe uſed in whale-fiſhing, but much ſmaller; watching them when they come to breathe at the air holes in the ice, and ſtriking them with lances, approaching them diſguiſed like their own ſpecies, that is, covered with a ſeal-ſkin, creeping upon the ice, and wagging the head in the very ſame manner as a ſeal; by which means the Groenlander approaches the animal without ſuſpicion, and kills him with his lance. Previous to the falling of the ſnow, theſe people can ſee the ſeals through the tranſparent ice, and trace them to the openings, where they are eaſily killed. They are likewiſe ſurprized while they baſk themſelves in the ſun, either upon rocks or floating ſpecies of ice. The Groenlanders angle with lines made of whalebone, cut very ſmall, and generally catch a great many fiſh. The halibut is caught with lines of hemp, or ſeal-ſkin. Salmon and roe-fiſh are taken by means of weirs or ſtone enclоſures, into which the tide carries them at flood, and leaves them on dry land at low water. Stent fiſh are caught by means of netting extending upon poles. They are dried upon the rocks in the open air, and ſerve for part of the winter proviſion of the natives, being dreſſed in melted fat or train oil.

They have two ſorts of boats; the one, which the men alone make uſe of, is a ſmall veſſel, and ſharp pointed at both ends, three fathoms in length, and but three quarters of a yard wide at moſt, with a round hole in the middle, juſt large enough for a man's body to enter, and ſit down in it. The inſide of the boat is made of thin raſts, tacked together with the ſinews of animals; and the outſide is covered with ſeal ſkins, dreſſed, and without hair. No more than one can ſit in it, who faſtens it ſo tight about his waiſt that no water can penetrate it. In theſe ſmall boats they go to ſea, managing them with one oar, a fathom long, broad at both ends, with which they paddle about in the moſt ſtormy weather, to catch ſeal and ſea fowls; and if they happen to overſet, eaſily raiſe themſelves, and recover their boats by means of their paddles. The kone-boat is made in the ſame manner, but more durable, and longer, being 60 feet in length, and likewiſe has a maſt, with a triangular ſail, which is made of the membranes and entrails of ſeals, and managed with the help of the braces and bowlings. The women build, repair and row theſe boats, and likewiſe build all the Groenlanders huts; the whole mechanic employment of the men being to make hunting implements and fiſhing-tackle.

This country is but thinly peopled. The huts which the inhabitants reſide in during winter are low, and built of ſtone and turf. The windows are on one ſide, made of the bowels of ſeals, dreſſed, and ſewed together, or of the maws of halibuts, and are white and tranſparent. On the other ſide are placed their beds, which conſiſt of ſhelves or benches, made of deal boards, raiſed half a yard from the ground. Their bedding is made of ſeal or rein-deer ſkins. Several families live together in one of theſe houſes or huts, each family occupying a room by itſelf, ſeparated from the reſt by wooden poſts, by which alſo the roof is ſupported. Before the poſts, is a hearth or fire place, in which is placed a great lamp, in the form of a half-moon, ſeated on a trivet. Over this are hung their kettles of braſs, copper, or marble, in which they boil their victuals. Under the roof, juſt about the lamp, they have a ſort of rack, or ſhelf, to put their wet cloathes upon. They burn train-oil in their lamps, and moſs ſerves them as a ſubſtitute for wick. The door of the hut is low, that as little cold as poſſible may be admitted. The houſe is lined with old ſkins within, and ſurrounded with branches. The men and women ſit to work with their backs to each other. In the ſummer the Groenlanders dwell in tents made of long poles, fixed in a conical form, covered with deer-ſkins within, and outwardly with dreſſed ſeal-ſkins, ſo that rain cannot pierce them.

The Groenlanders traffic with the Danes, by exchanging whalebone, blubber, train-oil, horns of ſea-unicorns, rein-deer ſkins, ſeal ditto, and fox ditto, for coats, ſhirts, ſtockings knives, hand-ſaws, needles, angling-hooks, cheſts, boards, looking-glaſſes, toys, &c. &c.

The language of the Groenlanders is guttural, and full of conſonants. The alphabet is without the letters C, D, Q, X; and they have a great number of poly-ſyllables like the people of North America.

Theſe people treat the Daniſh miſſionaries with great reſpect, and attend to what they preach with the utmoſt patience; but at the ſame time hear them with the moſt mortifying indifference; ſo that thoſe gentlemen make but few proſelytes, or, at leaſt, if any are converted, they ſeldom long remember what has been ſaid to them. Thoſe who remain in their original ſuperſtition believe in the immortality of the ſoul, but have very confuſed and inadequate ideas of the Deity, whom they called *Torngarſeck*, and ſuppoſe that he reſides either in the bowels of the earth, or in the ſea. They likewiſe believe in another ſpirit, whom they call *Innirirrirſok*, or the reſtrainer, becauſe they fancy he prevents them from eating or drinking what is pernicious, and from doing wrong in other things. A third ſpirit, called *Erloerſortok*, or the gutter, they repreſent as a monſter, and imagine he lives upon the entrails of the dead. They ſuppoſe all the elements to be filled with ſpirits; and believe that their prieſts, whom they call Angekuts, have each one of theſe ſpirits, as an attendant or familiar; and this ideal familiar ſpirit they call *Tornagh*, and fancy that he always comes with great readineſs to the Angekut when ſummoned.

When an Angekut pretends to invoke the great ſpirit Torngarſeck, he retires in ſome unfrequented place, where none of the people dare follow him, and, on his return, makes them believe that he has invoked Torngarſeck, who anſwered his invocation by appearing in ſuch a horrid form that he was overcome by terror, ſickened, ſunk into a trance, and remained without ſigns of life for the ſpace of three days, and that when he recovered, he found himſelf induced with the ſpirit of conjuration.

Theſe Angekuts are very great impoſtors, and, by a great variety of artifices, maintain entire aſcendency over the poor deluded people.

The principal diſeaſes of the Groenlanders are of a ſcorbutic nature, and they are great accuſtomed to weak eyes, which latter diſorder is occaſioned by the ſharp piercing winds incident to the country, and the white glare reflected from the ice and ſnow, with which the whole country is covered ſo great a part of the year. The ſmall-pox being brought among theſe people in the year 1734, from Copenhagen, made great havock. With reſpect to ſurgery or phyſic, they are extremely ignorant. Their great ſpecific plaiſter for all kinds of wounds, is the compoſition of the bark of a tree, burned moſs, and train-oil; and all their inſtruments of ſurgery conſiſt in a common knife, a fiſh-hook, and a needle.

The Groenlanders are utterly ignorant of natural philoſophy, and, indeed, of ſcience in general, a ſmall ſmattering of aſtronomy excepted; for they have made ſufficient obſervations of the ſtars to be able to ſteer by them to ſea. They meaſure time by months, commencing the year after the ſun's firſt riſing abovet he horizon in the winter; and by every month they are preciſely

precisely acquainted with the proper times for killing, or taking, the several species of fishes, fowls, animals, &c. So that their little astronomy serves to direct all their avocations, such as remaining at home to do their little domestic and mechanic works, going abroad to hunt, fish, and the like.

SECTION II.

EAST GREENLAND, NEW GREENLAND *or the Country of* SPITZBERGEN.

Account of the Discovery, including a Detail of the Voyages undertaken by divers Navigators in Quest of a Passage to the East Indies by the North Pole.

THE idea of a passage to the East Indies by the North Pole was first suggested in the year 1527 by a merchant of Bristol, who addressed Henry VIII. on that subject; but the plan he proposed was never put into execution.

The first attempt was made in the reign of Queen Elizabeth, in the year 1553, by Sir Hugh Willoughby, who sailed with three ships to the latitude of 75 deg. north, within sight, as it was supposed, of Greenland, which was afterwards re-discovered by the Dutch, and named Spitzbergen. Being driven back by a storm, he was compelled to winter in the river Arzena, in Lapland, where himself and his whole company were unfortunately frozen to death.

Three years after captain Borroughs, comptroller of the navy to queen Elizabeth, succeeded Sir Hugh Willoughby in attempting this discovery. He passed the north cape in the year 1556, penetrated to the 78th deg. of north lat. discovered the Wygate, or strait, which separates the country of the Samoides from Nova Zembla; and then returned to England, contented with having proceeded much farther than his predecessor.

The report made by captain Burroughs occasioned queen Elizabeth to fit out two stout vessels to perfect the discovery. These were put into commission, and the command given to captain Jackman and captain Pell, who, in the year 1580, passed the strait which captain Burroughs had discovered, and entered the eastern sea; but there the mountains of ice were so dreadful, and the weather so tempestuous, that captain Pell, with his ship and crew, were lost, and captain Jackman returned to England. The bad success of this expedition occasioned the ardour of the English, at that time, to subside with respect to the main enterprize, which was the discovery of a north-east passage.

The Dutch began to pursue the same object in 1595, when John Cornelius made the attempt, but without any degree of success.

Cornelius was succeeded in 1606 by William Barens, an experienced navigator and able mathematician, who having proceeded in the course previously pointed out by the English navigators, and passed the Wygate, met with the impediments which had prevented the success of others, and returned home fully convinced that the desired passage was not to be found in that direction. In 1607 he entered upon a second voyage, which he determined to prosecute upon a different plan, by steering to the northward of Nova Zembla; but when he had reached the 77th deg. of North latitude his ship was forced by the floating ice, upon the rocks, and there crushed to pieces. Barens, and the greatest part of his crew, got safe to land; but there they experienced the most excruciating miseries, by being obliged to winter in a place where the severity of the weather caused the flesh to perish upon the bones of some, and put an end to the existence of others. The survivors, however, with great ingenuity and fortitude, framed a pinnace from the wrecks of the ship; and, at the commencement of the summer, set sail in it for Lapland, but the captain died before their arrival at Colin in that country, and with him perished the hopes of perfecting the discovery at that time.

In 1710 the celebrated Henry Hudson, who discovered the strait and Bay that still bear his name, attempted the north-east passage, but was as unsuccessful as those that had gone before.

Though all these adventurers had miscarried in the main design of their expedition, the discovery of a north-east passage, yet their voyages proved beneficial, in some measure, to their respective countries, by introducing to them the knowledge of seal-fishing, whale-fishing, and other profitable pursuits.

The English re-assumed the design in 1676, when two ships were fitted out by order of Charles II. and at the expence of the king himself, the duke of York his brother, and seven other persons of rank. The command of these ships was given to that excellent navigator and mathematician captain John Wood, and captain Hawes, the former being appointed to act as principal, and direct the expedition in the character of commodore.

They sailed on the 28th of May, 1676, and proceeded to the Northern Ocean. On the 15th of the ensuing month they entered the Polar Circle, and on the 29th of the same month the ship named the Speedwell, in which captain Wood sailed, was unfortunately wrecked on some rocks in the icy seas. After having struck, the captain gives the following affecting and animated description of the distresses of himself and his crew. "Here (says he) we lay beating upon a rock, in the most frightful manner, for the space of three or four hours, using all possible means to save the ship, but in vain; for it blew so hard, that it was wholly out of our power to carry out an anchor capable of doing us any service. At length we saw land close under our stern, to the great amazement of us all, as before we could not see it for the foggy weather. I ordered the men to get out the boats before our mast came by the board, which was done. I then sent the boatswain towards the shore in the pinnace, to see if there was any possibility of landing, which I much feared because the sea ran so high. In half an hour he returned, and gave for answer, that it was impossible to land a man, the snow being in high cliffs, and the shore inaccessible. In consequence of these bad tidings we went to prayers, to beseech the almighty to have mercy on us, as nothing but inevitable ruin appeared before our eyes. After prayers the weather cleared up a little, and looking over the stern I saw a small beach on the spot where I thought there might be some chance of getting on shore. I therefore sent off the pinnace a second time, with some men in her to be first landed, but she durst not venture to attempt the beach. I then ordered out the long boat, with twenty men in her to land, who attempted it, and got safe on shore. Those in the pinnace seeing that followed, and landing their men likewise, both vessels returned to the ship without any accident.

"The men on shore desired some fire arms and ammunition, for there were many bears in sight. I therefore ordered two barrels of powder, some small arms, provisions, with my own papers and money, to be put on board the pinnace, but as she put off from the ship's side, a sea overset her, so that all was lost, with the life of one man, and several others were taken up for dead. The pinnace was dashed to pieces to our great regret, as by that disaster one means of escaping from this dismal country was cut off. The long-boat being on board, and the sea running high, the boatswain and some others would compel me and the lieutenant to leave the ship, declaring that it was impossible for her to live in that sea, and that they had rather be drowned than their commander; but desired me, when I came ashore, if possible, to send the boat again for them. Before we had got half way to the shore the ship overset, so that making all possible haste to land the men we had on board I went off to the ship again, to save those men who had given me such proofs of their regard,

gard. With great hazard I got to the quarter of the ſhip, and they came down the ladder into the boat, only one man was left for dead, who had been caſt away in the pinnace. I returned, however, to the ſhore, though very wet and cold. We then hawled up the boat, and went up the land about a muſquet ſhot, where our men were making a fire, and a tent with canvas and oars, which we had ſaved for that purpoſe, and in which we lay all night wet and weary. The next morning the man we left on board having recovered got upon the mizen-maſt, and entreated to be taken on ſhore; but it blew ſo hard, and the ſea ran ſo high, that, though he was an expert ſeaman, none would venture to bring him off.

"The wind continuing to blow, with extreme fogs, froſts, ſnow, and all the ill compacted weather that could be imagined, we built more tents to preſerve ourſelves; and the ſhip breaking to pieces came all on ſhore to the ſame place were we landed, which ſerved us for ſhelter and firing; beſides, there came to us ſome hogſheads of brandy, and good ſtore of flour, which was great comfort to us in our extremity. We now lay between hope and deſpair, praying for fair weather, that captain Hawes might find us, which it was impoſſible for him to do while the weather continued foggy; but fearing at the ſame time he might ſhare the ſame fate. At all events I was reſolved to try the utmoſt to ſave as many as I could in the long-boat. In order thereunto we raiſed her two feet, and raiſed a deck upon her, to keep the ſea out as much as poſſible: with this boat and thirty men (for ſhe would carry no more) I intended alternately to row and ſail to Ruſſia; but the crew not being ſatisfied as to the choice of the men, began to be mutinous, every one having as much reaſon to ſave himſelf as another. In this perilous ſtate brandy was our beſt reſourſe, for it kept the men always intoxicated, and fruſtrated their deſigns. Some were reſolved to go by land, but that I knew was impoſſible: neither had we proviſion or ammunition to defend us from the wild beaſts.

"The weather ſtill continued very bad, with fogs, ſnow, rain and froſt, till the ninth day of our being on ſhore, which was the 8th day of July, when in the morning it cleared up, and, to our great joy, one of our people called out, a ſail! This proving to be captain Hawes we ſet fire to our town, that he might ſee where we were, which he preſently diſcovering, came up, and ſent his boat to us. Before I went off I wrote a brief relation of the deſign of the voyage, with the accident that had befallen us, put it into a glaſs bottle and left it in the fortification I had there built. By twelve o'clock they all got ſafe on board, but left all on ſhore we had ſaved from the ſhip, for we much feared it would prove foggy again, and that we ſhould be once more driven on this miſerable country; a country for the moſt part covered perpetually with ſnow, and principally boggy land, on whoſe ſurface grows a kind of moſs bearing a blue and yellow flower, the whole produce of the earth in this deſolate region. The ice cliffs, which are exceeding high, and the arches overhanging ſupporting mountains of ſnow, exhibit a moſt tremendous ſpectacle. Being all on board the Proſperous, we ſet ſail for England, where we arrived in 45 days."

The expectations of the Engliſh government, and the hopes of the Britiſh navigators, with reſpect to the diſcovery of a north-eaſt paſſage, ſubſided with the iſſue of this unfortunate expedition; and many mariners ſeriouſly began to think that no ſuch paſſage exiſted; notwithſtanding the Dutch, but a few years before this expedition, ſailed very near that open ſea which the Ruſſians at preſent navigate with great facility; and might, without the leaſt doubt, have eaſily reached the coaſts China and Japan, had they perſevered in their undertaking.

Soon after theſe enterprizes the aſtoniſhing genius of Peter the Great, Czar of Muſcovy, not only humanized and poliſhed his ſubjects, (who before were little better than barbarians) but compelled them to great and noble undertakings. Hence the Ruſſians, who ſcarcely had any veſſels larger than a ſmall bark, began not only to build ſhips of conſiderable burthen, but to attempt new diſcoveries. Theſe arduous undertakings occaſioned the vaſt and almoſt deſert country of Siberia to be explored, Kamtſchatka to be diſcovered, and the ſeas on the north of Aſia to be traverſed. Theſe attempts were begun by Beering, who, on the 5th of February 1725, received orders from count Apraxim, admiral of Ruſſia, to proceed on his paſſage into Siberia. By his inſtructions, ſigned by the Czar, he was to inform himſelf of the north-eaſtern frontiers of that country, in order to diſcover whether they were contiguous to, or what might be their diſtance from, the continent of North America: and if any paſſage could be obtained that way at ſea. He traverſed Siberia, partly by land, and partly in boats by rivers, till he came to Lower Kamtſchatka, in the 56th deg. of north lat. and about long. 94. 30. eaſt from London. It ſtands on a river of the ſame name, which runs to the eaſt, and about 120 miles from the town falls in the Sleeping Sea, as it is called in the map annexed to Beering's voyage. Beering ſailed from the river Kamtſchatka the 14th of July 1728, and the 8th of Auguſt found the latitude to be 64 deg. 30 min. On the 15th the lat. was 67. 18. and he thought proper not to proceed, as he could not obſerve that the land reached farther northward, and was apprehenſive leſt ſome contrary winds might prevent his return to Kamtſchatka before the end of ſummer.

There was a ridge of mountains covered with ſnow all along the ſhore, from Kamtſchatka to this place, which appeared at ſea like a wall. In September Beering returned to the river of Kamtſchatka, and wintered in Lower Kamtſchatka. On the 5th of June 1729 he ſailed again from that river, and ſteered eaſtwards, being informed that land might that way be diſcerned at ſea in clear weather. But having made 200 werſtes, or 144 Engliſh miles, and no land appearing, he changed his courſe along the coaſt of Shatzick, to double the point of the continent of Kamtſchatka, which was before unknown. That point lies in lat. 51. and about long. 60. 10. eaſt from London. About 80 miles to the north of it is the mouth of Bolſkhaya, from whence Beering croſſed the ſea to Okotſki, in lat. 58. 30, and long. 78. and thence he returned by land to Siberia, and ſo to Peterſburg, where he arrived in March 1730. In the account of this voyage he gives a ſhort deſcription of thoſe parts of Siberia and Samoieda through which he travelled. In this voyage, however, he made no conſiderable diſcoveries; and, on a ſecond voyage, he unfortunately periſhed in his attempt.

With reſpect to Beering's ſecond voyage, we know little more than that he began it about the year 1740, penetrated as far as the Iſle of Japan, and then ſailed eaſtward about 80 leagues, after which he was ſhipwrecked on an iſland before unknown, where he and moſt of his company periſhed through cold, hunger and fatigue. The news was brought by Mr. Stoller, a botaniſt, and of the Academy of Sciences at Peterſburg, who accompanied Beering. Mr. Stoller, with the aſſiſtance of ſome of his companions, found means to build, out of the ruins of their great ſhip, a ſmall bark, in which himſelf, and nineteen others, after a thouſand perilous adventures, arrived at Kamtſchatka. The ſame gentleman reports, that Tſcherſkow, who accompanied Beering in that expedition, had been more fortunate, and even diſcovered the coaſt of America, but his men were beaten off by the ſavages.

From the ſecond enterprize, however, and from ſome ſubſequent voyages of the Ruſſians, the reality of a north-eaſt paſſage is aſcertained. This is effected by ſumming up the courſes run by the Engliſh and Dutch; by ſome Ruſſians who ſailed ſince Beering, and by Beering in his laſt voyage, the whole amounting to an abſolute paſſage from Europe by the north-eaſt to

Japan and China; for the Engliſh and Dutch have repeatedly ſailed to Wygatz, or the Straits of Nova Zembla; the Ruſſians have ſailed from thence to the North Cape of Aſia; and Beering ſailed from the ſaid North Cape to the Iſles of Japan. Hence the voyage has been completely performed, though not throughout by the ſame perſons. Theſe inconteſtible proofs, and the voyage of Commodore Phipps, (now Lord Mulgrave,) clearly evince that, although a north-eaſt paſſage really exiſts, yet it is uſeleſs with reſpect of commercial purpoſes. For though the paſſage from Europe to China, or Japan, is much ſhorter this way than by the uſual track, yet, from the innumerable impediments, three years would be required to make the voyage, which has hitherto been performed, by doubling the Cape of Good Hope, in leſs than one. For the gratification of our readers, we ſhall prevent a conciſe and ſuccinct account of Commodore Phipps's voyage, as it is equally important and entertaining.

This great point of geography having remained without further inveſtigation till the year 1773, the Earl of Sandwich, then firſt lord commiſſioner of the admiralty, in conſequence of an application made to him by the Royal Society, for an expedition to be undertaken, in order to aſcertain how far navigation was practicable towards the north pole, communicated the ſame to his Majeſty, who was graciouſly pleaſed to countenance the propoſal, and ordered the expedition to be undertaken with every aſſiſtance and encouragement that could give it ſucceſs. Every neceſſary was, therefore, amply provided, which could promote the deſign of the enterprize, or tend to convenience or comfort to thoſe that were engaged in it. The veſſels choſen for the expedition were two bomb-ketches, which, of all others, are the beſt adapted for ſuch voyages, as they are uncommonly ſtout, and not over large. Theſe veſſels, whoſe names were the Racehorſe and Carcaſe, to increaſe their natural ſtrength, had a ſheathing of ſeaſoned oak plank, three inches thick, and were furniſhed with a double ſet of anchors, cables, ſails, rigging, ice-poles, &c.

For the comfort and convenience of the officers and men, a great quantity of prime beef and pork was ordered to be cured in the beſt manner. An hundred butts of porter were ordered to be double brewed from the beſt hops and malt; plenty of coals to be ſtowed in the ſhips for firing; peas, oatmeal, rice, molaſſes, ſpirituous liquors, wine, vinegar, oil, muſtard, portable ſoup, tea, ſugar, &c. &c. in great abundance: and that warm cloathing might not be wanting, beſides that was uſual, every man was provided with jackets made of that warm ſtuff called ſearnought, two milled caps, two pair of ſearnought trowſers, four pair of milled ſtockings, an excellent pair of boots, two cotton ſhirts, two handkerchiefs, and a dozen pair of milled mits.

The neceſſary preparations being completed, the Honourable Conſtantine John Phipps (now Lord Mulgrave,) as commodore, went on board the Racehorſe, of 350 tons burthen, mounted with 8 ſix-pounders and 14 ſwivels; and Captain Skiffington Lutwidge went on board the Carcaſe, of 300 tons burthen, mounting 4 ſix-pounders and 14 ſwivels; when the wind being fair, they ſet ſail on the 3d of June, 1773.

On the 21ſt of the ſame month they ſaw a whale, which was the firſt they had yet ſeen in the North Seas. The ſame day they met with a homeward bound Hamburgh whaling ſnow, when Mr. Wyndham, a gentleman of fortune, who had deſigned to proſecute the voyage with the Commodore, not being pleaſed with the heavy ſeas and foul weather, which he had already ſeen, and finding his health decline, went on board the Hamburghman, in order to return home. On the 29th they met with a Groenland fiſhing-veſſel, called the Marquis of Rockingham, from the captain of which they learned that, the day before, three whalers had been cruſhed to pieces by the ice.

Nothing particular happened till the 8th of July, when both ſhips were in great danger from being almoſt ſurrounded ſuddenly by ice. The Commodore gave orders to ſtand to the ſouthward; but this being ſoon found impoſſible, by the continual accumulation of the ice, the companies of both ſhips were obliged to have recourſe to their ice-anchors and ice-poles, in order, if poſſible, to extricate themſelves from the imminent danger with which they were nearly enveloped; but this they found impoſſible till the evening, when the ice beginning to open, they hoiſted out their long-boats, and towed the ſhips round a prodigious large cape of ice, in doing which, both veſſels, however, received ſome damage.

On the 9th of July they loſt ſight of each other, but joined company the next day, when the weather being intenſely cold, it was agreed by the officers, that every man ſhould be allowed daily two quarts of porter, and a pint of brandy.

They now ſailed through vaſt mountains of floating ice, and were continually in imminent danger of being cruſhed to pieces. At the ſame time it was generally agreed among the officers, that no diſcovery could be made towards the north pole in that direction; they therefore changed their courſe, and, on the 11th of July, having worked themſelves out of the moving mountains of ice, they began to coaſt a vaſt icy continent, if we may be allowed the expreſſion. This prodigious maſs of ice extended towards the north-eaſt, to an immenſe diſtance; and they had a tolerable clear ſea till the 13th, when they came to anchor in Smearingburgh Harbour in Greenland or Spitzbergen.

Spitzbergen lies in latitude 77 deg. 59 min. 11 ſec. longitude 9 deg. 13 min. eaſt. The coaſt appeared to be neither habitable or acceſſible. It is formed of high, barren, black rocks, without the leaſt marks of vegetation; in many places bare and pointed, in other parts covered with ſnow, appearing even above the clouds. The vallies between the high cliffs were filled with ſnow or ice. "This proſpect (ſays Captain Phipps) would have ſuggeſted the idea of perpetual winter, had not the mildneſs of the weather, the ſmooth water, bright ſun-ſhine and conſtant day-light, given a chearfulneſs and novelty to the whole of this ſtriking and romantice ſcene." The current run acroſs this coaſt half a knot an hour north. The height of one mountain ſeen here was found to be 1503 yards. The harbour of Smearingburgh has good anchorage in 13 fathoms. 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. Once they attempted to make an eſtabliſhment here, and left ſome people to winter, who all periſhed. The Dutch ſhips ſtill reſort to this place for the latter ſeaſon of the whale fiſhery. It lies in 79 deg. 44 min. north, and 9 deg. 50 min. 45 ſec. eaſt.

The moſt remarkable views which theſe dreary regions preſent are what are called icebergs. Theſe are large bodies of ice, filling the vallies between the high mountains. Their face towards the ſea is nearly perpendicular, and of a very lively light-green colour. One was about 300 feet high, with a caſcade of water iſſuing out of it. The black mountains on each ſide, the white ſnow, and green-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 24 fathom: it was 50 feet high above the ſurface of the water, and of the ſame beautiful colour as the iceberg from which it had been ſeparated.

The ſtone ſeen about Smearingburgh is chiefly a kind of marble, which diſſolved eaſily in the marine acid. There were no appearances of minerals of any kind, or any ſigns of ancient or modern volcanos. No inſects, or 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 from the mountains. Captain Phipps has been

been very accurate in his deſcription of the few animals which theſe inhoſpitable regions cheriſh. Here is the ſea-horſe, or morſe, (the *Trichechus Roſmarus* of Linnæus.) It is found every where about the coaſt of Spitzbergen, as well as generally wherever there is ice, though at a diſtance from the land. It is a gregorious animal, not inclined to attack, but dangerous if attacked, as the whole herd will join their forces to revenge any injury received by an individual. One of theſe animals being fired at and wounded by ſome people in a boat, dived immediately, and brought up with it a number of others, who made a joint attack upon the boat, and wreſted an oar from one of the men, and had well nigh ſtaved or overſet her; but another boat coming up they diſperſed.

The arctic fox (*Canis Lagopus* of Linnæus,) found on the main land of Spizbergen, and the iſlands adjacent, differs from our fox, not only in colour, but in having its ears much more rounded. It ſmells very little, and its fleſh is good food. The polar bear (*Urſus Maritimus* of Linnæus) is found in great numbers on the main land of Spitzbergen, alſo on the iſlands and ice-fields adjacent. This animal is much larger than the black bear. The ſeamen eat of their fleſh, though very coarſe. The rein-deer (*Cervus Tarandus* of Linnæus) furniſhes excellent veniſon.

The coaſt abounds with the whale, fin-fiſh, eider-duck, puffin, fulmar, northern diver, the ſea-ſnail, and coral-fiſh; as alſo the prawn, found in the ſtomach of a ſeal caught near the coaſt of Spitzbergen. There are three ſingular ſpecies of crab, which have not been before deſcribed, two of them found in the ſtomach of a ſeal. A ſmall worm, found adhering by its ſnout to the inſide of the inteſtines of an eider-duck. The ſea May-fly, and ſnail ſlime-fiſh, found in innumerable quantities about the Arctic Seas, peopling, as it were, this almoſt uninhabited ocean.

On the 27th of July they found themſelves enveloped by immenſe ſhoals and mountains of ice; and on taking a view from the maſt-head, they diſcovered a vaſt icy continent, and ſeven ſmall iſlands, being then in 80 deg. 47 min. north lat. and 21 deg. 10 min. eaſt long. "Here (ſays the journal) the whole proſpect was more pleaſing and picturesque than any they had yet beheld in this remote region. The very ice in which they were beſet looked beautiful, and put forth a thouſand glittering forms; and the tops of the mountains, which they could ſee like ſparkling gems at a vaſt diſtance, had the appearance of ſo many ſilver ſtars illuminating a new firmament. On the ice were many bears, ſome of which came ſo near the ſhips as to be ſhot dead with ſmall arms. Theſe bears are very good eating, and, where no better is to be got, the whalers account them as good as beef. They are many of them as large as the largeſt oxen, and weigh heavier. In many parts of their body they are muſket proof; and unleſs they are hit on the open cheſt, or on the flank, a blow with a muſket ball will hardly make them turn their backs. Some of the bears killed in the encounters weighed from ſeven to eight hundred weight."

In theſe ſeas they found the water leſs ſalt than they had ever before experienced ſea-water to be; and when they melted the ice it produced excellent freſh water. They likewiſe filled their water-caſks by this method. In places where ſnow lay thick upon the ſurface of the ice, they dug pits, which immediately filled with clear, ſoft, ſweet water.

On the 1ſt of Auguſt, the Commodore being deſirous of ſurveying the weſternmoſt of the iſlands before mentioned, ordered the ſhips to be made faſt to the main body of ice with ice-anchors; a method frequently practiſed by the Greenland fiſhing-veſſels. This being effected, a party ſet forward upon the excurſion, conſiſting of three principal officers and gentlemen, the pilots, and ſome prime ſailors ſelected from both ſhips. They continued their progreſs, ſometimes rowing the boat, and ſometimes drawing it over the ice, and at length, with ſome difficulty, reached land, where they found a fine herd of deer, ſo tame, that their approach did not in the leaſt intimidate them: "A proof (ſays the journaliſt) that animals are not naturally afraid of man, till, by the fate of their aſſociates, they are taught the danger of approaching them: a proof, too, that animals are not deſtitute of reflection; otherwiſe how ſhould they conclude that what has befallen their fellow animals will certainly happen to them, if they run the like riſk?" They aſcended the higheſt hill, but were diſappointed in the proſpect they expected by the hazineſs of the weather. On returning to the ſhips, they found, to their great ſurprize, that, by grappling to the ice, they were in the moſt imminent danger of loſing them both; for the looſe ice had cloſed ſo faſt round them, that it was deemed impracticable to diſengage them, and they had great reaſon to fear that both the ſhips would be cruſhed to pieces. To prevent, if poſſible, ſo dreadful an accident, the Commodore prudently ordered a great number of men to form a dock in the ſolid ice, ſufficiently large to moor both ſhips; and by the performance of this arduous undertaking with amazing alacrity and expedition, both veſſels and crews were almoſt miraculouſly preſerved. No ſooner were the ſhips thus ſecured, than a general council was ſummoned of all the officers, pilots, and maſters of both ſhips, to conſult what ſteps were to be taken in this emergency; the reſult of which was, that they muſt either winter upon the neighbouring iſlands, or drag their boats over the ice, and launch them in the open ſea, which was now, by the continual accumulation of the ice, at a very conſiderable diſtance. A deſperate attempt was firſt made to extricate the ſhips, by cutting open a channel to the ſea towards the weſtward; but that was ſoon given up as a chimerical and impracticable attempt.

On the 3d of Auguſt it was unanimouſly determined to drag the long-boats belonging to both the ſhips over the ice, and then attempt to launch them into the open ſea, when they hoped in them they might reach Spitzbergen before the whaling ſhips were all departed. While the boats were getting ready they killed ſeveral bears, who, being attracted by the ſmell of the food dreſſed on board the ſhips, came over the ice to viſit them. They likewiſe killed a ſea-horſe, in the deſperate engagement with which, the ſecond lieutenant of the Carcaſe was in imminent danger of loſing his life. The following circumſtance, which happened while the ſhips remained in the ice, is ſingularly remarkable.

"Early in the morning of the 5th of Auguſt, the man at the maſt-head of the Carcaſe gave notice, that three bears were making their way very faſt over the ice, and that they were directing their courſe towards the ſhip. They had, without doubt, been invited by the ſcent of the blubber of the ſea-horſe killed a few days before, which the men had ſet on fire, and which was burning on the ice at the time of their approach. They proved to be a ſhe bear and her two cubs; but the cubs were nearly as large as the dam. They ran eagerly to the fire, and drew out from the flames part of the fleſh of the ſea-horſe that remained unconſumed, and eat it voraciouſly. The crew from the ſhip, by way of diverſion, threw great lumps of the fleſh of the ſea-horſe, which they had ſtill left, out upon the ice, which the old bear fetched away ſingly, laid each lump before her cubs as ſhe brought it, and, dividing it, gave each a ſhare, reſerving but a ſmall portion to herſelf. As ſhe was fetching away the laſt piece they had to beſtow, they levelled their muſkets at the cubs, and ſhot them both dead; and, in her retreat, they wounded the dam, but not mortally. It would have drawn tears of pity from any but unfeeling minds, to have marked the affectionate concern expreſſed by this poor beaſt in the dying moments of her expiring young. Though ſhe was ſorely wounded, and could but juſt crawl to the place where they lay, ſhe carried the lump of fleſh ſhe had fetched away as ſhe had done the others before, tore it in pieces, and laid it down before them; and when ſhe ſaw that they refuſed to eat, ſhe laid her paws firſt upon

upon one, and then upon the other, and endeavoured to raiſe them up. All this while it was pitiful to hear her moan. When ſhe found ſhe could not ſtir them ſhe went off, and, when ſhe had got at ſome diſtance, looked back and moaned; and that not availing her to entice them away, ſhe returned, and ſmelling round them, began to lick their wounds. She went off a ſecond time, as before, and, having crawled a few paces, looked again behind her, and, for ſome time, ſtood moaning; but ſtill, her cubs not riſing to follow her, ſhe returned to them again, and, with ſigns of inexpreſſible fondneſs, went round one, and round the other, pawing them, and moaning. Finding, at laſt, that they were cold and lifeleſs, ſhe raiſed her head towards the ſhip, and, like Caliban in the Tempeſt, growled a curſe upon the murderers; which they returned by a volley of muſket-balls, when ſhe fell between her cubs, and died licking their wounds."

On the 7th of Auguſt, the boats being ready, and properly fitted with weather-cloths to keep off the cold, if they ſhould be ſo fortunate as to launch them, every man was furniſhed with a bag, containing bread for 25 days, and what neceſſaries he choſe to take; the other requiſite proviſions, liquors, utenſils, &c. being ſtowed in the boats. Having made theſe preparations, a detachment of 50 men, under their reſpective commanders, was ordered from each ſhip, to begin the arduous and difficult undertaking of dragging the boats thus laden over the ice. The Commodore took upon himſelf the direction of theſe two parties, and left Capt. Lutwidge to take care of the ſhips, with the remaining part of their crews.

Previous to their ſetting out, a ſtrict order had been given, that no man whatever ſhould encumber himſelf with more cloaths than what he wore upon his back; which prohibition occaſioned the following whimſical circumſtances: The officers, in order to provide themſelves with habits ſuitable to the extremity of cold which they might probably experience, had thrown off their own cloaths, and put on warm flannel garments. The men obſerving this, and thinking it a great pity that ſuch good laced cloaths ſhould be loſt, rejected their own, and put on the cloaths of the officers, that they might at leaſt be fine in the midſt of their difficulties. Hence the two bands, when properly harneſſed to draw the boats, made a moſt motly and whimſical appearance. Nor were they in the leaſt afflicted: they had the ſhip's muſic to play before them. Not a gloomy countenance was to be ſeen; but, inſtead of appearing terrified at the dangers that ſurrounded them, they, to a man, were as jovial and merry as if they had been in perfect ſafety, and drinking with each other in Old England.

After exerting the greateſt induſtry, and labouring with aſtoniſhing aſſiduity, they had proceeded but one mile at the expiration of ſix hours, which was the time the Commodore had ordered the dinner for himſelf and the officers to be brought after them. The head cook having dreſſed it, ſet out with his mates to bring the different diſhes, under covers, towards the boats; but having unluckily ſwallowed too much brandy, in order to fortify themſelves againſt the cold, (which they imagined would aſſail them with double rigour after juſt coming from the fire ſide,) they could not conveniently ſteer ſtrait, but were ſometimes very near boarding each other. Having proceeded about half way, they came to a chaſm, or parting of the ice, which they were obliged to leap. The mates vaulted over pretty well, and balanced themſelves tolerably, conſidering their drunken condition; but, after making the beſt effort he was able, down came the head cook; when diſh, cover, meat, and the Commodore's ſervice of plate, fell through the aperture into the ſea, and diſappeared in a twinkling. This accident, in ſome meaſure ſoberized the poor cook, who, after ſcratching his head, very ſignificantly ſaid, "Rat it, now I am quite puzzled to know whether I had beſt jump into the ſea after the plate, or go and let the Commodore know what a confounded accident I have met with. After mature deliberation upon this weighty matter, it was at length agreed, that the Cook ſhould throw himſelf upon the Commodore's mercy, and truſt to his good-nature. "For (obſerved one of the mates) his honour is a kind-hearted gemman, and will never take away a man's life for a ſlip upon the ice: beſides, it was a great jump for a fat man; and Commodore would rather loſe all the plate in the great cabin than loſe cook." This curious mode of reaſoning, in ſome meaſure, comforted the cook. He did not, however, chooſe to go to the Commodore, till he had diſpatched the mates firſt to carry the remainder of the proviſions, and to inform that gentleman of the diſaſter which had befallen him." When the Commodore had heard the tale, he aſked were the cook was? "He's blubbering and crying behind, an pleaſe your honour," ſays one of them. When the cook came up, "Cook, (ſaid the Commodore,) bring me your dinner. I will dine to-day with my comrades." "My dinner! (ſaid the Cook:) A pound of the fleſh next my heart, if your honour likes it." This reply, uttered with the voice of ſincerity, pleaſed the Commodore more than the moſt ſumptuous entertainment would have done.

Soon after dinner word was brought that the whole maſs of ice had changed its ſituation, and was parting, and that the ſhips were aſloat. The men were inſtantly ordered to the ſhips to aſſiſt in working them. This joy was, however, ſhort-lived; for the ice re-aſſumed its former ſituation; and, what was worſe, the ſhips, from having been ſet a-float, were in more danger of being cruſhed to pieces than before. The crews of both ſhips now thought their condition more deſperate than ever. None could go back to the boats, as it was neceſſary that all hands ſhould be employed in defending the ſhips from immediate deſtruction with their ice-poles. But when all were exhauſted with fatigue, and very little hope ſeemed to remain, Providence, on a ſudden relieved them. A briſk wind ſprung up, and the ice ſuddenly ſeparated and broke aſunder, with a noiſe which exceeded the loudeſt clap of thunder. Some fragments formed themſelves, almoſt inſtantaneouſly, into huge mountains; and others coaleſced into plains; while various channels opened between the diſuniting parts of the late tremendous barrier of congealed waters. Every countenance cleared up, all hearts revived, and the ſails were ſpread with alacrity. A party was diſpatched to regain the boats, which the men effected with great difficulty. "And now (ſays the author of the journal) they had time to admire the ice which had parted from the main body, as it no longer obſtructed their courſe. The various ſhapes in which the broken fragments appeared, were, indeed, very curious and amuſing. One remarkable piece deſcribed a magnificent arch, ſo large and completely formed, that a ſloop of conſiderable burthen might have ſailed through it without lowering her maſt. Another repreſented a church, with windows, pillars, and domes; and a third a table, with iceicles hanging round it like the fringes of a damaſk table-cloth. A fertile imagination might here find entertainment enough; for, as has already been obſerved, the ſimilitude of what art or nature has ever yet produced, might here be fancied."

Both ſhips now determined to ſteer immediately for England, and nothing worth recording happened till the 11th of September, when the ſhips parted in a ſtrong gale of wind, and did not come into company again till the 26th of the ſame month, when they met off Harwich, and four days after came to an anchor at Deptford.

The following are ſome of the moſt curious obſervations made on the voyage.

On the 19th of June, by a meridian obſervation at midnight, the ſun's lower limb 0 deg. 37 min. 30 ſec. above the horizon, lat. 66 deg. 54 min. 39 ſec. north, long. 0 deg. 58 min. 45 ſec. weſt. In lat 67 deg. 35 min. Captain Phipps ſounded with a very heavy lead the depth of 780 fathoms without getting ground; and

by a thermometer invented by lord Charles Cavendiſh for the purpoſe, found the temperature of the water at that depth to be 26 deg. of Fahrenheit's thermometer, the temperature of the air being 48 deg. and a half. June 24, in lat. 73 deg. 40 min. a fire was made in the cabin for the firſt time. On the firſt of July it was found ſo warm, that they ſat without a fire in lat. 78 deg. 13 min. 36 ſec. In 78 deg. 0 min. 50 ſec. at four in the morning, lord Charles Cavendiſh's thermometer was 31, that of the air 40 and a half. At two in the afternoon at 115 fathoms the water was 33 deg. and three quarters. July 16th the greateſt height of the thermometer was 58 deg. and a half at eleven in the forenoon, and at midnight 57 deg. in lat. 79 deg. 50 min. long. 10 deg. 2 min. 30 ſec. eaſt. On the 19th of Auguſt, at eleven at night, an appearance of duſk was obſerved at Smeerenberg. On the 24th of September ſtars became viſible. The ſight of a ſtar (ſays captain Phipps) was now become almoſt as great a phenomenon as the ſun at midnight had been two months before, when we firſt got within the Arctic circle. The ſky was in general loaded with hard white clouds, inſomuch that the ſun and horizon were never entirely clear of them, even in the cleareſt weather. The firſt Venetians who explored the northern extremity of the European continent were ſtruck with the greateſt aſtoniſhment at the continual appearance of the ſun above the horizon, and relate that they could only diſtinguiſh day from night by the inſtinct of the ſea-fowl, which went to rooſt on ſhore for the ſpace of four hours. Pietro Quirino ſailed in April 1431, and in January 1432 he was ſhipwrecked under the polar circle. A bright appearance near the horizon was always the herald to ſignify the approach of ice; and this the pilots called the blink of the ice. And the ſame appearance was ſeen on Captain Cook's voyage towards the ſouth pole in 1773 and 1774. Dr. Irving tried the ſpecific gravity of ice on board the Racehorſe. A piece of the moſt denſe cold ice he could find being immerſed in ſnow water, thermometer 34 deg. 14 fifteenth parts ſunk under the ſurface of the water. In brandy, juſt proof, it barely floated: in rectified ſpirits of wine it fell to the bottom at once, and diſſolved immediately.

Particulars relative to Eaſt Greenland, or Spitzbergen, and the Country adjacent. Climate, Vegetable, Animal and Mineral Productions.

THIS country was called Greenland by Sir Hugh Willoughby, who diſcovered it in 1553. It afterwards derived from the Dutch the appellation of Spitzbergen, which ſignifies *ſharp mountains*. The whole of its boundaries are not known. However, on the weſt it has the northern ocean; on the ſouth the ſame ocean between this and the Ruſſian Lapland, and the northernmoſt part of Norway, over-againſt which it lies; on the eaſt it has an undiſcovered country, to which it is joined by an iſthmus. On the weſt ſide of Spitzbergen lies Charles iſland, which is divided from the main land by a narrow ſtrait called Foreland-Ford; between which, and Muſcle-Haven, are the higheſt mountains, moſt of which are of a red colour, and reflect the ſun's beams ſo as to ſeem all on fire: but ſeven of the mountains, all of remarkable ſharpneſs, are of a fine ſky-blue. South-Haven is the moſt commodious place on the iſland, affording all the conveniencies neceſſary for repairing leaky or damaged ſhips; and is ſo large that 30 or 40 ſail may ride at anchor there very conveniently: here alſo may be had freſh water, from the melting of the ſnow; for as to the rivers they are brackiſh, as far as hitherto they have been diſcovered; and no ſprings or wells have yet been found. The mountains about South-Haven are very high, eſpecially on the left; and in the midſt of the harbour is an iſland called Dead-man's Iſland, becauſe ſuch as die in the voyage are uſually buried there.

The next capacious haven is that called by the Dutch Maurice Bay, where ſome of them have wintered: near this place are a few cottages, built by the Dutch for the convenience of making their oil; and this place they call Smearburg, or Smearingburg, or the Haerlem Cookery. In the north bay there is an iſland called Vogel-Sang by the Dutch, (i. e. Bird-Song), from the great noiſe which the fowls make when they take their flight. Deer Sound is ſo called from the abundance of Deer which feed about it, though the ſoil ſeems to be all ſlates ſet edge-ways. Muſcle-Haven lies at the mouth of the Waygate, to the north of which, Martens ſays, he ſailed to 81 degrees, and ſaw ſeven iſlands, but could not approach them becauſe of the ice; the loweſt part of that country lies about this harbour. The Waygate mentioned here muſt not be miſtaken for the famous ſtrait of that name, which lies between Nova Zembla and the main land of Samoieda. Waygate here meant is a harbour, of which the Dutch voyagers ſay they do not know whether it goes through the country. They call it by this name becauſe of the winds which frequently blow there; and about this place, they ſay, the country is low, and adorned with ſmall hills. Roefield harbour is ſo called becauſe it abounds with deer. Alderman Freeman's Inlet (called by the Dutch Walter Thymen's Fort) is the large mouth of a river, which is not yet diſcovered. The voyagers mention alſo the Engliſh, Daniſh, Hamburg, and Magdalen Havens; with one called the Bay of Love, but not ſo diſtinctly as to enable us to judge whether they are different from thoſe already mentioned, with Dutch or Engliſh names. Bell-Harbour, on the weſtern coaſt of this country, is the place where, in the year 1630, eight Engliſh ſailors wintered, and ſuffered very great hardſhips during nine months and twelve days, the ſingular circumſtances of which will be hereafter related.

Theſe particulars are confirmed by the concurrent teſtimonies of moſt voyagers, previous to the expedition under commodore Phipps. The account given by the writer of that voyage corroborates what they have ſaid, and adds ſome new particulars which we ſhall tranſcribe. "This country (ſays the journaliſt) is ſtony, and, as far as can be ſeen, full of mountains, precipices and rocks. Between theſe are hills of ice, generated, as it appears, by torrents that flow from the melting of the ſnow on the ſides of thoſe towering elevations, which being once congealed are continually encreaſed by the ſnow in winter, and the rain in ſummer, which often freezes as ſoon as it falls. By looking on theſe hills a ſtranger may fancy a thouſand different ſhapes of trees, caſtles, churches, ruins, ſhips, whales, monſters, and all the various forms that fill the univerſe. Of the ice hills there are ſeven that more particularly attract the notice of ſtrangers. Theſe are known by the name of the Seven Icebergs, and are thought to be the higheſt of the kind in that country. When the air is clear, and the ſun ſhines full upon theſe mountains, the proſpect is inconceivably brilliant. They ſometimes put on the bright glow of the evening rays of the ſetting ſun when reflected upon glaſs at its going down: ſometimes they appear of a bright blue like ſapphire, and ſometimes like the variable colours of a priſm, exceeding in luſtre the richeſt gems in the world, diſpoſed in ſhapes wonderful to behold, all glittering with luſtre that dazzles the eye, and fills the air with aſtoniſhing brightneſs."

When every object is new, it is not eaſy for a ſtranger to fix on which firſt to admire. The rocks are ſtriking objects: before a ſtorm they exhibit a fiery appearance, and the ſun looks pale upon them, the ſnow giving the air a bright reflection. Their ſummits are almoſt always involved in clouds, ſo that it is but juſt poſſible to ſee the tops of them. Some of theſe rocks are but one ſtone from top to bottom, appearing like an old decayed ruin. Others conſiſt of huge maſſes, veined differently like marble, with red, white and yellow, and, probably, were they to be ſawed and poliſh-

ed, would equal, if not excel, the fineſt Egyptian marble we now ſo much admire. Perhaps the diſtance and danger of carrying large blocks of ſtone may be the reaſon that no trials have been made to manufacture them. On the ſoutherly and weſterly ſides of thoſe rocks grow all the plants, herbs and moſſes peculiar to this country. On the northerly and eaſterly ſides the wind ſtrikes ſo cold when it blows from theſe quarters that it periſhes every kind of vegetable. Theſe plants grow to perfection in a very ſhort time. Till the middle of May the whole country is locked up in ice; in the beginning of July the plants are in flower, and about the latter end of the ſame month, or the beginning of Auguſt, they have perfected their ſeed. The earth owes its fertility, in a great meaſure, to the dung of birds, who build and breed their young here in the ſummer, and in the winter retire to more favourable climates.

The rocks and precipices are full of fiſſures and cleſts, which afford convenient harbour for birds to lay their eggs, and breed their young in ſafety. Moſt of theſe birds are water-fowls, and ſeek their food in the ſea: ſome, indeed, are birds of prey, and purſue and kill others for their own aſſiſtance, but theſe are rare; the water-fowl eat ſtrong and fiſhy, and their fat is not to be endured. They are ſo numerous about the rocks as ſometimes to darken the air when they riſe in flocks; and they ſhriek ſo horridly that the rocks echo with their noiſe.

The air about Spitzbergen is at no time free from icicles: if you look through the ſun-beams tranſverſely as you ſit in the ſhade, or where you ſee the rays confined in a body, inſtead of dark motes as are ſeen here, you behold myriads of ſhining particles that ſpangle like diamonds; and when the ſun ſhines hot, as it ſometimes does ſo as to melt the tar in the ſeams of ſhips, when they lie ſheltering from the wind, theſe ſhining atoms appear to melt away, and deſcend like dew.

It is ſeldom that the air continues clear for many days together in this climate, but when that happens the whalers are generally ſucceſsful. There is no difference between night and day in the appearance of the atmoſphere about Spitzbergen, one being as light as the other; only when the ſun is to the northward you may look at him with the naked eye, as at the moon, without dazzling. The fogs here come on ſo ſuddenly that from bright ſun-ſhine you are preſently enveloped in ſuch obſcurity, that you can hardly ſee from one end of the ſhip to the other.

The cold here is generally very intenſe, but in the extremity of winter it is intolerable, particularly when the wind blows from the north or the eaſt. The air is tolerably calm during the month of June, July, and Auguſt; not but the winds ſometimes blow incredibly cold even at this ſeaſon, and the froſt continues without intermiſſion. The ſea-water here is leſs ſalt than in ſoutherly climates, and changes its colour with the ſky, that is, in a clear air it appears blue, when the atmoſphere is overcaſt with clouds it ſeems green, during fog it is yellow, and quite black in ſtormy weather.

The ſun uſually appears in this country about the beginning of February, and diſappears about the firſt of October. From May to Auguſt he continues above the horizon without ſetting, and then the night and day are diſtinguiſhable only by his appearing either in the eaſtern or weſtern parts of the heavens. The face of this country exhibits ſcarce any thing but rugged rocks and barren mountains that riſe into the clouds, or vallies choaked up with ſtones and ice that fall from thoſe mountains. About Deer Sained and Muſcle Haven are ſome detached pieces of low lands, which are uſually covered with ſnow; but in a fine ſummer, when that diſſolves, a coat of heath or moſs is ſeen interſperſed with a few plants. No ſprings have been found here, and the rivers are all brackiſh; but theſe inconveniencies are recompenced by the great plenty of ſnow-water, which is at once healthful and pleaſant.

The vegetables of Spitzbergen are, excellent ſcurvy-graſs, ſorrel, wild lettuce, ſnake-root, ground-ivy, hearts-eaſe, limeworth, ſea-bugloſs, wild ſtrawberries, wall-pepper, and houſeleek. "Theſe (ſays a learned author) are conſidered as effectual remedies ſupplied by the hand of Providence for the cure of the ſcurvy, and other diſeaſes incident to thoſe who yearly viſit this inhoſpitable country. The ſcurvy-graſs here, as in many other northern climates, has no pungency to the taſte, but is mild, grateful to the palate, and ſuch an excellent anti-ſcorbutic, that the ſeamen term it the "Gift of God." Although the ſhips employed in the whale-fiſhery are, of all others, the beſt ſupplied with good proviſions, and plenty of freſh water, yet the mariners are in theſe northern latitudes much more ſubject to the ſea-ſcurvy than in any ſouthern voyage. The attack of the malady is here more ſudden, and the progreſs of it more rapid. The patient feels its ſymptoms increaſe as he advances near the pole; nor does he enjoy the leaſt alleviation until the weather ſoftens in the month of July, which is very moderate, and, indeed, the only interruption of winter. Then the ſcurvy-graſs appears in plenty as an infallible cure, and performs wonders, reſtoring, in a few days, to health and vigour, thoſe who were ſeemingly in the laſt ſtage of the diſtemper.

The other vegetable productions of this country are, poppies, helebore, dandelion, mountain-heath, ſaxifrage, dwarf-willow, &c. but all are ſmall and ſtunted in their growth, the natural conſequence of a ſcanty ſoil and inclement ſky.

There is an aquatic vegetable peculiar to this country called the rock plant; the leaves are ſhaped like a man's tongue, about ſix feet long, of a dull yellow colour, the ſtalk is round and ſmooth, and of the ſame colour with the leaf, it riſes tapering, and ſmells like muſcles. It grows in the water, and riſes in height in proportion to the depth of water in which it is found.

In the year 1757 a Groenland captain brought to England ſeveral pieces of gold, which he found accidentally in a hunting excurſion among the rocks of Spitzbergen. This diſcovery, however, was not proſecuted. Alabaſter, Selenites, and Lapis Spicularis are found here; and naturaliſts conjecture that the country abounds in iron ore.

Few land-birds are ſeen this country, except partridges, a few birds of the ſnipe kind, ſome ſmall birds that, even in this dreary climate, ſometimes warble ſweetly, the ſnow-bird and the ice-bird; the latter is a ſmall but very beautiful bird; in ſize and ſhape it reſembles the turtle-dove, but the plumage when the ſun ſhines upon it, is of a bright yellow, like the golden ring in the peacock's tail, and almoſt dazzles the eye to look upon it.

The Greenland fox differs but little in ſhape from thoſe we are acquainted with; but in colour there is no ſimilitude, for the body is white and the head is black. Foxes are ſeen here in great plenty; they are exceeding ſwift, and very ſubtile; ſo that it is a difficult matter to catch them. The author of commodore Phipps's voyage ſays, "The Dutch ſeamen report, that when they (the foxes) are hungry, they will feign themſelves dead, and when the ravenous birds come to feed on them, they riſe and make them their prey."

The deer of this country are large, grey and ſhaggy, with branching horns, ſhort tails and long ears. Their fleſh of an admirable flavour; and, in the ſummer ſeaſon, they are exceeding fat, which is owing to their feeding on the yellow moſs: this natural ſtore of fat enables them to ſubſiſt during the winter; many of them are, however, ſtarved to death; and all in general appear very thin and meagre in the ſpring. On this occaſion a learned gentleman ſays, "In all probability theſe animals ſleep in caverns during winter like the bears in Norway. Perhaps the abundance of poppies in this country may diſpoſe them to a lethargy, which ſeems neceſſary for their preſervation, as little or no nouriſhment is required for animals that have no exerciſe, and a

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Engraved for BANKES'S *New System of Geography, Published by th. Kitchin Royal Exchange.*

A View of the WHALE-FISHERY, *and the manner of* KILLING BEARS *near, on the Coast of Spitzbergen.*

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is guided by a

languid circulation." Theſe deer fly at the ſight of a human creature, but immediately ſtop when their purſuers ſtop, and thus are ſhot with falicity.

The bears here have long ſnouts, and bark in a huſky manner, like dogs that are hoarſe. They are large, white, lean, ſwift, and fierce. Some have been found that were ſix feet high, and four long, which yielded an hundred weight of fat. The largeſt kind are termed water bears, becauſe they are fond of ſubſiſting chiefly on the productions of the ſea, and have been ſeen near twenty miles from the ſhore. When a bear is attacked he makes a dreadful roaring, and his companions, who are within hearing, immediately run to his aſſiſtance. A ſhe-bear will ſuffer herſelf to be killed rather than abandon her cubs; notwithſtanding which attachment, when a bear is found dead, his fellows will eat him without the leaſt ſcruple. Theſe creatures are ſo ſtipulated with hunger, that they will frequently venture to attack whole armed crews; and have been known to take the water, and attempt to board large veſſels. They are ſo tenacious of life that they ſometimes eſcape with many ſhots in their bodies. They are attacked with muſkets and lances; and, when at bay, riſe on their hind legs, and frequently break the lances of the aſſailants; ſo that they are not aſſaulted without imminent danger. They take to the water naturally, and ſometimes, when attacked in that element, dive like an otter.

Here are innumerable ſwarms of water-fowl, ſuch as are common to all the northern countries of Europe; and ſeals, ſea-horſes, whales, &c.

Deſcription of the different ſpecies of thoſe enormous Marine Monſters called Whales, with the mode of the Whale Fiſhery.

THE true large Greenland, or whalebone whale, differs from the reſt of the fiſh ſo called, by his having no teeth; inſtead of which, on each ſide of the upper jaw grows the whalebone, in four or five hundred different blades, at equal diſtances, ſome exceeding twelve feet in length, and a foot broad at bottom, growing narrow upwards, like the ſticks of a fan inverted, the largeſt of them weighing about twenty pounds. He contracts and dilates the diſtances of thoſe blades at the ſhutting and opening his mouth, making them ſerve as ſtrainers, to ſeparate the water from the ſhrimps, prawns, and ſuch ſmall fiſh as his food conſiſts of; and, for the ſame purpoſe, on the inſide of the bone, next to the tongue, grows a quantity of hair, to make a ſtill finer percolation, or ſtraining; which is the more neceſſary, becauſe, notwithſtanding the bulk of a whale's body, the throat in general is not much above a foot wide. The head makes near a third part of the whole body, with very ſmall eyes in the midſt of it, conſidering the ſize of the creature; and the eye-lids are fringed with hair, like thoſe of a man. Inſtead of the ears, appear, on the outſide, only two holes, ſo ſmall, that they can hardly be found out, and will ſcarce admit of a ſingle ſtraw; but within the head they have large orifices, which are formed like ears, and afford them a ſharp hearing. On the top of the head he has two pipes, for the drawing in and out of the air; and diſcharging the water which he ſwallows in his mouth, and which is forced out through theſe holes in a vaſt quantity, and to a great height. The tongue is very large; in ſome whales of the ſize of an ordinary woolpack, and will yield aſtoniſhing quantities of oil. His bones are hard, like thoſe of four footed beaſts; but, inſtead of having one large cavity in the middle, are porous, and full of marrow. His belly and back are quite red. His fleſh is coarſe and hard, like that of a bull, mixed with many ſinews, and is very dry and lean, becauſe the fat lies between the fleſh and the ſkin. The fat is mixed with ſinews, which holds the oil as a ſponge does water. The other ſtrong ſinews are about the tail, with which he turns and winds himſelf as a ſhip is guided by a rudder. He ſwims with great celerity, and makes a track in the ſea like a large ſhip under ſail. Beſides the uppermoſt thin ſkin, there is another almoſt an inch thick, but neither of them are very ſtrong, which is believed to be the reaſon why the whale does not exert that great force that might be expected from a fiſh of its ſize. They are mightily tormented with lice, which makes them ſometimes ſpring out of the ſea in an agony. It is alſo believed that they feel great pains in their bodies before a ſtorm, which makes them twiſt and tumble violently, while the wind blows from the eaſt. They are, however, harmleſs, unleſs provoked, and rather of a very timorous nature; tho' ſome of them will now and then approach very cloſe to a ſhip. The middling ſized ones are from fifty to ſixty feet long, and yield from ſeven to an hundred barrels of blubber; though ſometimes they are much larger. A voyager mentions one that yielded an hundred and thirty hogſheads. This blubber lies immediately under the ſkin, and is very valuable.

One of the authors of this work, to afford ſcope for a more minute deſcription of this wonderful part of the creation, took an opportunity of ſurveying the ſkeleton of a Sperma-Ceti whale, in the repoſitory of an eminent virtuoſo in London. This aſtoniſhing production of nature meaſures ſeventy-two feet in length, and between ſeven and eight feet in breadth, The ſkull alone meaſures fifteen feet in length, and is ſuppoſed to weigh three tons. This great weight of bone is probably buoyed up in the ſea by a vaſt quantity of fat or oil, contained in the cellular membrane, between the ſkin of the head and the upper ſurface of the ſkull. From this oil, and alſo from that which ſurrounds the body, the ſubſtance called Sperma-Ceti is extracted. That ſpecies of whale called the Sperma-Ceti whale, differs from the whalebone whale, which, as before obſerved, has no teeth; whereas the former has one row of ſharp-pointed teeth along each ſide of the lower jaw, but none in the upper. With theſe, it is probable he can devour fiſh of a conſiderable ſize. The Sperma-Ceti whale as alſo a blowing-hole, but more particularly for the purpoſe of breathing.

The following is the mode of catching whales.

As ſoon as a ſhip arrives at a large field of ice, as is termed, three or four boats are put out to watch for the whale's coming from beneath the ice, which is judged of by the noiſe they make in approaching and riſing. When the whale gains the ſurface of the water, the harpooneer ſeizes the opportunity to dart the harpoon either into his body, or near his ſnout; for there is no ſtriking into the bone of his head. When the whale is ſtruck, the other boats, which are near at hand, approach to give aſſiſtance, and an oar is put up at the head of the harpooneer's boat who wounded the animal, and they cry out, *fall! fall!* upon which token other boats from the ſhip join thoſe already concerned, to render every needful help as exigencies may require. As ſoon as the whale is ſtruck, they take care to give him rope enough, for otherwiſe, when he goes down, as he frequently does, he would inevitably ſink the boat; and this rope he draws ſo quick, that, if it were not well watered, it would ſet the boat on fire. The line faſtened to the harpoon is ſix or ſeven fathoms long, and is called the forerunner. It is made of the fineſt and ſofteſt hemp, that it may ſlip the eaſier. To this they join a heap of lines of ninety or an hundred fathoms each: and when there are not enough in one boat, they borrow from another. The man at the helm obſerves which way the rope goes, and ſteers the boat accordingly, that it may run exactly out before; for the whale runs away with the line as faſt as the wind, and would overſet the boat if it were not kept ſtrait; during which the other boats row before, and obſerve which way the line ſtands, and ſometimes pull it. If they feel it ſtiff, it is a ſign the whale ſtill pulls in ſtrength; but if it hangs looſe, and the boat lies equally high, before and behind, upon the water, they pull it in gently, but take care to lay it ſo, that the whale may have it eaſily again, if he recovers ſtrength.

They

View of the WHALE-FISHERY, *and the manner of* KILLING BEARS *on the coaſt of Greenland.*

They are cautious, however, not to give him too much line, becauſe he ſometimes entangles it about a rock, and ſo gets looſe. When this happens, however, if he is afterwards taken by the crew of another ſhip, he is returned to thoſe who firſt wounded him, as that is known by the harpoon, which is always diſtinguiſhed by a particular mark. They begin to ſtink as ſoon as they expire; and their fleſh ferments, creating ſuch a ſteam as inflames weak eyes. When they ſee him ſpout out blood, they know that he draws towards his end, and then prepare for cutting him up. In order to do this they hawl him cloſe to the ſhip's ſide, and ſlice his ſides with great knives, raiſing the blubber by a hook and a pulley, which they lift up as they cut. In this work they muſt be extremely expeditious, otherwiſe the ſharks, which abound here, will have a greater ſhare of the fleſh than the whalers themſelves. Of the great flakes of fleſh they uſed formerly to make their oil upon the ſpot, but at preſent the blubber is barrelled up, and brought to England, Holland, &c. to be boiled at leiſure, the huts of Spitzbergen being rather neglected. Some ſhips even return from the whale fiſhery without ſeeing that country, proceeding no farther than a certain latitude, and there fiſhing without being moleſted by a lee ſhore, ice or currents. The ſhips that uſe this trade uſually carry from 30 to 50 men, ſix or ſeven boats, and from 400 to 800 hogſheads of blubber. Their arms conſiſt of 60 lances, 6 ſea-horſe lances, 40 harpoons, 10 long harpoons for ſtriking whales under water, 6 ſmall ſea-horſe harpoons, and 30 lines, of nine or ten hundred fathoms each.

Seal-catching alſo makes a valuable branch of the fiſhing practiſed in theſe ſeas. Three hundred ſeals yield near as much blubber as a middling ſized whale. The ſeals are not harpooned, but are generally knocked on the head with clubs; and many bears are likewiſe ſhot, killed with lances, &c. upon the ice. The ſhips ſet ſail in February for the ſeal fiſhery, and in April for the whale fiſhery; government allowing a bounty to theſe ſhips of 40s. per ton, as far as 300 tons; ſo that a ſhip of ſuch a burthen receives 600l. bounty money. If a ſhip is clear of the ice after the 1ſt of June, and goes back again, or if it is known ſhe carries out with her leſs than ſix months proviſions, ſhe forfeits her bounty.

Within the body of the whale is ſeldom found any thing but ten or twelve handfuls of a kind of ſmall black ſpiders, and ſome ſmall quantities of green herbs, torn up from the bottom of the ſea, which are ſuppoſed to be the food upon which the whales chiefly live. The ſea hereabouts is ſo covered with theſe inſects, that it appears quite black; which is a ſign, to thoſe who go about catching the whales, that they are like to make a good booty. The whales generally delight in that part of the ſea which produces theſe inſects.

Of the whale kind there are alſo the dragon-fiſh, long, thin, grey, and glittering, with two fins on his back, and two holes, through which he ſpouts the water.

The butſhorſ, or laced-head, is ſixteen feet long, with a ſpout-hole in his neck, a brown back, and a white belly.

The white-fiſh is as long as the butſhorſ, but much fatter.

The ſea-unicorn whale is from ſixteen to twenty feet in length with a ſpout-hole in his neck, and projecting from his ſnout, having a fine wreathed horn, for which he is principally valued. The throne of his Daniſh majeſty is entirely compoſed of theſe horns, which were formerly deemed great ſpecifics againſt poiſon.

The ſin-fiſh whale is as long as the blubber, or whalebone whale, but not above one third part ſo bulky. It is known by the fin on the back near the tail, and by the ſpouting up of the water more violently, and higher, than the other whale. The back is more ſtrait than that of a whale, and the lips are of a browniſh colour, appearing like a twiſted rope. The whalebone hangs from the upper lip, as it does in the whale, but not out of the mouth at the ſides, as in that animal. The inſide of the mouth, between the whalebones, is all over hairy, and is of a blue colour, that is, when the bone begins to grow; for the other is brown, with yellow ſtreaks, which are thought to be the oldeſt. The colour of this fiſh is like that of a tench, and the ſhape of the body is long and ſlender. The tail is flat, like that of the whale; and he ſeldom appears till the whales are gone. All theſe creatures ſwim before the wind, and are obſerved to tumble immediately before ſtorms; a circumſtance from which ſome naturaliſts have concluded, that, from the change in the atmoſphere, they are violently ſeized with the cramp in their bellies.

The whale is harraſſed by a variety of enemies, beſides the vermin which adheres to his body like lice. He is purſued by the ſaw-fiſh, or ſword-fiſh, ſome of which are twenty feet long. This fiſh is ſhaped like a man's arm, and his eyes are remarkably prominent. His ſword projects from his ſnout, is of different lengths, according to the different ſizes of the fiſh, ſometimes ſmooth and ſharp, like a real ſword, and ſometimes indented like a ſaw; hence the creature is called either ſword-fiſh, or ſaw-fiſh. A very few of theſe animals will attack and maſter a great whale; yet, when they have ſlain him, they eat no part of him but the tongue. In calm weather the fiſhermen lie upon their oars, as ſpectators of this combat, until they perceive the whale at the laſt gaſp, when they row towards him, and his enemies retiring at their approach, the fiſhermen enjoy the fruits of the victory.

There is another more deſperate enemy of the whale, known by the name of the hay, which is of the ſhark kind: they are of different ſizes, being from one to three fathoms long. The hay is ſo voracious that it tears large pieces of fleſh from the whale, as if they had been dug with ſhovels. The liver of this fiſh abounds with oil, and is exceſſively large. The fleſh on their backs, when dried ſome days in the air, is accounted tolerable proviſion, either boiled or roaſted; and the ſmaller the fiſh the better. They are caught by a large hook, baited with fleſh, and faſtened to a long iron chain: and if men fall overboard by accident, the hays, in their turn devour them.

The whale, in ſcripture is called leviathan. In the book of Job it is particularly mentioned; ſome part of the paraphraſe on which, by Dr. Young, we ſhall here preſerve.

His bulk is charg'd with ſuch a furious ſoul,
That clouds of ſmoak from his ſpread noſtrils roll,
As from a furnace; and, when round his ire,
Fate iſſues from his jaws in ſtreams of fire.
The rage of tempeſts, and the roar of ſeas,
Thy terror, this thy great ſuperior pleaſe.
Strength on his ample ſhoulders ſits in ſtate:
His well join'd limbs are dreadfully complete.
His flakes of ſolid fleſh are ſlow to part:
As ſteel his nerves, as adamant his heart.
Large is his front, and when his burniſhed eyes
Liſe up their lids the morning ſeems to riſe,
His paſtimes like a cauldron, boil the flood,
And blacken ocean with the riſing mud.
The billows feel him as he works his way;
His hoary footſteps ſhine along the ſea.
The foam, high wrought with white, divides the green,
And diſtant ſailors point where death has been.

Narrative

Narrative of the extraordinary Adventures of Eight Britiſh Mariners, who paſſed a whole Winter in the rigorous Climate of Greenland, with the Expedients they uſed to procure a Subſiſtence, the extreme Hardſhips they ſuſtained, and the Means of their Deliverance and Return to their Native Land.

FROM the extreme rigour of the climate of this country, it was long deemed uninhabitable throughout the year, till the fate of ſome Britiſh mariners, who ſailed thither in the year 1630, proved the contrary.

The Salutation, a Greenland ſhip, which ſailed from the Thames on the 1ſt of May, and arrived here the 11th of the next month, being in want of proviſion the latter end of the year, ſent eight men on ſhore in a boat, to a place frequented by rein-deer, to kill veniſon, leaving them there, with orders to follow the ſhip to Green Harbour, which lies to the ſouthward of the place where they went aſhore. Theſe men, having killed 14 or 15 deer, lay that night aſhore, and propoſed next day to have gone on board, but a great quantity of ice driving towards the ſhore, obliged the ſhip to ſtand out ſo far to ſea, that when they came to Green Harbour ſhe was out of ſight. The ſhips being to rendezvous in Belſound, further to the ſouthward, and being to leave the country within three days, our huntſmen began to be very anxious, leſt the ſhipping ſhould be gone from thence too before they arrived. They thought it proper, therefore, to throw their veniſon into the ſea, in order to lighten the boat, and made the beſt of their way to Belſound, diſtant from thence about ſixteen leagues: but none of them knowing the coaſt, they overſhot their port about ten leagues, when, ſenſible of their error, they returned to the northward. One of their company, however, being poſitive that Belſound lay farther to the ſouth, they were induced to ſail to the ſouthward again till they were a ſecond time convinced of their miſtake, and turned their boat to the north again, and at length arrived at Belſound; but had ſpent ſo much time in rowing backwards and forwards, that the ſhips had actually left the coaſt, and were gone to England, to their great aſtoniſhment, being provided neither with cloaths, food, firing, or houſe to ſhelter themſelves from the piercing cold they were to expect in ſo rigorous a climate. They ſtood ſome time looking on one another, amazed at the diſtreſs to which they were ſo ſuddenly reduced; but their conſternation being a little abated, they began to think of the moſt proper means to ſubſiſt themſelves during the approaching winter. The weather being favourable, they agreed, in the firſt place, to go to Green Harbour, and hunt for veniſon, having two dogs with them very fit for their purpoſe.

On the 25th of Auguſt they went in their boat to Green Harbour, where they arrived in twelve hours, being 16 leagues to the northward of Belſound. Here they ſet up a tent made with the boat's ſail, the oars ſerving for poles; and, having ſlept a few hours, went early next morning to their ſport, killing ſeven or eight deer, and four bears. The day following they killed twelve deer more, with which they loaded their boat; and finding another boat, which had been left there by the company, they loaded that with the greaves of whales, (being the pieces which remain in the coppers after the oil is drawn from them,) and returned with their booty to Belſound. Here happened to be ſet up a large ſubſtantial booth, which the coopers worked in at the fiſhing ſeaſon: it was 80 feet long, and 50 broad, covered with Dutch tiles, and the ſides were well boarded. Within this booth theſe ſailors determined to build another of leſs dimenſions, being furniſhed with boards and timber, by pulling down a booth which ſtood near the former; and from the chimnies of three furnaces, uſed for the boiling of oil, they got 1000 bricks. They found alſo four hogſheads of very fine lime, which, mingled with the ſand on the ſea ſhore, made excellent mortar. But the weather was now grown ſo cold, that they were obliged to have two fires to keep their mortar from freezing. They perſiſted, however, in their work, and raiſed a wall, of a brick thickneſs, againſt one of the ſides of their innermoſt booth; but wanting bricks to finiſh the reſt in like manner, they nailed thick boards on each ſide the timbers, and filled up the ſpace between with ſand; by which means it became ſo tight and cloſe, that the leaſt breath of air could not enter it; and their chimney's vent was in the greater booth. The length of the leſſer booth, or rather houſe, was 20 feet, the breadth 16, and the height 10; their ceiling being made of deal boards five or ſix times double, and ſo overlaid, that no air could poſſibly come in from thence. Their door they not only made as ſtrong and cloſe as poſſible, but lined it with a bed which they found there. They made no windows, except a little hole in the tiles of the greater booth, by which they received ſome little light down the chimney of the leſſer. The next work was to make them four cabins, chuſing to lie two in each cabin. Their bedding was the ſkins of the rein-deer, the ſame that the Laplanders uſe; and they found them exceeding warm. For firing they took to pieces ſome caſks, and ſeven or eight of the boats which were left behind; for it ſeems they uſed a great many boats in whale-fiſhing, which they left in the country every winter, rather than be at the trouble of carrying them backwards and forwards. Our ſailors ſtowed their firing between the beams and the roof of the greater booth, in order to make it the warmer, and keep out the ſnow, which would have covered every thing in the greater booth, if it had not been for this contrivance.

On the 12th of September, obſerving a piece of ice come driving towards the ſhore, with two morſes (or ſea-horſes) aſleep upon it, they went out in their boat with a harping-iron, and killed them both. On the 19th they killed another, which was ſome addition to their food. But taking a ſurvey of all their proviſions, they found that there was not half enough to ſerve them the whole winter, and therefore ſtinted themſelves to one meal a day, and agreed to keep Wedneſdays and Fridays as faſting days, allowing themſelves then only the fritters or greaves of the whales, which, as obſerved already, are only the ſcraps of the fat of the whale, which are thrown away after the oil is got out of them, and is very loathſome food.

By the 10th of October the nights were grown long, and the weather become ſo cold that the ſea was frozen over; and having no buſineſs now to divert their thoughts, as hitherto, they began to reflect on their miſerable circumſtances; ſometimes complaining of the cruelty of the maſter of the ſhip for leaving them behind; at other times excuſing him and bewailing his misfortunes, as believing him to have periſhed in the ice. At length, putting their confidence in the Almighty, who alone could relieve them in their great diſtreſs, they offered up their prayers for ſtrength and patience to go through the diſmal trial.

Having ſurveyed their proviſions again, they found that the fritters of the whale were almoſt all mouldy, having taken ſome wet; and that, of their bear and veniſon, there was ſcarce enough left to afford them five meals a week; whereupon it was agreed to live four days in the week upon the mouldy fritters, and the other three to feaſt upon bear and veniſon. Leſt they ſhould want firing hereafter to dreſs their meat, they thought proper to roaſt half a deer every day, and ſtow it up in hogſheads. With this kind of food they filled three hogſheads and a half, leaving as much raw as would ſerve to roaſt a quarter every Sunday, and a quarter for Chriſtmas-day.

It being now the 14th of October the ſun left them, and they ſaw it no more till the 3d of February; but they had the moon all the time, both day and night, though very much obſcured by the clouds and foul weather. There was alſo a glimmering kind of a day-light for eight hours, the latter end of October, which ſhortened every day till the 1ſt of December; from which

time to the 20th of the ſame month, they could perceive no day-light at all. It was now one continued night, there appearing only, in clear weather, a little whiteneſs, like the dawn of day, towards the ſouth.

On the 11ſt of January they found the day to increaſe a little. They counted their days, it ſeems, in the dark ſeaſon, by the moon, and were ſo exact, that, at the return of the ſhipping, they were able to tell the very day of the month on which the fleet arrived. For light within doors they made three lamps of ſome ſheet lead they had found upon one of the coolers; and there happened to be oil enough to ſupply them left in the cooper's tent. For wicks they made uſe of rope-yarn. Theſe lamps were one of the greateſt comforts to them in that long continued night. Their hardſhips, however, were ſo great, that ſometimes they were driven to deſpair. At other times they hoped they were reſerved as a wonderful inſtance of God's mercy in their deliverance, and continued to fall down on their knees, and implore divine protection.

With the new year the cold increaſed to that degree, that it ſometimes raiſed bliſters in their fleſh, as if they had been burnt; and the iron they touched ſtuck to their fingers. When they went abroad for water, the cold often ſeized them in ſuch a manner that it made them ſore, as if they had been beaten. Their water, the firſt part of the winter, iſſued from a bay of ice, and ran down into a kind of baſon, or receptacle, by the ſea ſide, where it remained with a thick ice over it, which they dug open at one certain place with pick-axes every day. This continued to the 10th of January, when they drank ſnow water, melted with a hot iron, until the 20th of May following.

On taking another review of their proviſions, they found that they would not laſt them above ſix weeks longer. To alleviate their miſery, however, on the 3d of February they were cheared again with the bright rays of the ſun, which ſhone upon the tops of the ſnowy mountains with inconceivable luſtre. To them, at leaſt, this afforded the moſt delightful ſcene that ever was beheld; for, after a night of many weeks and months, what could be imagined more glorious or pleaſing to a mortal eye? As an addition to their joy, the bears began to appear again, on the fleſh of which animal they made many hearty meals. But the bears were as ready to devour our countrymen as they were the bears; and being pinched with hunger in this barren country, came up to their very door. One of theſe creatures, with her cub, they met at the entrance of their apartment, and gave her ſuch a reception with their pikes and lances, that they laid her dead upon the ſpot, and the young one was glad to make its eſcape. The weather was ſo very cold that they could not ſtay to flay her, but dragged the beaſt into their houſe. There they cut her into pieces of a ſtone weight, one of which ſerved them for a dinner. Upon this they fed twenty days, eſteeming her fleſh beyond veniſon. Her liver only did not agree with them; for, upon eating it, their ſkins peeled off; though one of the company, who was ſick, attributed his cure, in part, to the eating it. If it be demanded how they kept their veniſon and bear's fleſh without ſalt, it is to be obſerved, the cold is ſo intenſe that no carcaſe ever putrefies. Fleſh needs no ſalt to keep it here: that was their happineſs. Had they been ſtocked with ſalt proviſions, they had infallibly died of the ſcurvy, as others did who were left on the ſhore, much better provided with liquors, and other neceſſaries, than theſe poor men were. By the time they had eaten up this bear, others came about their booth frequently, to the number of 40 or more, of which they killed ſeven, (one of them ſix feet high at leaſt,) roaſting their fleſh upon wooden ſpits, having no other kitchen furniture, except a frying-pan they found in one of the booths. Having now plenty of proviſions, they eat very heartily, and found their ſtrength increaſe apace.

Being now the 16th of March, and the days of a reaſonable length, fowls, which, in the winter time, were fled to the ſouthward, began to reſort to Greenland again in great abundance, where they live and breed in the ſummer, feeding upon ſmall fiſh. The foxes, alſo, which had kept cloſe in their holes under the rocks all the winter, now came abroad, and preyed upon the fowls; of which our countrymen having taken ſome, baited traps with their ſkins, and caught five foxes in them, which they roaſted, and found them to be very good meat, at leaſt in the opinion of men who had hitherto fed much on bear's fleſh. Thus they continued taking fowls and foxes till the 1ſt of May, meeting with no further misfortunes, except the loſs of one of their maſtiff dogs, which went from their houſe one morning in the middle of March, and was never ſeen afterwards, being probably overpowered and eaten by the bears.

The weather beginning to grow warm in May, they rambled about in ſearch of willocks eggs, a fowl about the ſize of a duck, of which they found ſome, being a change of diet they were very much pleaſed with.

The ſeaſon now coming on for the arrival of the ſhipping, ſome of them went every day almoſt to the top of a mountain, to ſee if they could diſcern the water in the ſea, which they had no ſight of till the 24th, when, it blowing a ſtorm, and the wind ſitting from the main ocean, broke the ice in the bay, and ſoon after turning about eaſterly, carried great part of the ice out to ſea; but ſtill the water did not come within three miles of their dwelling.

The next morning, the 25th of May, none of their men happened to go abroad; but one of them being in the outer booth, heard ſomebody hale the houſe in the ſame manner as ſailors do a ſhip, to which the men in the inner booth anſwered, in ſeamen's terms, that they were juſt then going to prayers, and ſtayed but for the man in the outer booth to join with them. The man who hailed them was one of the boat's crew that belonged to an Engliſh ſhip juſt arrived; which our ſailors no ſooner underſtood, than they ran out to meet their countrymen, looking upon them as ſo many angels ſent from heaven to their relief; and certainly the tranſport of joy they felt upon this occaſion, if it may be conceived, can never be expreſſed. A mortification ſtill remained, which no man could well have expected. One of the ſhips which arrived, was commanded by the ſame maſter who left theſe poor wretches on ſhore, and he, like a barbarous brute, in order to excuſe is own inhumanity, began to revile them in the moſt opprobrious terms. This man, it ſeems, had left ſeven or eight other men in Greenland two years before, who were never heard of afterwards; for which, no doubt, he richly deſerved the ſevereſt puniſhment. Notwithſtanding the barbarity of their own captain, the commander and officers of the other ſhip took care they ſhould be kindly uſed, and brought to England when the ſeaſon for whale fiſhing was over, where they received a gratuity from the Ruſſia company, and were otherwiſe well provided for by them. Perhaps there is no inſtance in hiſtory of a company of men, in ſuch extreme diſtreſs, who ſhewed more courage and patience, or made a more wiſe proviſion for their preſervation than theſe did.

Singular Adventures of Four Ruſſian Sailors, who remained ſeveral Years in Greenland or Spitzbergen.

IN the year 1743 a merchant of Meſen, a town in the province of Jugovia, in the government of Archangel, fitted out a veſſel, carrying 15 men. She was deſtined for Spitzbergen, to be employed in the whale or ſeal fiſhery. For eight ſucceſſive days, after they had ſailed, the wind was fair; but on the 9th it changed; ſo that inſtead of getting to the weſt of Spitzbergen, the uſual place of rendezvous for the Dutch ſhips, and thoſe of other nations, annually employed in the whale fiſhery, they were driven eaſtward. After ſome days, however, they approached within two Engliſh miles of the ſhore, when their veſſel was ſuddenly

ſurrounded

ſurrounded by ice, and they found themſelves in an extreme dangerous ſituation.

In this alarming ſtate a council was held, when the mate informed them, that he recollected to have heard, that ſeveral of the people of Meſen, ſome time before, having formed a reſolution of wintering here, had accordingly carried from that city timber proper for building a hut, and actually erected one at ſome diſtance from the ſhore.

This information induced the whole company to reſolve on wintering there, if the hut, as they hoped, ſtill exiſted; for they clearly perceived the imminent danger they were in, and that they muſt inevitably periſh if they continued in the ſhip. They therefore diſpatched four of their crew in ſearch of the hut, or any other ſuccour they could meet with.

As the ſhore, on which they were to land, was uninhabited, it was neceſſary that they ſhould make ſome proviſion for their expedition. They had almoſt two miles to travel over looſe ridges of ice, which, being raiſed by the waves, and driven againſt each other by the wind, rendered the way equally difficult and dangerous. Prudence, therefore, forbade their loading themſelves too much, leſt, being overburthened, they might ſink in between the pieces of ice, and periſh.

Having thus maturely conſidered the nature of their undertaking, they provided themſelves with a muſket, and a powder horn containing twelve charges of powder, with as many balls, an axe, a ſmall kettle, a bag with about 20 pounds of flour, a knife, a tinder-box and tinder, a bladder filled with tobacco, and every man his wooden pipe. Thus accoutred, theſe four ſailors quickly arrived at Spitzbergen, little ſuſpecting the misfortunes that would befal them.

They began with exploring the country, and ſoon diſcovered the hut they were in ſearch of, about an Engliſh mile and a half from the ſhore. It was 36 feet in length, 18 in height, and as many in breadth. It contained a ſmall anti-chamber, about 12 feet broad, which had two doors, the one to ſhut it up from the outer air, and the other to form a communication with the inner room. This contributed greatly to keep the large room warm, when once heated. In the large room was an earthen ſtove, conſtructed in the Ruſſian manner, that is, a kind of oven without a chimney, which ſerves occaſionally either for baking, for heating the room, or, as is cuſtomary among the Ruſſian peaſants, in very cold weather, for a place to ſleep upon.

The ſailors were exceeding glad at having diſcovered the hut, which had, however, ſuffered much by the weather, it having been built a conſiderable time; but, bad as it was, they contrived to paſs the night in it. Early the next morning they haſtened to the ſhore, impatient to inform their comrades of their ſucceſs; and alſo to procure, from their veſſel, ſuch proviſions, ammunition, and other neceſſaries, as might better enable them to paſs through the winter.

The reader may more eaſily conceive, than it is poſſible for words to deſcribe, the aſtoniſhment and agony of mind theſe people muſt have felt, when, on reaching the place of their landing, they ſaw nothing but an open ſea, free from the ice which, but a day before, had covered the ocean. A violent ſtorm, which had ariſen during the night, had certainly been the cauſe of this diſaſtrous event. But they could not tell whether the ice, which had before hemmed in the veſſel, agitated by the violence of the waves, had been driven againſt her, and ſhattered her to pieces, or whether ſhe had been carried by the current into the main, a circumſtance which frequently happens in thoſe ſeas. Whatever accident had befallen the ſhip, they ſaw her no more; and as no tidings were ever after received of her, it is moſt probable that ſhe ſunk, and that all on board her periſhed.

This melancholy event depriving the unhappy wretches of all hope of ever being able to quit the place, they returned to the hut full of horror and deſpair.

Their firſt attention was employed, as may be naturally imagined, in deviſing means for providing ſubſiſtence, and for repairing their hut. The 12 charges of powder, which they had brought with them, ſoon procured them as many rein-deer; the country, fortunately for them, abounding in thoſe animals.

It has already been obſerved, that the hut had ſuſtained ſome damage. There were cracks in many places between the boards of the building that freely admitted the air. This inconvenience, however, was remedied, as they had an axe; and the beams were ſtill ſound, ſo that it was eaſy for them to make the boards join again: beſides, moſs growing in great abundance all over the country, there was more than ſufficient to ſtop up the crevices, which wooden houſes muſt always be liable to. Repairs of this kind coſt the unhappy men leſs trouble as they were Ruſſians; for moſt Ruſſian peaſants are known to be good carpenters.

The intenſe cold, which renders theſe climates habitable to few ſpecies of animals, renders them equally unfit for the production of vegetables. No ſpecies of tree, or even ſhrub, is found in Spitzbergen; a circumſtance of the moſt alarming nature to theſe ſailors. Without fire it was impoſſible to reſiſt the rigour of the climate; and without wood, how was that fire to be produced or ſupported? Providence, however, has ſo ordered it, that, in this particular, the ſea ſupplies the defects of the land. In wandering along the beach they collected plenty of wood, which had been driven aſhore by the waves, and which at firſt, conſiſted of the wrecks of ſhips, and afterwards of whole trees, with their roots, the produce of ſome more hoſpitable, but to them unknown, climate, which the overflowing of rivers, or other accidents, had ſent into the ocean.

Nothing proved of more eſſential ſervice to theſe unfortunate men, during the firſt year of their exile, than ſome boards they found upon the beach, having a long iron hook, ſome nails of about five or ſix inches long, and proportionably thick, and other bits of iron fixed in them; the melancholy relics of ſome veſſel caſt away in thoſe remote parts. Theſe were thrown aſhore by the waves, at a time when the want of powder gave theſe perſons reaſon to apprehend that they muſt fall a prey to hunger, as they had nearly conſumed thoſe rein-deer they had killed. This lucky circumſtance was attended with another equally fortunate: they found, on the ſhore, the root of a fir tree, which nearly approached to the figure of a bow.

As neceſſity has ever been the mother of invention, they ſoon faſhioned this root into a good bow, by the help of a knife; but ſtill they wanted a ſtring and arrows. Not knowing how to procure theſe at preſent, they reſolved upon making a couple of lances to defend themſelves againſt the white bears, whoſe attacks they had reaſon to dread.

Finding they could neither make the heads of their lances, or of their arrows, without the help of a hammer, they contrived to form the large iron hook, before mentioned, into one, by beating it, and widening a hole it happened to have about its middle, with the help of one of their largeſt nails. This received the handle; and a round button, at one end of the hook, ſerved for the face of the hammer. A large pebble ſupplied the place of an anvil, and a couple of rein-deer horns made the tongs. By means of theſe tools they made two heads of ſpears; and, after poliſhing and ſharpening them on ſtones, they tied them as faſt as poſſible, with thongs made of rein-deer ſkins, to ſticks about the thickneſs of a man's arm, which they procured from ſome branches of trees that had been caſt on ſhore.

Thus equipped with ſpears, they reſolved to attack a white bear, and, after a moſt dangerous encounter, they killed one, and thereby furniſhed a new ſupply of proviſions. The fleſh of this animal they reliſhed exceedingly, as they thought it much reſembled beef in taſte and flavour. They ſaw, with infinite pleaſure, that the tendons could, with little or no trouble, be divided into

into filaments of what fineneſs they thought fit. This, perhaps, was the moſt fortunate diſcovery they could have made; for, beſides other advantages, they were hereby furniſhed with ſtrings for their bow.

The ſucceſs of theſe people in making their ſpears, and the utility they produced, encouraged them to proceed, and to forge ſome pieces of iron into heads of arrows of the ſame ſhape, though ſomewhat ſmaller in ſize than the ſpears. Having ground and ſharpened theſe like the former, they tied them, with the ſinews of the white bear, to pieces of fir, to which, by the help of fine threads of the ſame, they faſtened feathers of ſea-fowl, and thus became poſſeſſed of a complete bow and arrows. Their ingenuity, in this reſpect, was crowned with ſucceſs far beyond their expectation; for, during the time of their continuance here, they killed no leſs than 250 rein-deer, beſides a great number of blue and white foxes. The fleſh of theſe animals ſerved them alſo for food, and their ſkins for cloathing, and other neceſſary preſervatives againſt the intenſe coldneſs of a climate ſo near the pole.

They killed, however, only 10 white bears, and that not without the utmoſt danger; for theſe animals, being prodigiouſly ſtrong, defended themſelves with aſtoniſhing vigour and fury. The firſt they attacked deſignedly, but the other nine they killed in defending themſelves from their aſſaults; for ſome of theſe creatures even ventured to enter the outer room of the hut, in order to devour them. All the bears, indeed, did not ſhew equal ferocity, either owing to ſome being leſs preſſed by hunger, or to their being, by nature, leſs carnivorous than the others: for ſome of them which entered the hut immediately betook themſelves to flight on the firſt attempt of the ſailors to drive them away. A repetition, however, of theſe attacks, threw the poor men into great terror and anxiety, as they were almoſt in perpetual danger of being devoured. The three different kinds of animals before mentioned, viz. the rein-deer, the foxes, and the white bears, were the only food theſe wretched mariners taſted during their continuance in this dreary abode.

They were for ſome time reduced to the neceſſity of eating their meat almoſt raw, and without either bread or ſalt; for they were deſtitute of both. The intenſeneſs of the cold, together with the want of proper conveniencies, prevented them from cooking their victuals in a proper manner. There was but one ſtove in the hut, and that being ſet up agreeable to the Ruſſian taſte, was more like an oven, and conſequently not well adapted for boiling any thing. Wood, alſo, was too precious a commodity to be waſted in keeping up two fires; and the one they might have made out of their habitation to dreſs their victuals would in no way have ſerved to warm them. Another reaſon againſt their cooking in the open air was the continual danger of an attack from the white bears.

To remedy, in ſome degree, the hardſhips of eating their meat half raw, they bethought themſelves of drying ſome of their proviſion, during the ſummer, in the open air; and afterwards of hanging it up in the upper part of the hut, which was continually filled with ſmoak. This meat, ſo prepared, they uſed for bread, and it made them reliſh their other fleſh the better, as they could only half dreſs it. Finding this experiment anſwer, in every reſpect, their wiſhes, they continued to practiſe it during the whole time of their confinement in this country, and always kept up by that means a ſufficient ſtock of proviſions. Water they had in ſummer from ſmall rivulets that fell from the rocks; and in winter from the ſnow and thawed ice: this was, of courſe, their only beverage: and their ſmall kettle was the only veſſel they could make uſe of for this and other purpoſes.

It is well known that ſeafaring people are extremely ſubject to the ſcurvy. This diſeaſe increaſes in proportion as we approach the poles, which muſt be attributed to the exceſſive cold, or ſome other cauſe yet unknown. However that may be, the ſailors, ſeeing themſelves quite deſtitute of every means of cure, in caſe they ſhould be attacked with ſo fatal a diſorder, judged it expedient not to neglect any regimen generally adopted as a preſervative againſt this impending evil. One of their number, who had ſeveral times wintered on the coaſt of Spitzbergen, adviſed his unfortunate companions to ſwallow raw and frozen meat broken into ſmall bits; to drink the blood of rein-deer warm as it flowed from their veins immediately after the killing them; to uſe as much exerciſe as poſſible; and, laſtly, to eat ſcurvy-graſs, which grows in this country.

Experience proved theſe remedies to be effectual; for three of theſe ſailors, who purſued this method, continued totally free from all taint of the diſorder. The fourth, on the contrary, who was naturally indolent, averſe to drinking the rein-deer blood, and unwilling to leave the hut, when he could poſſibly avoid it, was, ſoon after their arrival, ſeized with the ſcurvy, which afterwards became ſo bad, that he paſſed almoſt ſix years under the greateſt ſufferings. In the latter part of that time he became ſo weak that he could no longer ſit erect, or even raiſe his hand to his mouth; ſo that his humane companions were obliged to feed and tend him, like a new-born infant, to the hour of his death.

We have before obſerved, that they brought with them a ſmall bag of flour. Of this they had conſumed about one half with their meat; and the remainder they employed in a different manner, though equally uſeful. They ſoon found the neceſſity of keeping up a continual fire in ſo cold a climate, and perceived that, if it ſhould unfortunately go out, they had no means of lighting it again: for though they had a ſteel and flint, yet they wanted both match and tinder.

In their excurſions through the country, they had met with a ſlimy loam, or a kind of clay, out of which they found means to form an uteniil that might ſerve for a lamp; and they propoſed to keep it conſtantly burning with the fat of the animals they ſhould kill. This was certainly the moſt rational ſcheme they could have thought of; for to be without a light in a climate where, during the winter, darkneſs reigns for ſeveral months together, would have added much more to their calamities. Having, therefore, faſhioned a kind of lamp, they filled it with rein-deers fat, and ſtuck in ſome twiſted linen, ſhaped into a wick. But they had the mortification to find that, as ſoon as the fat melted, it not only ſoaked into the clay, but ran through on all ſides. It was therefore neceſſary to deviſe ſome means for preventing this inconvenience, not riſing from cracks, but from the ſubſtance of which the lamp was made being too porous. They therefore made a new one, dried it thoroughly in the air, then heated it red hot, and afterwards quenched it in their kettle, wherein they had boiled a quantity of flour down to the conſiſtence of thin ſtarch. The lamp being thus dried, and filled with fat, they now found, to their great joy, did not leak; but, for greater ſecurity, they dipped linen rags in their paſte, and covered all its outſide with them. Succeeding in this attempt, they immediately made another lamp, for fear of an accident, that, at all events, they might not be deſtitute of light. When they had made themſelves theſe two, they thought proper to ſave the remainder of their flour for ſimilar purpoſes.

As they had carefully collected whatever happened to be caſt on ſhore to ſupply them with fuel, they had found among the wrecks of veſſels ſome cordage, and a ſmall quantity of oakum, which ſerved them to make wicks for their lamps. When theſe ſtores began to fail, their ſhirts and drawers were employed to make good the deficiency. By theſe means they kept a lamp burning without intermiſſion, from the day they firſt made them, until that of their embarkation for their native country.

The neceſſity of converting the moſt eſſential parts of their cloathing, ſuch as their ſhirts and drawers, to the

the uſe before ſpecified, expoſed them the more to the rigour of the climate. They alſo found themſelves in want of ſhoes, boots, and other articles of dreſs; and, as winter was approaching, were again obliged to have recourſe to that ingenuity which neceſſity ſuggeſts, and which ſeldom fails in the trying hour of diſtreſs.

They had ſkins of rein-deer and foxes in abundance, that had hitherto ſerved them for bedding, and which they now thought of employing in ſome more eſſential ſervice; but the queſtion was how to tan them. After deliberating on this matter, they took the following method. They ſoaked the ſkins for ſeveral days in freſh water, till they could pull off the hair tolerably eaſy: they then rubbed the wet leather with their hands till it was nearly dry, when they ſpread ſome melted rein-deer's fat over it, and again rubbed it well. By this proceſs the leather became ſoft, pliant, and ſupple, proper to anſwer every purpoſe for which it was intended. Thoſe ſkins which they deſigned for furs they only ſoaked one day, to prepare them for being wrought, and then proceeded in the manner before mentioned, except only that they did not remove the hair. Thus they ſoon provided themſelves with the neceſſary materials for all the parts of dreſs they wanted.

But here another difficulty ocurred. They had neither awls for making ſhoes or boots, or needles for ſewing their garments. Theſe wants, however, they ſoon ſupplied, by means of the bits of iron they had occaſionally collected. Out of theſe they made both, and, by their own induſtry, even brought them to a certain degree of perfection. The making eyes to their needles indeed, gave them no ſmall trouble; but this they alſo performed with the aſſiſtance of their knife; for having ground it to a very ſharp point, and heated red hot a kind of wire, they pierced a hole through one end, and, by wetting and ſmoothing it on ſtones, brought the other to a point, and thus gave the whole needle a tolerable good form.

The next material inſtrument wanted was a pair of ſciſſars to cut out the ſkins: but this deficiency was ſupplied by their knife; and though there was neither taylor or ſhoemaker among them, yet they contrived to cut out their leather and furs well enough for the purpoſe. The ſinews of the bears and rein-deer ſerved them for thread. Thus provided with the neceſſary implements they proceeded to make their new cloaths.

Their ſummer dreſs conſiſted of a kind of jacket and trowſers, made of ſkins prepared as above. In winter they wore long fur gowns, like the Samoides or Laplanders, furniſhed with a hood, which covered the head and neck, leaving only an opening for the face. Theſe gowns were ſewed cloſe round, ſo that, to put them on, they were obliged to bring them over their heads like a ſhirt.

When our mariners had paſſed near ſix years in this diſmal place, the man, whoſe illneſs has been already mentioned, and who had been all along in a languid condition, died, after having, in the latter part of his life, ſuffered the moſt excruciating pains. Though they were thus freed from the trouble of attending him, and the grief of being witneſſes to his miſery, without being able to afford him any relief, they were greatly affected at his death. They ſaw their number leſſened, and every one wiſhed to be the firſt that ſhould follow him. As he died in winter, they dug a grave in the ſnow as deep as they could, in which they laid the corpſe, and then covered it over in the beſt manner they could, to ſecure it from the bears.

At the time when the melancholy reflection, occaſioned by the death of their comrade, came freſh in their minds, and when each expected to pay this laſt duty to the remaining companions of his misfortunes, or to receive it from them, they unexpectedly got ſight of a Ruſſian ſhip. This happened on the 15th of Auguſt, 1749. This veſſel belonged to a trader of the ſect called by its adherents Stara Vieva, that is, The Old Faith, who had come from Archangel, and propoſed wintering in Nova Zembla; but the contrary winds they met with on their paſſage rendered it impoſſible for them to reach the place of their deſtination. The veſſel was driven towards Spitzbergen, directly oppoſite to the reſidence of our mariners, who, as ſoon as they perceived her, haſtened to light fires on the hills neareſt their habitation, and then ran to the beach, waving a flag, made of rein-deer's hide, faſtened to a pole. The people on board, ſeeing theſe ſignals, concluded that they were men on the ſhore who implored their aſſiſtance, and therefore came to an anchor not far from the land.

It is almoſt impoſſible to deſcribe the joy of theſe poor people at ſeeing the moment of their deliverance ſo near. They ſoon agreed with the maſter of the ſhip to work for him on the voyage, and to pay him 80 rubles on their arrival, for taking them on board, with all their riches, which conſiſted in 50 pud, or 2000 pounds weight, of rein-deer fat, in many hides of theſe animals, and in ſkins of the blue and white foxes, together with thoſe of the ten white bears they had killed. They took care not to forget their bow and arrows; their ſpears; their knife and axe, which were almoſt worn out; their awls and needles, which they kept carefully in a bone box, very ingeniouſly made with the knife only; and, in ſhort, every thing they were poſſeſſed of.

Our adventurers arrived ſafe at Archangel on the 28th of September, 1749, having ſpent ſix years and three months in their rueful ſolitude.

The moment of their landing had nearly proved fatal to the loving and beloved wife of one of them, who, being preſent when the veſſel came into port, immediately knew her huſband, and ran with ſo much eagerneſs to his embraces, that ſhe ſlipped into the water, and very narrowly eſcaped being drowned.

All three, on their arrival, were ſtrong and healthy; but having lived ſo long without bread, they could not reconcile themſelves to the uſe of it, and complained that it filled them with wind: neither could they bear any ſpirituous liquors, and therefore drank nothing but water.

However aſtoniſhing the above recital may appear, the truth of theſe adventures is ſufficiently authenticated. When theſe unfortunate ſailors arrived at Archangel, they were examined by the chief auditor of the admiralty of that city, who minuted down all the particulars, which exactly correſponded with each other. Mr. Le Ray, profeſſor of hiſtory in the Imperial Academy, ſome time after ſent for two of the men to Peterſburgh, from whoſe mouths he took the before mentioned narrative, which alſo agreed with Mr. Klinſtadt's minutes. The original was publiſhed in the German language at Peterſburgh, in the year 1769, and tranſmitted from thence to the ingenious Mr. (now Sir Joſeph) Banks, who, with ſeveral other members of the Royal Society, were ſo well pleaſed with the account, that they directed a tranſlation of it to be made into Engliſh, for the gratification of the curious.

CHAP. II.

LAPLAND.

SECTION I.

Name, Boundaries, Extent, Diviſions, Subdiviſions, Climate, Soil, Mountains, Rivers, Vegetables, Animal and Mineral Productions.

THE natives of this country were called Scritofinni by the ancients, to whom the appellation of Lapland, or Lappia, was unknown. They originally inhabited Failand, from whence they were driven more northward, after which they were called Lappes, which, in the Finick tongue, ſignified exiles driven to the moſt remote places. The natives, of courſe, deeming that appellation opprobrious, call themſelves Sabmienladſi.

Lapland being ſubject to three diſtinct ſovereignties, viz. Sweden, Denmark and Ruſſia, is divided into three parts; but as Swediſh Lapland is by far the moſt conſiderable, both in point of extent and population, and as they all bear a ſimilarity with reſpect to moſt particulars, we ſhall confine our deſcription to that diviſion; obſerving, in general, that all the country lying above the Gulph of Bothnia, along the coaſt of the north ſea, even to the White Sea, is called Lapland.

Swediſh Lapland is bounded on the eaſt by Ruſſia Lapland; on the weſt by a ridge of mountains that ſeparate it from Norway; on the north by Daniſh Lapland; and on the ſouth by Bothnia, Angermania, and Septerland. Its greateſt extent, from eaſt to weſt, is about 360 miles; in breadth it extends from 65 deg. 33 min. to 69 deg. of north latitude. It is divided into ſix provinces, or diſtricts, the names of which are as follows, viz. Angermanland-Lapmark, Uma-Lapmark, Pitha-Lapmark, Lula-Lapmark, Torno-Lapmark, and Kimi-Lapmark.

Theſe provinces, each of which receives its name from the chief river that waters it, are again ſubdivided into ſmaller diſtricts called Biars, and theſe contain a certain number of families, called by the Swedes Reckars. Every Reckar, or family, is allowed a conſiderable track of land, with foreſts, lakes and brooks, for the maintenance of their families and cattle; but their lands are not incloſed, ſo that the property of one is often converted to the uſe of another.

Lapland is ſituated ſo near the pole, that the ſun neither ſets in ſummer, or riſes in winter. In the latter ſeaſon the cold is ſo intenſe, that none but the natives are able to bear it. The moſt rapid rivers are then frozen up, and the ice is two or three, and ſometimes four or five feet thick. In ſummer the weather is as ſultry as it is cold in winter: for autumn and ſpring are unknown in this climate. The exceſſive heat, however, is qualified by the vapours that riſe from the ſea, and by the ſnow that continues all the ſummer on the tops of the mountains, and in ditches that are ſheltered from the ſun. It ſeldom rains in the ſummer, but in winter the whole country is covered with ſnow.

The beſt deſcription of the climate of this country is given by M. Maupertuis, who, with ſeveral other aſtronomers, was ſent hither by order of the king of France, to diſcover the figure of the earth at the polar circle. "In December (ſays he) the ſnow continually falling, or ready to fall, for the moſt part hid the ſun the few moments he might have appeared at mid-day. In the month of January the cold was increaſed to that extremity, that M. Reaumour's mercurial thermometer, which, at Paris, in the great froſt of 1709, it was thought ſtrange to ſee fall to fourteen degrees below the freezing point, was now got down to thirty-ſeven. The ſpirits of wine in the others was frozen. If we opened the door of a warm room, the external air inſtantly converted all the vapour in it into ſnow; whirling it round in white vortexes. If we went abroad, we felt as if the air was tearing our breaſts in pieces; and the cracking of the wood, of which the houſes are built, as if ſplit by the violence of the froſt, continually alarmed us with an increaſe of cold: in this country you may often ſee people who have loſt an arm or a leg by the froſt. The cold, which is always very great, ſometimes increaſes by ſuch violent and ſudden degrees, as are almoſt infallibly fatal to thoſe who are ſo unhappy as to be expoſed to it; and ſometimes there riſe ſudden tempeſts of ſnow that are ſtill more dangerous. The winds ſeem to blow from all quarters at once, and drive about the ſnow with ſuch fury, that all the roads are in a moment rendered inviſible. Dreadful is the ſituation of a perſon ſurpriſed in the fields by ſuch a ſtorm: his knowledge of the country, and even the mark he may have taken by the trees, cannot avail him; he is blinded by the ſnow, and if he attempts to find his way home is generally loſt. In ſhort, during the whole winter, the cold was ſo exceſſive, that on the 7th of April, at five in the morning, the thermometer was fallen to twenty diviſions below the point of freezing, though every afternoon it roſe two or three diviſions above it; a difference in the height not much leſs than that which the greateſt heat and cold felt at Paris uſually produce in that inſtrument. Thus in 24 hours we had all the variety felt in the temperate zones in the compaſs of a whole year."

Though the nights in winter are very cold, long and tedious, yet thoſe inconveniences are, in ſome degree, obviated by the ſerenity of the ſky, the brightneſs of the moon and ſtars, and the refulgent light of the aurora borealis, which is reflected from the white ſurface of the earth covered with ſnow, from all which ſuch a light is produced, that the inhabitants are enabled to diſcharge their ordinary occupations. M. Maupertuis, in ſpeaking of theſe nocturnal lights, ſays, "The days are no ſooner cloſed than fires of a thouſand figures and colours light up the ſky, as if deſigned to compenſate for the abſence of the ſun. Theſe fires have not here, as in more ſouthern climates, any conſtant ſituation. Though a luminous arch is often ſeen fixed towards the north, they ſeem more frequently to poſſeſs the whole extent of the hemiſphere. Sometimes they begin in the form of a great ſcarf of bright light, with its extremities upon the horizon, which, with a motion reſembling that of a fiſhing-net, glides ſoftly up the ſky, preſerving, in this motion, a direction nearly perpendicular to the meridian; and moſt commonly after theſe preludes all the lights unite at the zenith, and form the top of a crown. Arcs, like thoſe ſeen in France towards the north, are here frequently ſituated towards the ſouth; and often towards both the north and ſouth at once. Their ſummits approach each other; the diſtance of their extremities widens towards the horizon. I have ſeen ſome of the oppoſite arcs, whoſe ſummits almoſt joined at the zenith; and both the one and the other have frequently ſeveral concentric arcs beyond it. Their tops are all placed in the direction of the meridian, though with a little declination to the weſt; which I did not find to be conſtant, and which is ſometimes inſenſible. It would be endleſs to mention all the different figures theſe meteors repreſent, and the various motions with which they are agitated. Their motion is moſt commonly like that of a pair of colours waved in the air, and the different tints of their lights give them the appearance of ſo many vaſt ſtreamers of changeable taffaty. Sometimes they line a part of the ſky with ſcarlet. On the eighteenth of December I ſaw a phenomenon of this kind.

kind, that, in the midſt of all the wonders to which I was now every day accuſtomed, raiſed my admiration. To the ſouth a great ſpace of the ſky appeared tinged with ſo lively a red, that the whole conſtellation of Orion looked as if it had been dipped in blood. This light, which was at firſt fixed, ſoon moved, and changing into other colours, violet and blue, ſettled into a dome, whoſe top ſtood a little to the ſouth-weſt of the zenith. The moon ſhone bright, but did not in the leaſt efface it. In this country, where there are lights of ſo many different colours, I never ſaw but two that were red; and ſuch are taken for preſages of ſome great misfortune. After all, when people gaze at theſe phenomena with an unphiloſophic eye, it is not ſurpriſing if they diſcover in them the appearance of armies engaged, fiery chariots, and a thouſand other prodigies."

The ſoil of this country is, in general, exceeding bad, being ſo intermixed with ſtones, that hardly any thing will grow in it; but in ſome places it is very moiſt, owing to the number of marſhes and brooks with which it abounds.

The whole country is full of rocks and mountains. Thoſe called the Dofrine Mountains, which ſeparate Lapland from Norway, are of a prodigious height; and the high winds that blow there prevent all trees from taking root. Beneath theſe mountains are large marſhes and extenſive foreſts, where there are many trees, though they ſtand at a great diſtance from each other. At the bottom of the hills are pleaſant vallies, which are the moſt fertile parts of the country, being well watered by an infinite number of ſprings and brooks.

Moſt of the rivers riſe from the mountains of Norway, and fall into the Bothnian Gulph. The chief of theſe are the Uma, Lula, Rima, and Torna. The Uma is greatly increaſed by the waters that flow into it from the rivers Vendilor and Skialfre. The Lula and Rima are both very conſiderable, and are ſwelled, in their courſe, by a great number of leſſer ones. The Torna receives 29 rivers, one of which is a Swediſh mile in breadth. When the ſnow melts, all theſe rivers overflow their banks; and the chief part of them have ſtupendous cataracts. Beſides the rivers here are alſo many lakes, which, as well as the former, abound with various kinds of fiſh.

The foreſts of Lapland produce a great number of trees, among which are the birch, pine, and fir. Some parts of it alſo produce the ſervice-tree, willow, poplar, elder, and the corneil. They have ſeveral ſorts of plants; but the moſt uſeful are the angelica and ſorrel, which are greatly eſteemed by the natives, who uſe them in their food. They have likewiſe different kinds of graſs, heath, and fern: but the moſt plentiful, as well as moſt uſeful vegetable, is the moſchus, or moſs, of which there are ſeveral ſpecies, either adhering to trees, or growing on the ſurface of the earth. The rein-deer is almoſt wholly ſuſtained by this vegetable, which, indeed, he prefers to all others, and without which he cannot ſubſiſt. The natives not only uſe it as forage for their cattle, but boil it in broth as a cordial and reſtorative.

Here is alſo great plenty of berries, ſuch as black currants; the Norwegian mulberry, which grows upon a creeping plant, and is much eſteemed as an antiſcorbutic; raſberries, cranberries, and bilberries. Juniper-berries are alſo very plentiful, and ſome of the trees grow to a conſiderable height.

The animals of this country are ſtags, bears, wolves, foxes of ſeveral colours, ſquirrels, ermines, martens, hares, glittens, beavers, otters, elks, and rein-deer; but the laſt of theſe is the moſt uſeful to the natives, who, without them, could not poſſibly preſerve their exiſtence; for theſe animals not only afford them food and garments, but alſo ſupply the place of horſes, and travel in thoſe parts where the latter animals would be entirely uſeleſs.

The rein-deer is a kind of ſtag, with large branched horns, the tops of which bend forward like a bow. He is larger, ſtronger, and ſwifter than the ſtag; and his hair changes colour according to the ſeaſon of the year. His hoofs are cloven and moveable, for which reaſon he ſpreads them abroad as he runs along the ſnow, to prevent his ſinking into it. The horns are very high, and divided into two branches near the root. On each horn are three branches, one above another, which are again ſubdivided into ſmaller ones; inſomuch, that no horned beaſt whatever has the like, either for bulk, branches, or weight. The horns are of a light colour, and there are veins, or blood veſſels, running along them, under which there are furrows. When the beaſt runs, he lays theſe horns upon his back; but there are two branches that always hang over his forehead, and almoſt cover his face. Moſt of theſe animals are wild; but ſome of them are tame, and exceeding ſerviceable to the natives. Thoſe which are produced between a tame doe and a wild buck are not only the largeſt, but by far the ſtrongeſt. Theſe animals are of infinite uſe to the Laplanders; for, without ſubjecting them to the leaſt expence, they ſupply them with almoſt every neceſſary of life. From theſe creatures they are furniſhed with milk and cheeſe, as alſo fleſh, which they lay up for winter ſtore. The ſkins afford caps, cloaths, boots, ſhoes, bedding, thongs, and many other articles. The nerves and ſinews are twiſted into thread. Their bows and arrows are tipped with the bones, and their boxes inlaid with the horn, which is likewiſe formed into curious ſpoons, toys, and utenſils. Theſe animals are likewiſe uſed as beaſts of draught or burthen; and far from demanding any proviſion or provender, dig with their feet among the ſnow for the moſs, which they prefer to every other kind of food.

The dogs here are very ſmall, not being above a foot in height. They turn up their tails, which are ſhort; and their ears ſtand erect, like thoſe of wolves. They are of a red colour, and very ſerviceable in hunting.

The birds of Lapland are ſwans, geeſe, ducks, lapwings, ſnipes, moſt ſorts of water-fowl, heath-cocks, ſtock-doves, wood-cocks, and partridges. Beſides theſe, they have two kinds of fowl peculiar only to this country. The firſt is called the kniper, and is a kind of ſnipe, black on the head, back, and wings; but the breaſt and belly are white. It has a long red beak, ſet with teeth, and ſhort red feet, reſembling thoſe of water-fowl. The other is called the loom, and is never ſeen on the ground, but either in the water, or flying. The partridges here are as white as ſnow, and, inſtead of feathers, their bodies are covered with a kind of wool. The rocks and mountains are frequented by eagles, hawks, falcons, kites, and other birds of prey.

The chief inſects here are flies, which, in the ſummer, are hatched in the moraſſes and woods, and are frequently ſo numerous as to obſcure the light of the day. They are venomous, and exceeding troubleſome; inſomuch, that the rein-deer fly to the tops of the mountains for ſhelter; and the inhabitants move to the ſea-ſide; theſe parts being the leaſt infeſted by theſe peſtilent vermin. Monſieur Maupertuis ſays, that, while he was there, the flies were ſo troubleſome, that even the Finland ſoldiers, who were counted the moſt hardy troops in the ſervice of Sweden, were obliged to cover their faces with the ſkirts of their coats from the attacks of theſe animals, which ſwarmed to ſuch a degree, that the moment a piece of fleſh appeared, it was blackened all over. Some of theſe flies are very large, with green heads, and draw blood from the ſkin wherever they ſtrike.

The rivers and lakes abound with delicious ſalmon, which come from the Gulph of Bothnia; alſo trout, bream, and perch, all of which are of exquiſite flavour, and of amazing ſize.

In ſome of the diſtricts are mines of ſilver, lead, and copper, together with excellent veins of iron; but they are not at preſent worked to any conſiderable advantage, their ſituation being almoſt inacceſſible. In the diſtrict of Torno there is a vein of gold and ſilver mixed, another of lead and ſilver, and a third of copper;

copper; and here they have both copper works and a foundry. They have alſo furnaces in the province of Lula, where they melt the ſilver which they dig in that part of the country. Theſe mines, however, are only worked for a ſhort time in the ſummer, the climate being ſo ſevere for the principal part of the year, as to prevent the engines from performing their offices.

In the rivers and lakes are found beautiful cryſtals of a prodigious ſize, and ſo hard and fine, that, when poliſhed, they appear like real diamonds. Here are likewiſe a great variety of curious ſtones, ſome of which bear the reſemblance of animals, trees, &c. When the natives find theſe, they place them in ſome conſpicuous place, and worſhip them as deities.

SECTION II.

Perſons, Diſpoſitions, Longevity, Habitations, Dreſs, Utenſils, Employments, Method of Travelling, Cuſtoms, Marriage and Funeral Ceremonies, Diſeaſes, Language, &c. of the Natives of Lapland.

THE Laplanders are remarkably ſhort in ſtature, the generality of them not being above four feet and a half high, and ſome of them even under that ſize; the cauſe of which is attributed to the ſeverity of the climate, and the poorneſs of their living. They are, in general, very diſagreeably formed, having a large head, a broad forehead, hollow and bleared eyes, a ſhort and flat noſe, and a broad face, with ſhort, black, and rough hair. They have broad breaſts, ſlender waiſts, and ſmall legs; but they are ſtrong, hardy, and active, inſomuch, that they will bear incredible fatigue; and it is remarked, that the ſtouteſt Norwegian is not able to bend the bow of a Laplander. The women, however, are much leſs homely than the men; and ſome of them have a delicate and florid complexion.

In their diſpoſitions they are very honeſt and hoſpitable; but ſo timorous, that they will fly the moment they perceive a veſſel at ſea, or the leaſt footſtep of a ſtranger. They are naturally haſty and paſſionate, and, when once provoked, not eaſily appeaſed. They indulge themſelves in lazineſs to ſuch a degree, that they neither plough nor ſow, but leave their ground totally uncultivated; neither will they ſeek for provender either by hunting or fiſhing, till they are compelled to it from mere neceſſity. It hath been obſerved, that when they have been tranſported to more moderate climates, they have ſoon died, though in their own country they live to a great age. It is no uncommon thing to ſee a Laplander, upwards of an hundred years of age, hunting, fowling, ſkaiting, and performing all the ſevereſt exerciſes with the moſt aſtoniſhing agility.

Their houſes, or rather huts, are made of pieces of timber, or rafters joined together, and covered with turf, or the branches of pine-trees and coarſe cloth. Some of them are built upon trees to prevent their being overwhelmed with ſnow, and to ſecure them from the wild beaſts. Their huts have two doors, at the leſſer of which no woman muſt enter, becauſe from thence the men go to hunt; and ſhould they meet the woman at going out, it would be conſidered as a bad omen. They have no other chimnies than a hole at the top of their huts, which ſerves to let the ſmoak out, and the light in. Their ſtorehouſes are built in trees, to ſecure their proviſions from bears and other wild beaſts.

Their dreſs in ſummer conſiſts of a cloſe garment, reaching to the middle of the legs, and faſtened round the waiſt with belts. They have not any linen, and their cloaths are made of coarſe wool, of a dark grey colour. The richer ſort have their cloaths of various colours, but red is the moſt univerſally eſteemed. At their girdles they hang a Norway knife and a pouch, the latter of which contains flints, matches, and tobacco, with other neceſſaries; the girdle itſelf being decorated with braſs rings and chains. Their night-caps are made of the ſkins of the bird-loom, with the feathers on; and their ſhoes of the ſkins of rein-deers, with the hair outwards. In winter they are totally caſed up in coats, caps, boots, and gloves, made of the rein-deer's ſkin, with the hair inwards. The women's apparel differs but little from that of the men: they hang to their girdles many rings, chains, toys, and knives, with a needle caſe, and other trifles. Their thread is made of the ſinews of rein-deer; and in winter they lie in their ſkins. In ſummer they all cover themſelves at night with large pieces of coarſe cloth, to ſecure them from being ſtung by the flies and gnats.

The Laplanders make all their own furniture; their boats, their ſledges, and their bows and arrows. The boards with which they make their boats are faſtened together with twigs, the nerves of rein-deer, or the ſmall roots of trees twiſted together like ropes; and they caulk them with moſs to keep out the water. They make boxes of their birch planks, which they neatly inlay with the horns of rein-deer; and they are very dextrous at making baſkets of the roots of trees, ſlit in long thin pieces, and twiſted together. Some of theſe are made ſo neat that they will hold water; and they are particularly admired by the Swedes.

Theſe articles are made by the men, who alſo perform the office of cook, by dreſſing victuals for the family. The women are employed as taylors and embroiderers; they make cloaths, ſhoes, and boots, and harneſs for the rein-deer: they ſpin thread with fur, and knit it into caps and gloves, which are very ſoft and warm: they likewiſe draw tin into wire through a horn, and with this they cover their thread, which they uſe, in embroidering on their caps and girdle, the figures of beaſts, flowers, trees, ſtars, &c.

The mountaineers live chiefly on the fleſh and milk of the rein-deer; the former of which they dry, and from the latter they make great quantities of cheeſe. Thoſe who live in the low country feed on veniſon and fiſh. They have neither bread or ſalt; but inſtead thereof uſe the inner rind of the pine-tree, dried and ground, and dried fiſh reduced to powder. They make broth of fiſh and fleſh boiled together; and their uſual drink is water heated in a kettle, which in winter hangs continually over the fire: but their greateſt dainty is bear's fleſh, which they eat on all particular feſtivals. On theſe occaſions likewiſe they indulge themſelves with brandy, and never think themſelves ſo happy as when they can enjoy a pipe of tobacco. Theſe commodities the better ſort purchaſe at Norway, as alſo a few cows and ſheep for their winter ſtore. They make decoctions of berries, angelica, and ſorrel, which they are not only fond of, but alſo deem them excellent preſervatives againſt all ſcorbutic diſorders.

Beſides their domeſtic buſineſs, the Laplanders employ themſelves in hunting, in which excurſions they travel through the ſnow with aſtoniſhing expedition. They wear a pair of ſkaits, or ſnow ſhoes, which are made of fir boards, covered with the rough ſkin of the rein deer: one of theſe is uſually as long as the perſon who wears it, but the other is about a foot ſhorter. The feet are placed near the middle, and the ſhoes are faſtened to them with ſtrings, or thongs made with the ſinews of the rein-deer. When the Laplander travels in this manner he carries a long pole in his hand, near the end of which is a round ball of wood; and this not only ſecures him from penetrating too deep into the ſnow, but alſo enables him to ſtop himſelf when occaſion requires.

A Laplander will travel in his ſnow ſhoes at the rate of ſixty miles a day without being fatigued. But the moſt expeditious method of traveling in this country is with a ſledge drawn by rein-deer. This carriage, which is called by the natives pulkha, is made in the form of a ſmall boat, with a convex bottom, that

that it may ſlide the more eaſily over the ſnow: the head of it is ſharp and pointed, but the hinder part is quite flat. The traveller ſits, or rather lays with his back againſt the end of the ſledge, and holds a ſtick in his hand, with a large wooden ball at the end of it, with which he diſengages the ſledge from ſuch obſtructions as he may happen to meet with in the courſe of his journey. He muſt likewiſe take care properly to ballance the carriage with his body, otherwiſe he will be ſubject to be overturned. The traces, by which the ſledge is faſtened to the rein-deer, are fixed to a collar about the animal's neck, and run down over the breaſt, between the fore and hind legs, to be connected with the prow of the ſledge; the reins are tied to the horns, and the trappings are furniſhed with little bells, the ſound of which is very pleaſing to the animal. The rein-deer is ſo fleet that he will run with his carriage upwards of 100 miles a day. Before a Laplander ſets out on his journey, he whiſpers in the ear of the animal the way he is to go, and the place at which he is to halt, from a perſuaſion that the beaſt underſtands his meaning; but, in ſpite of this intimation, he frequently ſtops ſhort, and ſometimes overſhoots the mark by ſeveral miles.

Though this method of travelling is exceedingly expeditious, yet it is far from being eaſy, the perſon being continually in a confined poſture; neither is it exempted from the moſt imminent danger, on account of the uncertainty of the roads, and the driſts of looſe ſnow, which, if the wind blows high, are driven about with incredible fury.

As ſoon as the winter commences, the Laplanders mark the moſt frequented roads by ſtrewing them with fir-boughs. Indeed, theſe roads are no other than path-ways made through the ſnow by the rein-deer and ſledges; their being frequently covered with new ſnow, and alternately beaten by the carriage, conſolidates them into a kind of cauſeway, which is the harder if the ſurface has felt a partial thaw, and been cruſhed by a ſubſequent froſt. It requires great caution to follow theſe tracks; for if the carriage run either on one ſide or the other, the traveller is thrown into an abyſs of ſnow. In leſs frequented parts, where there is no ſuch beaten road, the Laplander directs his courſe by certain marks which he has made on the trees; but, notwithſtanding all his caution, the rein-deer very often ſinks up to his horns in ſnow; and ſhould a hurricane ariſe, which is ſometimes the caſe, the traveller would be in great danger of his life, were he not provided with a kind of tent, to ſcreen him in ſome meaſure from the fury of the tempeſt.

The rein-deer in winter is rather weak and diſpirited, ſo that he cannot travel with the ſame alacrity as in ſummer. In this ſeaſon the traveller is obliged to halt at different times, that the animal may reſt himſelf; and in theſe intervals be fed with a kind of cake made of moſs and ſnow, which ſerves him both for drink and provender.

The principal employment of the Laplanders, excluſive of their domeſtic affairs, conſiſts in hunting and fiſhing. Thoſe who practiſe the latter have ſmall boats, ſo lightly conſtructed that they can carry them on their ſhoulders, which they frequently do, when interrupted on the rivers by whirlpools or cataracts. The boats are of different ſizes, from two to ſix yards in length, managed with oars, and caulked with moſs ſo tight, as effectually to keep out the water. They ſteer with amazing rapidity, even among the rocks, and down the moſt rapid water falls; but when they go againſt the ſtream, and meet with a cataract, they take out their boat, and carry it on their ſhoulders till they have paſſed it, when they launch it again, and renew their buſineſs.

The Laplanders who employ themſelves in hunting, perform it various ways. In ſummer they hunt wild beaſts with ſmall dogs trained to the diverſion. In winter they purſue them by their tracks upon the ſnow, ſkaiting with ſuch velocity that they frequently run down their prey. They catch ermines in traps, and ſometimes with dogs. They kill ſquirrels, martens, and ſables, with blunt darts, to avoid injuring the ſkins. Foxes and beavers are killed with ſharp pointed darts and arrows, in ſhooting of which they are accounted the beſt markſmen in the world. The larger beaſts, ſuch as bears, wolves, elks, and wild rein-deer, they either kill with fire arms, or elſe enſnare by digging pits in thoſe parts where they moſtly reſort.

They have particular laws relative to the chace, which they obſerve with great punctuality. The beaſt becomes the property of the man in whoſe ſnare or pit he is caught; and he who diſcovers a bear's den has the excluſive privilege of hunting him to death. The conqueſt of a bear is the moſt honourable atchievement that a Laplander can perform; and the fleſh of this animal they think more delicious than that of any other whatever. The bear is always diſpatched with a fuſil, ſometimes laid as a ſnare, ready cocked and primed; but more frequently by the hands of the hunter, who runs the moſt imminent danger of his life, ſhould he miſs his aim.

The killing a bear is celebrated by the Laplanders with great rejoicings. The carcaſe is drawn to the cabin, or hut of the victor, by a rein-deer, which, on this account, is afterwards kept a whole year without doing any work. The bear is ſurrounded by a great number of men, women, and children, who recite a particular ſong of triumph, in which they thank the vanquiſhed enemy for having allowed himſelf to be overcome, without doing any miſchief to his conqueror: after this they addreſs themſelves to Providence, acknowledging the ſingular benefits they receive from his having created beaſts for their uſe, and endowed them with ſtrength and courage to attack and overcome them. The conqueror is ſaluted by the women, and is feaſted by the men of the village for three ſucceſſive days; beſides which, he is ever after diſtinguiſhed from the reſt, by having laces round his cap, wrought with tin ware.

The marriage ceremonies of the Laplanders are very remarkable and ludicrous. When a young man has made choice of a female, he employs ſome friends as mediators with the girl's parents; and theſe being provided with ſome bottles of brandy, the ſuitor accompanies them to the hut of his intended father-in-law, who invites the mediators to enter: but the ſuitor is left without, until the liquor be drank, and the propoſal diſcuſſed. After this he is called in, and entertained with ſuch fare as the hut affords, but without ſeeing his miſtreſs, who, on this occaſion, is obliged to retire. The ſuitor having at length obtained leave to make his addreſſes to the girl in perſon, he goes home, puts on his beſt attire, and then returns to the hut, when his miſtreſs appears, and he ſalutes her with a kiſs; after which he preſents her with the tongue of a rein-deer, a piece of beaver's fleſh, or ſome other kind of proviſion. The girl at firſt declines the offer, it being made in the preſence of her relations; but at the ſame time ſhe makes a ſignal to the lover to follow her into the fields, where ſhe accepts the preſents. Thus encouraged he begs permiſſion of her to let him ſleep with her in the hut; if ſhe conſents, ſhe keeps the preſents; but if not, ſhe throws them with contempt upon the ground. When the lovers are agreed, the youth is permitted to viſit his miſtreſs as often as he thinks proper; but every time he comes he muſt purchaſe this pleaſure with a freſh bottle of brandy, a perquiſite ſo agreeable to the father, that he often poſtpones the celebration of his nuptials for two or three years. At length the ceremony is performed at the neareſt church, by the prieſt of the pariſh; but even after this, the huſband is obliged to ſerve his father-in-law a whole year, at the expiration of which he retires to his own habitation with his wife, and then receives preſents from all his relations and friends. From this time he ſequeſters his wife from the company of all ſtrangers of the male ſex, and watches over her conduct with great vigilance.

When a lover goes to pay a viſit to his miſtreſs, during his journey through the fenny moors, he uſually diverts himſelf with a ſong, which he addreſſes to his rein-deer. We ſhall preſent a tranſlation of one of theſe from the original taken from the Spectator, for the entertainment of the reader. The circumſtances that ſucceſſively preſent themſelves to him during his journey, are naturally interwoven. The anxiety of abſence, the gloomineſs of the roads, and his reſolution of frequenting them, as thoſe only carry him to the object of his wiſhes; the diſſatisfaction he expreſſes even at the great ſwiftneſs with which he is carried, and his joyful ſurprize at the unexpected ſight of his miſtreſs, as ſhe is bathing, are all beautifully deſcribed in the following compoſition.

Haſte, my rein-deer, and let us nimbly go
Our am'rous journey thro' this dreary waſte;
Haſte, my rein-deer! ſtill, ſtill thou art too ſlow;
Impetuous love demands the light'ning's haſte.

Around us far the ruſhy moors are ſpread;
Soon will the ſun withdraw his chearful ray:
Darkling and tir'd we ſhall the marſhes tread;
No lay unſung to cheat the tedious way.

The wat'ry length of theſe unjoyous moors,
Does all the flow'ry meadow's pride excel;
Thro' theſe I fly to her my ſoul adores;
Ye flow'ry meadows, empty pride, farewel.

Each moment from the charmer I'm confin'd,
My breaſt is tortur'd with impatient fires.
Fly, my rein-deer, fly ſwifter than the wind;
Thy tardy feet wing with my fierce deſires.

Our pleaſing toil will then be ſoon o'erpaid,
And thou, in wonder loſt, ſhalt view my fair;
Admire each feature of the lovely maid,
Her artleſs charms, her bloom, her ſprightly air.

But lo! with graceful motion there ſhe ſwims,
Gently removing each ambitious wave;
The crowding waves tranſported claſp her limbs.
When, when, oh when ſhall I ſuch freedoms have!

In vain, ye envious ſtreams, ſo faſt you flow,
To hide her from a lover's ardent gaze;
From ev'ry touch you more tranſparent grow,
And all reveal'd the beauteous wanton plays.

To this we ſhall ſubjoin a Laplander's love-ſong, the original having been procured from a native of Lapland. The tranſlation is the performance of a nobleman deceaſed, whoſe genius, politeneſs, and literary accompliſhments, were the admiration of all the courts in Europe.

Source of my daily thoughts, and nightly dreams,
Whoſe captivating beauties I adore,
O may the radiant ſun's refulgent beams,
Shine on the charms of lovely *Orra Moor*.

I'd clime the ſummit of the lofty pine,
Could I my *Orra Moor* at diſtance view;
No labour, danger, care would I decline,
To ſee my charmer, and to find her true.

Could ſhe be waſted to terreſtrial bow'rs,
And there in pleaſant ſhades induc'd to ſtay;
Or range enamell'd fields of ſweeteſt flow'rs,
Charm'd by the birds that warble on each ſpray.

Enrag'd, thoſe pretty birds I would deſtroy,
Pluck up the flowers that beautify the fields,
Cut down the bow'rs that rob me of my joy,
And from my view my *Orra's* beauties ſhields.

O that I could but ſoar unto the ſky,
And wing my paſſage through the ambient air,
Swift as the feather'd race could I but fly,
I'd ſoon be with my captivating fair.

But vain, alas! my wiſhes are in vain;
No ſtork or raven will a pinion lend:
Fated to feel unmitigated pain,
With ſcarce a hope my paſſion to befriend.

So long my bliſs can *Orra Moor* delay?
Reflect, the ſummer's ſun now brightly gleams:
Short are our ſummers; haſte, then haſte away,
And, with thy love, enjoy his glad'ning beams.

Alas! unkindly you delay the time;
Our ſhort-liv'd ſummer wears away apace:
You've tortur'd me, and dally'd with your prime,
'Till frowning winter ſhews his rugged face.

Still, ſtill my lovely charmer I'll purſue,
And ſcorn all danger to reveal my pains;
For what can love, all-pow'rful love ſubdue!
He laughs at tempeſts, and deſpiſes chains.

Love! mighty victor, triumphs o'er mankind,
Brings ev'ry thought beneath his own controul,
Enſlaves the heart, puts fetters on the mind,
And captivates the haughty human ſoul.

But hark! ſtern reaſon whiſpers in my ear,
Friend, you are wrong, thus to pour oil on fire;
Raſhly to follow what you ought to fear,
And ruſh into a whirlwind of deſire.

A thouſand things adviſe you to deſiſt,
A thouſand dread examples bid you view
The fate of thoſe whom love's deluſive miſt
Hath ſilly blinded, ſadly to undo.

Reaſon, avaunt! to paſſion I ſubmit,
And will not hear thy diſimpaſſioned tone:
Others thy thouſand counſellors may ſit,
But I'll attend the voice of love alone.

As ſoon as a child is born in Lapland, it is waſhed all over with ſnow or cold water, except the head, which muſt not be touched with water till after the child has been baptized. The woman does not remain in childbed above four or five days, and in fourteen is generally quite recovered. She then carries the child to be baptized; but before ſhe can reach the reſidence of the prieſt, ſhe is often obliged to traverſe large foreſts, mountains, lakes, and wide extended waſtes of ſnow. The infant is faſtened in a hollowed piece of wood, ſtretched naked on a bed of fine moſs, covered with the ſkin of a young rein-deer, and ſlung by two ſtraps to the back of the mother, who always ſuckles her own child. At home this little cradle is hung to the roof of the hut, and the child is lulled to ſleep by ſwinging it from one ſide to the other.

When the children grow up, their parents are very careful in teaching them moſt kinds of work; but they have a great averſion to ſchools. The boys, from their infancy, are taught to practiſe the bow; and they are not allowed to break their faſt till they have hit the mark. The female children are early initiated in the buſineſs peculiar to their ſex.

The Laplanders have not any phyſicians among them; neither have they, indeed, occaſion for any, not being ſubject to thoſe diſtempers common in other countries. The diſorder they are moſt ſubject to is ſore eyes, occaſioned by the ſmoke of their huts, and the fire to which they are almoſt continually expoſed. They are ſometimes afflicted with rheumatic pains, and the ſcurvy; and a few are ſubject to the vertigo and apoplexy. To cure all inward diſorders they uſe a drink made with the root of a certain ſpecies of moſs, which they call *ferth*; and when that cannot be procured, they boil the ſtalk of angelica in the milk of rein-deer. When they feel a pain in any part of the body, they take a kind of muſhroom, which grows upon the birch tree like a cake, and having ſet fire to it, apply it, burning hot, to the part affected; and this produces a bliſter, which is ſuppoſed to draw off the peccant humour. They have no other plaiſter for wounds but the roſin which drops from fir-trees. When they have any

any limb frozen, they put a red-hot iron into a cheese made of rein-deer's milk, and with the fat that drops from it, like a kind of oil, they rub the part affected, which by that means is almost instantly cured.

When a Laplander is supposed to be on his death-bed, such friends as are advocates for the Christian religion, give him Christian exhortation. But those who have no great zeal for the Christian religion, forsake the dying person, and think of nothing but the funeral entertainment. As soon as the breath is out of the body, most of the company leave the hut, being of opinion they shall receive some injury from the spirit or ghost, which they believe remains with the corpse, and takes all opportunities of doing mischief to the living. The deceased is wrapped up in linen or woollen, according to his circumstances, and deposited in a coffin by a person selected for that pupose; but this office he will not perform till he receives a consecrated brass ring, which is placed on his left arm, and which he imagines secures him against receiving any injury from the ghost of the deceased.

Before the Laplanders embraced the Christian religion, they used to bury the dead in the first place they happened to think of, which they still do when they are very far from any church. Many of them also preserve the rites of heathenish superstition; for with the body they put in the coffin an axe, a flint and steel, a flask of brandy, some dried fish, and venison. With the axe the deceased is supposed to hew down the bushes or boughs that may obstruct him in the other world; the steel and flint are to furnish him with a light, should he find himself in the dark; and the provision is for him to subsist on during his journey.

Before the body is carried to the place of interment, the friends of the deceased kindle a fire of fir boughs near the coffin, and express their sorrow in tears and lamentations. They walk in procession several times round the body, demanding in a whining tone, the reason of his leaving them on earth. They ask whether he was out of humour with his wife? whether he was in want of meat, drink, cloathing, or other necessaries? and whether he had not succeeded in hunting or fishing? These, and other such interrogations, are intermingled with groans and hideous howlings; and between them the priest sprinkles the corpse and the mourners alternately with holy water. After these ceremonies are over, the body is conveyed to the place of interment, in a sledge drawn by a rein-deer, and followed by the friends and relations, who shew their concern for the loss of the deceased, by dressing themselves in the worst garments they have, and keeping a continual howl during the procession. As soon as the ceremony is over, the people retire; and the sledge, with the cloaths which belonged to the deceased, are left as the priest's perquisite. Three days after the funeral, the relations and friends of the defunct are invited to an entertainment, where they eat the flesh of the rein-deer which conveyed the corpse to the grave. The animal being made a sacrifice to the manes of the deceased, the bones of it are collected together, put into a basket, and interred with great ceremony.

The effects of the deceased are divided between the brothers and sisters, the former having two-thirds, and the latter one; but the lands, lakes, and rivers, are held jointly by all the children of both sexes, according to the division made by Charles IX. of Sweden, when he assigned a certain track of land for the support of each family.

The language of the Laplanders is altogether barbarous, and varies in different parts of the country, according to the correspondence which the natives maintain with the different nations; such as Norwegians, Swedes, Finlanders, and Russians. The greater part of them are totally ignorant of letters; and the same may be said also of the arts, except such as necessity has taught them to make use of for their own preservation.

SECTION III.

Religion, Government, Trade, Revenue, &c.

CHRISTIANITY was first supposed to have been introduced into Lapland about the year 1300. However, no material progress was made in the establishment of it till the last century, when missionaries were sent for that purpose from Norway, Sweden, and Russia. Several churches were built in different parts of the country, and supplied with ministers from Sweden and Russia. Gustavus Adolphus founded two schools, one in the province of Pitha, and the other in that of Ulma, for instructing the children of the Laplanders in the Christian religion and in letters. He also ordered several pious books to be translated from the Swedish into the Lapland language; such as the catechism, with some prayers, and the manual, containing the psalms of David, the proverbs of Solomon, &c. That they might be encouraged to send their children to school, an annual revenue was allotted for the maintenance of the scholars. Hence Lapland produced some preachers, which greatly promoted the knowledge of Christianity in that country; for, heretofore, their clergy having been Swedes, whose language the people did not understand, it could not be reasonably supposed that they should profit much by their instructions. Since that time, however, many have intermixed idolatry with the pure profession of Christianity, and, from local customs, their particular fondness for omens, particular times and seasons, distinguished by the names of black and white days, &c. &c. retain many of their former superstitions.

They have some notion of the doctrine of the transmigration of souls; for they not only respect the manes of their departed relations and friends, but dread them as being mischievous, till they imagine the spirits of the defunct have re-animated other bodies. They believe there are fairies that wander about among the rocks, mountains, rivers, and lakes, and give them also a share of their devotion. They own one Supreme Being, whom they arm with thunderbolts; they make the rainbow his bow, and have the same notion of him that the old Pagans had of their Jupiter. They have another subordinate deity, to whom they acknowledge they owe all the blessings of life, and never fail to worship him. The sun is another of their divinities, because of his influence on the bodies of men and beasts. They have temples and images consecrated to each of their gods. Their idols are either the trunks of trees rudely carved, or of stone. One of these is preserved in the royal cabinet of antiquaries at Upsal. All their women are excluded from worship. They anoint the idol with the heart's blood of the sacrifice; and when they cannot reach the top of a mountain consecrated to Storjunkar, one of their deities, they dip a stone in the blood of the sacrifice, throw it up to the mountain, and so conclude their devotion.

The Laplanders were formely deemed great magicians, and the credulous supposed them to be mightily skilled in divination. So excessively credulous, indeed, are these poor Laplanders, and so preposterously in favour of their conjurors, that they implicitly follow their directions. If these pretended vizards tell them, that on such a day they shall take plenty of fish or game, they will not fail to go out that day; and as there is most commonly abundance of both in this country, they usually verify the prediction, by coming home loaded whenever they go out in search of game. And if the wizards mark another day as unfortunate, they infallibly make it so, by not going abroad in quest of any thing.

The three powers to which Lapland is now subject, depute different governors, or prefects, to preside over their respective districts. The Laplanders, however, had kings of their own till the year 1277, when the Swedes conquered part of the country, and the Russians

ſians and Norwegians ſoon after followed their example, and ſubdued the reſt.

In Swediſh Lapland, which is the moſt conſiderable diſtrict of the three, the laws of Sweden are obſerved; and three tribunals, or courts of juſtice, are erected: one for Angermanland Lapmark; a ſecond for Uma, Pitha, and Lula Lapmark; and the third for Torno and Kimi Lapmark; in each of which courts there is a preſect, who determines all cauſes. They adminiſter juſtice in the king's name, and in the preſence of the prieſt.

The Laplanders, who live near the mountains which part Norway from Sweden, trade with the inhabitants of thoſe countries. Such as are at a greater diſtance from thoſe mountains trade only with the Swedes; and thoſe who are ſituated towards the north and eaſt, trade with the Ruſſians and Finlanders. The commodities they receive from thoſe nations are rix-dollars, woollen ſtuffs, linen, copper, tin, flour, ſalt, hides, needles, knives, ſpirituous liquors, and eſpecially tobacco, of which they are extremely fond. They give, in return, rein-deer and fiſh, of the latter of which they take ſuch large quantities, that they ſtock whole reſervoirs with them, and put them afterwards into barrels, which they carry to the neighbouring countries; namely, the north of Bothnia, and White Ruſſia. They alſo trade in fine ermines, the ſkins of ſeveral wild beaſts, dried pikes, and cheeſe made of the milk of their rein-deer.

The tribute paid by the Laplanders, conſiſted formerly in ſkins of wild beaſts; but now they conſiſt in a certain coin, rein-deer, and in ſkins, either dreſſed for certain uſes, or raw; and are proportionable to the extent of land poſſeſſed by each head of a family. The largeſt are ſtiled entire territories, or territories of a full tribute; and the owner is obliged to pay yearly two rix-dollars, in coin, to the crown of Sweden. They who poſſeſs a territory, or land of half a tribute, pay only one rix-dollar. But as it happens very often, that many of them have no rix-dollars, they are allowed to give ſkins of foxes or ſquirrels inſtead of coin. Fifty ſquirrel ſkins, or one fox's ſkin, with a pair of ſhoes, after the faſhion of Lapland, are valued at one rix-dollar: beſides which, every head of a family is obliged to give yearly a white fox's ſkin, or a pair of ſhoes; and if he cannot procure thoſe things, he muſt give half a pound of dried pikes. Part of theſe taxes are employed for the maintenance of the prieſts who live in that country, to inſtruct the Laplanders. The inhabitants of the other diſtricts of Lapland trade much in the ſame commodities; and pay the revenues in a ſimilar manner to the reſpective ſtates to which they are ſubject.

CHAP. III.

NORWAY.

SECTION I.

Situation. Extent. Boundaries. Deſcription of a tremendous Whirlpool called the Moſkoeſtrom.

NORWAY, Norwegia, or Nordway, ſo called in different languages, from the vicinity of its ſituation to the north pole, lies between 57 and 72 deg. north lat. and between 4 and 15 deg. eaſt long. ſo that it extends about 5 deg. 30 min. within the polar circle. The length, from Lindaſnoes, in the dioceſe of Chriſtianſand, to the North Cape, at the extremity of Finmark, is about 1000 miles. Its breath, from the frontiers of Sweden weſtward, to the Cape Staff, is better than 300 miles; but from thence the country narrows towards the north, and becomes much leſs in different parts. On the north and weſt this country is bounded by the Northern Ocean; on the eaſt it is divided from Sweden by a long ridge of high mountains; and on the ſouth it is bounded by the Schagenrack, or Cate-Gate, which is the entrance into the Baltic Sea. The coaſt extends near 400 leagues, and is ſurrounded by many iſlands, which afford paſture for cattle and is inhabited by fiſhermen.

The barriers of rocks and narrow channels formed by theſe iſlands, render Norway inacceſſible to naval attacks. Nor is the North Sea the leaſt impediment; for it is extremely difficult to navigate, contains many dangerous hidden rocks, and is ſubject to the moſt violent ſtorms. But, above all, the terrible currents, and dreadful whirlpools, are great objects of fear to thoſe who navigate theſe ſeas.

The principal of theſe whirpools is called the Moſkoeſtrom, or vulgarly the Malſtrom, receiving this appellation from the ſmall iſlands of Moſkoe and Moſkoenas, between which it is ſituated. This current runs ſix hours from north to ſouth, and returns from ſouth to north the ſucceeding ſix hours, like the ebbing and flowing of the ſea, but in direct oppoſition to the motion of the tides: for, during the flood, which runs from ſouth to north, the Moſkoeſtrom runs from north to ſouth; and during the reflux, or ebb, when the ſea runs from north to ſouth, this current impetuouſly returns from ſouth to north. It runs with ſurpriſing rapidity, eſpecially between the iſland Moſkoe, and the extremity of the iſland Moſkoenas, where the tides riſe higheſt; but gradually abates its impetuoſity as it approaches the iſlands of Werroe and Roſt.

The Moſkoeſtrom never runs in a direct line like other currents, but whirls about in a circular manner. For when it is half flood in the ſea, the current here runs to the ſouth-ſouth-eaſt: as the tide riſes it winds ſouthward, then proceeds towards the ſouth-weſt, and afterwards due weſt. As ſoon as it is high water the current runs on to due weſt. When it is high water out at ſea, the current of the Moſkoeſtrom alters its courſe to the north-weſt, aud ſo gradually on to the north, where its impetuoſity is at a ſtand for about three quarters of an hour. This interval is obſerved twice a day, after which the motion begins again. The appearance and effects of the Moſkoeſtrom have been deſcribed as very dangerous and dreadful; but, it muſt be owned, not without ſome exaggeration. A curious obſerver, who has ſeen it, relates, that it has no whirlpool or vortex, but that it is formed by the colliſion of an aſſemblage of foaming waves, riſing, as it were, pyramidically to a great height, and with a prodigious noiſe. According to Schelderup's account, the Moſkoeſtrom is full of vortices, or terrible whirlpools, in the form of inverted cones, and about two fathoms deep from the baſe to the apex, or ſummit, and, as ſome relate, four fathoms in diameter. However, both accounts may, in ſome meaſure, be reconciled. This is certain, firſt, that the Moſkoeſtrom is not agitated with equal violence at all times; that about the new and full moon, the equinoxes, or in ſtormy weather, it rages with the greateſt impetuoſity; and that at other times it is more moderate, and twice a day quite calm. Secondly, that the navigation in that part of the ſea is not abſolutely impeded by it, as at half flood a veſſel can ſafely go from Moſkoenas to Werroe or Roſt, and at half ebb may ſafely return to Moſkoenas. Thirdly, that the ſtreight betwixt Moſkoenas and Werroe is twice a day quite ſmooth and navigable for three quarters

ters of an hour: and laſtly, that the inhabitants of thoſe iſlands accordingly row in their boats to Moſkoe, which lies in the middle of it, to look after their ſheep, which feed on that iſland, and the fiſhermen found the bottom of it. After theſe intervals, the ſwiftneſs of the current gradually increaſes to its uſual boiſterous rapidity and violence. Sometimes the waves in this current are not larger than thoſe that are ſeen at ſea in a hard gale of wind; but when its agitations are at the height, ſhips that ſail on either ſide of it, keep at the diſtance of two or three Norway miles, otherwiſe they would be abſorbed by it, and entirely deſtroyed. It is diſcernable, indeed, at a great diſtance at ſea, and even within a quarter of a Norway mile of the continent; but this does not render the ſea unnavigable at ſuch a diſtance; for large veſſels and ſmall barks ſail very ſecurely within half a league of the Iſland of Werroe. This phenomenon does not proceed from any cavern or abyſs under the water, but from its impetuous oppoſition to the current of the tides, and the colliſion of the waves.

An eminent navigator, and Fellow of the Royal Society, in the year 1769, informed that learned body, in a letter, that, during the time of his being in the North Seas, he made particular enquiries concerning the Moſkoeſtrom, without being able to obtain any ſatisfactory information, till he met with the maſter of a Norwegian veſſel, who, being a very intelligent perſon, gave him the following account: That at high water it is perfectly ſmooth, and ſafe to paſs over; but as the tide, either at ebb or flood, gathers ſtrength, it becomes in proportion exceedingly agitated and dangerous; which extreme agitation and whirling the navigator imputes to the unevenneſs of the rocky bottom, over which the current rolls with vaſt rapidity, being confined in a narrow paſſage: for this Norwegian told him, that, at very low water, pointed rocks, reaching above the ſurface, have been ſeen between the iſlands. It is no wonder then that ſuch veſſels may have been turned upſide down, as have been drawn by the tide, in its moſt rapid ſtate, into this gulph. The ſimple agitation of the water would ſufficiently account, indeed, for the loſs of open boats. This relation unravels, in ſome meaſure, the myſtery of the Norwegian whirlpool; and ſeems to be confirmed by the following circumſtances, related by a learned gentleman, from the concurrent teſtimonies of others. "The ſurface exhibits different vortices, and if in one of them any ſhip or veſſel is abſorbed, it is whirled down to the bottom, and daſhed to pieces againſt the rocks. Theſe violent whirlpools continue without intervals, except for a quarter of an hour at high and low water in calm weather; for the boiling gradually returns as the flood or ebb advances. When its fury is heightened by a ſtorm, no veſſel ought to venture within a league of it. Whales have been frequently abſorbed within the vortex, and howled and bellowed hideouſly in their fruitleſs endeavours to diſengage themſelves. A bear, in endeavouring to ſwim from Loafden to Moſkoe, was once hurried into this whirlpool, from whence he ſtruggled in vain for deliverance, roaring ſo loud as to be heard on ſhore; but notwithſtanding all his efforts, he was borne down and deſtroyed. Large trees, being abſorbed by the current, are ſucked down, and riſe again all ſhattered into ſplinters."

SECTION II.

Climate. Rivers. Soil. Mountains. Productions, Vegetable, Animal, Mineral, &c.

THE climate of this country is extremely different, according to the ſituation of the different parts. At Bergen, and its vicinity, the winter is remarkably moderate. On the eaſtern parts of the kingdom it ſets in about the middle of October, and continues till towards the latter end of April with uncommon ſeverity, during which time the ſurface of the country in thoſe parts is covered with ſnow, and the waters are all frozen. On the mountain of Ruden, or Tydal, in this diſtrict, a moſt dreadful affair happened in the year 1719. A body of Swedes being ordered to attack Drontheim, attempted to paſs this mountain for that purpoſe, but being overtaken by a violent ſtorm of ſnow and hail, they were bewildered and overwhelmed; and by thus having their march impeded, upwards of 7000 men, many officers, and the generals Labarre and Zoega, miſerably periſhed. They were ſoon after found frozen to death by a body of 200 Norwegian ſledgemen, under the command of Major Emahus, who diſcovered theſe unfortunate victims to the ſeverity of the weather in various poſtures, ſome ſitting, ſome prone on the earth, and others in a praying attitude. It appeared, that, in order to preſerve their lives as long as poſſible, they had cut to pieces their muſkets, and burned the wood they afforded them.

The northern parts of Norway are ſtill more intenſely cold during the winter; but the ſummer is always warm, and often exceſſively hot, throughout moſt parts of the kingdom. By the reverberation of the ſun's beams from the ſides of the mountains, the weather in the vallies is rendered ſultry. Add to this, that the ſun is ſo very ſhort a time below the horizon, that the atmoſphere and mountains have not hours enough to become cool. Hence vegetation is remarkably quick; and the ſummer, by rendering vegetation exceedingly expeditious, ſeems to make ſome amends for the horrors of winter.

The longeſt day at Bergen conſiſts of 19 hours, and the ſhorteſt of 6. In the beginning of the ſummer the light increaſes with vaſt rapidity, and declines with equal celerity at the commencement of winter, which phenomenon are owing to the earth's inclination towards the pole. At the northern extremity of Norway the ſun is, for a conſiderable time, continually in view, keeping always above the horizon, circulating daily round the pole, and gradually enlarging and contracting his orbit, until he at length quits that hemiſphere. When this happens, all the light perceived at noon, for ſome weeks, is but very faint; and a winter's day can at beſt be deemed but a glimmer; but, happily for the inhabitants, the portion of time called night, is brighter than that denominated day; for what with the exceſſive glare of the moon, ſtars, aurora borealis, or northern lights, &c. the atmoſphere is ſufficiently illuminated to admit of their following their ordinary occupations at midnight, without the aſſiſtance of any artificial lights.

The air of Norway is, in general, healthy, except towards ſome parts of the ſea-coaſt, where the moiſt exhalations are hurtful. Indeed, ſome perſons, of conſumptive diſpoſitions prefer ſuch ſituations, on account of the greater eaſe with which a moiſt atmoſphere acts on the lungs in reſpiration.

The great number of rivers, lakes, creeks, ſprings, &c. with which Norway abounds, and the melting of the ſnow in ſummer time, occaſion frequent rains, which often cauſe floods. But the inhabitants are expoſed to the greateſt evils from ſudden thaws, and the vaſt quantities of ſnow and ice which are thereby looſened from mountains and precipices, and overwhelm, in their fall, men, cattle, houſes, boats, and even ſometimes whole villages and hamlets. Somewhat more than two centuries ago, a whole pariſh, near Hardanger, was deſtroyed by the fall of a prodigious maſs of ſnow. This being converted into ice ſtill accumulated, and afterwards formed a frozen mountain, beneath which a rivulet ran through a kind of ſubterraneous paſſage, and, for ſome time, its waters frequently brought with them many of the utenſils and fragments of the pariſh which had been ſo unfortunately overwhelmed.

The northerly winds here are the freezing winds; the ſoutherly bring warmth; the eaſterly winds are ſtormy, and the weſterly partake of the nature of trade winds, particularly on the coaſt of Bergen. It muſt be imagined

gined that the ſeas near this country are ſubject to a variety of ſqualls, hurricanes, &c. Indeed they are frequently dreadful Nor is the dangerous phenomenon of the water-ſpout uncommon.

The freſh water of Norway is heavy and impure, full of particles of iron and ochre; yet it is not ſo unhealthy, or unpleaſant, as might be imagined.

The principal rivers of this country are the Nied, Sule-Ely, Gulen, Offeroen, Syre, Nid, Sheen, Tyrefiord or Drammoe, Laven, Glaamen or Stor-Elven. Of theſe rivers all the circumſtances worth remarking are, that the river Gulen, in the year 1344, buried itſelf under ground, from whence it again burſt forth with ſuch violence, that the earth and ſtones thrown up by the eruption filled a valley near it, and formed a dam, which afterwards burſt, through the force of the water, and occaſioned the deſtruction of ſeveral churches, 48 farm-houſes, and 250 perſons. That the rivers Nid and Sheen have had their paſſages diverted by immenſe labour, and canals cut through the rocks for the convenience of navigation, and the greater facility of tranſporting timber to various places. And that the river Glaamen is the largeſt in Norway.

The chief freſh water lakes of Norway are Ryſvand, Shaaſen, Selboe, the greater and leſſer Mioes, Sluievand, Sperdille, Rand and Veſten, Saren and Modum, Lund, Norſoe, Huidſæ, Fariſyand Oeyavand.

"Wars (ſays an ingenious writer) have been maintained on theſe inland ſeas, in ſome of which are ſmall floating iſlands, or parcels of earth with trees on them, ſeparated from the main land, and probably preſerved in compact maſſes by the roots of trees, ſhrubs, and graſs, interwoven in the ſoil. In the year 1702 the family ſeat of Borge, near Frederickſtadt, a noble edifice, with lofty towers and battlements, ſuddenly ſunk into an abyſs 100 fathoms in depth, which was inſtantaneouſly filled with a piece of water, forming a lake 300 ells in length, and about half as broad. Fourteen perſons, with 200 head of cattle, were deſtroyed by the river Glaamen precipitating itſelf down a water-fall near Sarp, and undermining the foundation. Of all the water-falls in Norway this of Sarp is the moſt dangerous, from its height and rapidity. The current drives ſeventeen miles, and roars along with ſuch violence, that the water, daſhed and comminuted among the rocks, riſes in the form of rain, and, when the ſun ſhines, continually exhibits a beautiful rainbow. In ancient times this cataract was uſed for the execution of traitors and other malefactors. They were thrown down alive, that they might be daſhed in pieces on the points of rocks, and die in a dreadful commotion, analogous to thoſe they had endeavoured to excite in the community.

The ſoil of rocky, mountainous, and low ſituations, muſt differ materially of courſe. The mountains of Norway are bare and barren; but the ſoil waſhed down from them by torrents of ſnow and rain, greatly increaſe the worth of the vallies, by fertilizing them to a prodigious degree. The earth conſiſts of unequal ſtrata of black mould, ſand, loam, chalk and gravel; the former, which lies uppermoſt, being extremely rich, and fit to nouriſh all kinds of vegetables. In ſome parts of the kingdom clay is found, of which a tolerable kind of earthen-ware is made. Thoſe parts which are deformed by ſwamps and marſhes, are exceeding dangerous to travellers. A narrow wooden cauſeway, in the dioceſe of Chriſtianſand, is extended above a mile over one of theſe ſwamps; in paſſing which, if either man or horſe make a falſe ſtep, it is certain deſtruction.

The Norwegian mountains are aſtoniſhingly high, dreadful to travel over, and tremendous to behold. That ſtupendous chain of mountains which extends through Norway from north to ſouth, and is indifferently called Rueſield, Sudeſield, Skarsfield, and Scareberg, receives different appellations at different parts. In particular, the principal names of the reſpective diviſions of this chain are Doſreſield, Lamsfield, Sagnefield, Tilefield, Halneſield, Hardangerfield, Jocklefield. Byglefield, Hicklefield, and Hangfield. The height and breadth of the whole vary as this extenſive chain runs. That part called Doreſield is ſuppoſed to be higher than any other mountain in Europe. In ſome places a traveller goes about ſeventy, and in others leſs than fifty miles, to paſs the hugh ſummit of this aſtoniſhing chain. Bridges are thrown over many dreadful cataracts, and other tremendous vacancies; and ſome of theſe are but very indifferently faſtened to the ſteep rocks on the other ſide.

The road over that part called Tilefield, is named the King's, or Poſt Road; and, as guides, poſts are fixed all the way, at the diſtance of 200 paces, to direct the traveller. This road extends 50 miles; and the only place of refreſhment throughout the whole, are two houſes, or mountain ſtoves, as they are called, which are maintained, at the public expence, for the reception of travellers, as well as furniſhed with kitchen utenſils, firing, &c.

Imagination cannot conceive, or language expreſs, more diſmal ſcenes than preſent themſelves to thoſe who paſs theſe dreary mountains. Continually ſurrounded by dangers, and perpetually beholding ſpectacles of horror, the moſt hardy traveller muſt ſhudder, the moſt courageous be aſtoniſhed, and the more timid be abſolutely terrified.

There is a ſingle defile, by which a perſon may go from Sweden to Nordensfield, without paſſing this chain, that is, where the whole is interrupted by a very long and deep valley, extending from Romſdale to Guldbranſdale. In the year 1612 a body of 1000 Scots, commanded by Sinclair, and ſent over as auxiliaries to the Swedes, were put to the Sword, in this defile, by the peaſants of Guldbranſdale, who neve give quarter to any whom they deem foes.

Independent of this aſtoniſhing chain of mountains, there are a great number of others detached over the face of the whole country, and exhibiting a great variety of uncommon appearances. The vaſt mountains and rugged rocks that deform the face of this country, are productive of numberleſs inconveniences. They admit of little arable ground. They render the country impaſſable in ſome parts, and every where difficult to travellers. They afford ſhelter to wild beaſts, which come from their lurking holes, and make terrible havock among the flocks of cattle.

They expoſe the ſheep and goats, as well as the peaſants, to daily accidents, in falling over precipices. They occaſion ſudden torrents and falls of ſnow, that deſcend with incredible impetuoſity, and often ſweep away the labours of the huſbandman. They are ſubject to dreadful eruptions, by which huge rocks are rent from their ſides, and, being hurled down, overwhelm the plains with inevitable ruin.

The peaſants frequently build their houſes on the edge of a ſteep precipice, to which they muſt climb by ladders at the hazard of their lives: and when a perſon dies, the corpſe muſt be let down with ropes before it can be laid in the coffin.

In winter the mail is often drawn up the ſides of the mountains; and even in the King's road travellers are expoſed to the frequent riſks of falling over thoſe dreadful rocks; for they are obliged to paſs over narrow pathways, without rails, or riſing on the ſides, being either ſhored up with rotten poſts, or ſuſpended by iron bolts, faſtened in the mountains. In the narrow paſs of Naeroe is a remarkable way of this kind, which upwards of ſix centuries ago, King Suerre cauſed to be made, with great pains and labour, for the paſſage of his cavalry.

Similar to the laſt mentioned road is another difficult and dangerous way between Vaug and Shogſtadt: it winds by the ſide of a ſteep mountain, and, in many parts, is ſo narrow, that if two travellers ſhould meet in thoſe places, they would find it impracticable either to paſs each other, or turn their horſes; ſo that they muſt both inevitably periſh, unleſs one conſents to throw his horſe

horſe down the precipice, and then cling cloſe up to the rock till the other paſſes him.

When a ſheep or goat falls down a rock, the owner hazards his life to regain his animal. For which purpoſe he is let down tied to the end of a long rope, and fitting a-croſs a ſtick, when he gets to the bottom, he faſtens the creature to the ſame cord, and thus both are drawn up together. Sometimes the rope breaks, and at other times the aſſiſtants above are dragged down from the top, when all fall down the precipice, and uſually periſh together.

When a man or horſe fall from a very high precipice, it has been obſerved that the breath is not only ſtopped, by the repercuſſion of the air, but the body always burſts before it reaches the ground.

The trees of Norway conſtitute a very principal part of its trade and commerce. Beſides the vaſt quantities uſed at home in building houſes, bridges, piles, moles, fences, ſhips, boats, &c. very large ſums are received for firs and pines exported to various parts. The floating maſts and large beams down the rivers, and dividing other timber into boards at the ſaw-mills, employ a vaſt number of hands, and contribute greatly to the revenue; for a tenth of all ſawed timber appertains to his Daniſh majeſty.

The ploughed lands in Norway, with reſpect to thoſe parts which are mountainous, boggy, and covered with foreſts, is only as one to eighty; it cannot, therefore, be ſuppoſed, that the kingdom produces near a ſufficiency of grain to ſupply the inhabitants. Peas, hops, hemp, flax, &c. are cultivated in ſome parts, but to no conſiderable advantage: the paſturage of the meadows, however, is rich, and nutritive to cattle.

The Norwegians formerly had garden-ſtuff, pot-herbs, &c. imported from England and Holland: for ſome years paſt, however, they have paid ſuch attention to the cultivation of thoſe articles, that they can now ſupply themſelves.

Here are many wild plants, the infuſion of one of which ſome of the inhabitants drink in the manner of tea, and deem it an admirable pectoral.

As the ſcurvy is a prevailing diſorder in Norway, nature hath bountifully ſupplied that country with a profuſion of antiſcorbutic herbs, ſuch as angelica, roſe-wort, gentian, creſſes, trefoils, ſorrel, ſcurvy-graſs &c. But to counterbalance theſe conveniences, Norway abounds with many nauſeous and poiſonous herbs and plants, that are prejudicial both to men and cattle.

And admirable graſs, called viola camina, grows here, and which was rendered particularly famous by having, in the year 1652, contributed, in a moſt aſtoniſhing manner, to the preſervation of two Norway youths. The ſtory of this tranſaction is as follows:

Two brothers, on the firſt day of Auguſt, in the ſaid year, made an excurſion of about ſeven leagues from their father's houſe, to take their pleaſure in hunting, ſhooting, fiſhing, &c. After having enjoyed the diverſion of fiſhing for the ſpace of four days, in the lake Riſſ, they rowed, in a ſmall ſkiff, to a very ſmall iſland on the ſaid lake. While they ſtaid here a ſudden ſquall of wind occaſioned the ſkiff to break looſe, and drive to the ſhore, where their dog ſtood waiting for them.

As neither of the youths could ſwim, they ſaw themſelves ſuddenly abandoned to famine, on a deſolate iſland, and ſequeſtered from all intercourſe with mankind. Their firſt care was to build a kind of hut, with ſmall ſtones, that they might, in ſome degree, be ſcreened from the inclemency of the weather. Towards the cloſe of the ſecond day, their appetites being whetted to the keeneſt ſenſe of hunger, they induſtriouſly ſought ſome vegetable food, and ventured to eat the viola camina, each to the amount of an ounce twice a day; and this was all that they could find at one ſearch. Their ſtomachs were eaſed, their ſpirits refreſhed, and the acute pains which had begun to ſeize their arms and ſhoulders immediately abated. Eleven days did they ſubſiſt on this vegetable, but it failed on the twelfth, and they were reduced to the brink of deſpair; when they accidentally found a little ſpot overgrown with ſorrel, which they conſumed at one meal: nevertheleſs it was re-produced in leſs than twenty four hours, and the devout young men, with tears of gratitude to heaven, owned it as an interpoſition of Providence in their behalf. During the firſt days of their ſuffering they had called and beckoned to their dog, and uſed every poſſible allurement to induce that animal to ſwim over, that they might kill him for their ſubſiſtence, but he would not obey their ſignals. They were now reduced to ſuch a weak condition that they could not ſtand, and could hardly make ſhift to creep from their hut in queſt of the ſorrel. The eldeſt was ſeized with a violent palpitation of the heart; and the youngeſt carved their names, and a ſhort account of the ſad accident they had met with, upon a piece of timber, pointing out, at the ſame time, a text from the pſalms, on which he requeſted that their funeral ſermon might be preached. Then having joined in fervent prayer, they embraced each other, and became perfectly reſigned to their approaching fate.

In the mean time their dog, having tarried eight days with their baggage on the ſhore, returned to their father's houſe, where he refuſed food, and inceſſantly moaned in a moſt diſmal manner: hence the parents concluded that their ſons had met with ſome misfortune, and diſpatched a man in ſearch of them. The meſſenger arrived at the lake, found their baggage, and concluding they were drowned, returned with the melancholy tidings. On the thirteenth day of their being on the iſland, and after having reſigned every hope of relief, they heard the trampling of horſes feet, and exerting their utmoſt efforts, they called out loud enough to be heard. The travellers immediately came to the ſhore, and, having found the ſkiff, humanely put off to the iſland, where they found the brothers almoſt exhauſted. The eldeſt, when food was offered him, could ſcarce bear the ſmalleſt portion; and, after being conveyed to his father's houſe, remained for ſome time in great danger; but at length recovered, and ſurvived this diſaſter thirty-ſeven years. The younger recovered his ſtrength ſomewhat ſooner, and afterwards drew up this narrative as a pious acknowledgement of God's providence.

Common fruits grow tolerably well here; but the ſuperior ſort but very indifferently. Norway, however, produces a great variety of excellent berries, ſuch as juniper-berries, ſun-berries, gooſe-berries, barberries, cranberries, coriander-berries, raſp-berries, black-berries, bilberries, ſtrawberries, &c.

With reſpect to the ſtones of Norway, they have a brown pebble, which eaſily decays; black, white, blue, grey, and variegated marble; alabaſter, chalk-ſtone, cement-ſtone, ſand-ſtone, mill-ſtone, baking-ſtone, load-ſtone, ſlate, talc, amianthus or aſbeſtos, ſwine-ſtone or a kind of cryſtal, real cryſtals, granates, amethyſts, agates, various kinds of ſpars, thunder-ſtones, and eagle ſtones. The eagle-ſtone is very ſingular, and ſeems to conſiſt of ſeveral ſhells, or cruſts, laid one over another: but that which diſtinguiſhes it from all others is its being hollow in the inſide, in which cavity there is another ſtone that is ſmaller. This, when it is ſhook, may be heard to rattle. It is of various colours, as white, grey, dun, or brown. Modern authors mention only three ſorts of this ſtone; the firſt of which is rough on the outſide, and is of different colours, but commonly of a black dun. This makes a very diſtinct noiſe when rattled. The ſecond is of an aſh colour, and contains a ſort of marl in the inſide, which is ſometimes white, yellow, red, or blue. The outſide is rough and ſandy, and ſeems to conſiſt of the particles of flint. A third is of ſeveral colours, but has the like contents as the former. The firſt kind is no larger than a peach-ſtone, but the other two are often as large as a man's fiſt. Theſe ſorts of ſtones are found in moſt parts of the country.

This

Metals and minerals abound in Norway. Iron is found in great plenty, and was the firſt metal ever worked in the country. Great quantities are annually exported, partly in bars, and partly in cannons, ſtoves, pots, kettles, &c. the national profits of which are very conſiderable. There is one ſpecies called moor-iron, found in large lumps in moraſſes, and of this many domeſtic tools and utenſils are made for home conſumption. The lead mines are deemed of little importance, but the copper mines are thought ineſtimable. Of the latter are four of a capital nature, viz. That of Roaas, ſituated about 100 miles from Drontheim. The copper works at Lykken, about 20 miles from Drontheim. Theſe are very conſiderable though inferior to the former. The mine at Indſet, about 30 miles from Drontheim, where the copper is precipitated from its menſtruum by the means of iron. The copper works at Selboe, which is the leaſt conſiderable of the four.

In the dioceſe of Chriſtianſand gold has been found, but not in any conſiderable quantities. At Kongſberg is a very valuable ſilver mine, the ore of which is admirable. Large maſſes of pure ſilver have been found, among which one piece, weighing 560 pounds, is ſtill preſerved in the Muſeum at Copenhagen. The value of the ſilver annually obtained from this mine, is equivalent to the value of a ton and a half of gold; and the works employ, and give ſubſiſtence to, great numbers of perſons. At Jarlſberg other ſilver mines are worked, but not to equal advantage, for this reaſon, that the ore is blended with lead and copper. At Kongſberg a vitriol-work is eſtabliſhed; and many parts of the kingdom yield ſulphur and allum Salt is likewiſe made here, and turns to very conſiderable advantage.

The quadrupeds of Norway are horſes, black cattle, ſheep, goats, hogs, dogs, cats, &c. The horſes are ſmall but ſwift, hardy and ſpirited. The black cattle are of a diminutive breed, but their fleſh is tender, delicate and juicy: and the cows yield plenty of milk. The fleſh of the ſheep is delicious, and the fleeces profitable. The goats are very ſtrong, exceeding hairy, and their ſkins are much valued. Few hogs are reared here, but dogs are numerous of various kinds, and uncommonly ſerviceable: and the ſkins of cats both wild and tame, bear a great price, being uſed for winter garments.

The wild animals of Norway are the elk, rein-deer, hare, rabbit, bear, wolf, lynx, glutton, lerning, ermine, marten, and beaver.

The elk is a tall, aſh-coloured animal, bearing ſome reſemblance both to the horſe and ſtag. It hath long legs, flat horns, and cloven hoofs. It is of a harmleſs diſpoſition: the fleſh taſtes like veniſon, and the hide is tanned into ſtrong leather.

The rein-deer has already been deſcribed.

The hares are ſmall, and change their colour with the ſeaſons, being brown in ſummer, and white in winter; but the rabbits reſemble thoſe which are common in England.

The bear here is, by ſome, reckoned of the cat kind. While his hair is on, he is a very ugly creature; but when he is ſtripped of his ſkin, he, in ſome degrees, reſembles the human form. This reſemblance conſiſts chiefly in the length of the thighs, in which he is quite different from other brutes; and he has five toes oppoſite to the heel. The bones on the wriſts are alſo like thoſe of a man; but the thumbs are not ſeparated from the reſt of the fingers as in a man, and are placed on the contrary ſides. Likewiſe the great toe on the foot is placed outwardly. In treading the bear does not touch the ground with his heel, for which reaſon it is covered with hair like the leg. Likewiſe the fingers of the fore paw are of a bad formation, being thick, and ſet cloſe to each other.

The wolves in Norway traverſe in troops the immenſe foreſts, thick woods, and lofty mountains, and make terrible devaſtations, devouring every creature they can conquer: they likewiſe aſſail the ſmall hamlets, break into the farmers yards, and do incredible miſchief.

Wolves and bears in Norway are afraid of the ſound of a horn, on which account ſhepherds, ſhepherdeſſes, farmers, travellers, &c. always take care to ſupply themſelves with ſuch ſonorous inſtruments, in order to drive away thoſe deſtroyers from their flocks and herds.

Various methods are taken, and ſnares laid, to deſtroy wolves: they are ſhot, poiſoned, blown up with trains of gunpowder, taken in pits dug in the ground, and covered over with boughs, ſhot with ſpring-guns, &c. When any perſon digs a pit in order to entrap wolves and bears, he is obliged by law to give intimation of it through the whole diſtrict, leſt any traveller, or other perſon, ſhould, by accident, paſs that way, and fall into it.

The lynx, called, in Latin, lupus cervarius, which, in Engliſh, is a wolf-hart, has been ſuppoſed to be of the ſhape of a wolf, and the colour of a hart. Others have thought that it was engendered between a wolf and a leopard, which is a great miſtake, for he is nothing like a wolf; and that in which he reſembles a leopard and a hart, is ſo common to many other animals, that it is very probable he has the name of lupus cervarius, becauſe he purſues the harts in the ſame manner as a wolf does a ſheep.

The muzzle of a lynx is not long and pointed like a wolf, but blunt and ſhort like a cat, and the length of his head is about ſeven inches, his neck four, and his body twenty-four inches, without including the tail, which is eight in length. His height, from the extremity of the fore feet to the top of the back, is twenty inches; and from the bottom of his hind feet to the upper parts of his buttocks, twenty-three. He has five claws on the fore foot, and four on thoſe behind. Each toe is armed with long, crooked, ſharp claws, which are ſometimes concealed like thoſe of a cat.

The back is of a reddiſh colour, ſpotted with black; and the belly, and the inſide of the thighs, are of a grey aſh-colour, ſpotted likewiſe with black, but in a different manner; for the ſpots on the belly are larger, not quite ſo black, and more diſtant from each other, than thoſe on the back, legs, and paws, whoſe outſides are reddiſh. However, all the hair is of three different colours; for the root is of a greyiſh brown, the middle red, or of an aſh-colour, and the ends white. But this whiteneſs at the ends takes up ſo ſmall a part of the hair, that it is no hindrance from ſeeing the principal colour, which is that in the middle; and it only makes the ſurface of the body appear as if it was ſilvered over.

The glutton is not larger than a turnſpit dog, and is ſhaped very much like him. His ſkin is beautifully variegated, and has a moſt admirable luſtre like damaſk; being ſo fine and precious that he is ſhot with blunt arrows, that the ſkin may not be injured. This animal is ſo ravenous, and hath ſuch an inſatiable appetite, that he will devour a carcaſe nearly as big as himſelf When he is ſo overgorged as to be quite uneaſy to himſelf, he ſearches out two trees that grow near together, and ſqueezes himſelf between them till he exonerates his ſtomach; and during this operation he is ſo ſick that his fierceneſs ſubſides, and he may be eaſily taken.

The lerning, or Norway mouſe, is, in ſhape, like a common mouſe, or rather like a dormouſe, only his tail is leſs; he is about five inches in length, and covered with thin hair of various colours. Theſe creatures do great miſchief in paſtures and corn-fields; and when they die, they infect the air in ſuch manner that it cauſes dangerous diſeaſes.

The ermine, or hermelin, is a kind of weazel, and uſually reſides in the clifts of rocks, or among a heap of ſtones. It is all over white, except the end of the tail, which is black. It is greyiſh about the eyes, and there is a ſpot of the ſame colour in the middle of the head, as alſo between the ſhoulders, and on the tail. However, the colour varies according to the ſeaſon of the year, being white in winter, and brown in ſummer. None are ignorant of the high eſteem in which the ſkin of this little animal is held throughout all Europe. It is the ſofteſt and

and the moſt beautiful of all furs; but then it loſes its beautiful whiteneſs by age, and turns of a yellow or cream colour. It feeds upon rats, mice, moles, and ſuch like; but it is remarkable in thoſe kept in cages, that they will never touch any kind of fleſh until it be putrid.

The marten is of the ſize of a cat, but ſomewhat longer. The ears are ſhort, broad, and roundiſh; the eyes ſhine in the night like thoſe of a cat, and the noſe is ſomewhat prominent; the upper jaw is blunt, the tongue long and ſmooth, and covered with ſharp papillæ, but they are ſoft, and the points are turned backwards. The teeth are very white, unequal and rough; and it has whiſkers like thoſe of a cat: the feet are divided into five toes, and are hairy all over; they are united half way by a membrane, and what is called the great toe is the ſhorteſt, and at a diſtance from the reſt. The tail is covered with long hair, which makes it ſeem thicker than it really is.

In ſome places the common marten delights to be among buildings, ſuch as caſtles, churches, barns, haylofts, ſtacks of woods, pigeon-houſes, and the like. He is a great enemy to domeſtic fowls and pigeons, and will kill a great number whenever he can come at them. He is alſo very fond of eggs, and will carry them from one place to another without breaking. The dung is ſaid to have a muſky ſmell, by which means their haunts may be found out. Martens ſleep in the day time, and go abroad in the night in queſt of their prey. They are hunted in ſome places by a ſort of dogs, that ſeem to be deſigned by nature for that purpoſe. Perhaps they may be the ſame as our fitchet dogs, ſo called from their hunting the pole-cat, or fitchet. Theſe animals are hunted for their furs, which are very valuable, and they are in ſeaſon in the beginning of the winter.

The fleſh of the marten is ſaid to be good eating. In ſome places they make uſe of the dung as a perfume; and ſome pretend it is good to diſſolve the ſwelling of the glands. The gall, when mixed with fenel-water, is recommended to take out ſpots in the eyes.

Some authors diſtinguiſh martens into two kinds, the domeſtic marten with a white throat, and the wood-marten, that is to be found in the foreſts conſiſting of ſmall trees, in which they make their neſts, much in the ſame manner as ſquirrels. This may be known from the former in having a yellow throat, and the fur on the reſt of the body more of a fallow colour. Some call it the golden marten, and its ſkin is much more valuable than that of the other.

Beſides the before mentioned animals, Norway is productive of foxes and ſquirrels. The ſkins of the foxes are greatly valued, their fur being either white, red or black; but the latter is the moſt eſtimable. The Norway foxes have the common character for cunning which the foxes of other countries have; nor do the ſquirrels ſeem to be behind hand with them in point of ſagacity.

The reptiles and inſects of this country are both various and numerous.

The weſt wind brings many inſects that greatly hurt vegetation; and the waters are productive of inſects that are exceedingly injurious to the fiſheries, by deſtroying the fiſh. The moſt particular of the latter is the little ſea-horſe, which exceeds nine inches in length; and, in the head, ſnout, and mane, is ſomewhat like a horſe. It is about the thickneſs of a man's thumb, and the body is full of clefts and furrows. The ſnout is a ſort of tube, with a hole at the bottom, to which there is a cover that he can open and ſhut at pleaſure. The upper part of the body ſeems to have ſeven ſides; but below the vent it reſembles a figure conſiſting of four ſides. The eyes are ſmall and prominent, and between them are two high tubercles. The tail ends in a point, and is generally very much bent. Behind the eyes, where the gills are placed in other fiſh, there are two fins which look like ears, and above them are two holes; but there are no gills, either outwardly or inwardly. The whole body ſeems to be compoſed of griſtly rings, on the intermediate membranes of which ſeveral ſmall prickles are placed. Their colour is a dark green, but towards the tail inclining to black. The belly is marked with ſpots of a whitiſh blue. It is taken in the Mediterranean, and alſo in the Weſtern Ocean.

Norway abounds in moſt of the fowls and birds common to, and well known in, European countries.

The ſea-coaſts are overſpread with innumerable flights of Aquatic fowls, that build their neſts, and hatch their young, among the cliffs, rocks. neighbouring iſlands, &c. and feed on fiſhes, inſects, and ſea-weeds, Among theſe are aſtoniſhing numbers of wild-ducks, geeſe, and alks: the latter are peculiar to the country, build in the moſt inacceſſible rocks, fly in ſuch numbers as even to darken the air, and, with their wings, make a ſurpriſing noiſe, that ſomewhat reſembles the riſing of a tempeſt. Many other birds build in the cliffs and mountains, though not in ſuch vaſt numbers; and the Norwegian peaſants, who reſide near the ſea coaſts, are employed, at a certain ſeaſon of the year, in climbing the rocks at the moſt imminent danger of their lives. But their ſkill and intrepidity, in general, ſurmount every obſtacle; and the birds they make prize of are to them very valuable, as the fleſh and eggs furniſh them with food, and the down and feathers ſell to great advantage. An ingenious writer, in ſpeaking of the Norwegian methods of bird-catching, ſays, "In ſome of the Nordland diſtricts, the farmers train dogs to ſpring the ſhore, and ſtrand birds from their holes, which are almoſt inacceſſible. Theſe are auxiliaries to the bird-men or climbers, who either ſcramble up the face of perpendicular rocks, with moſt aſtoniſhing courage and dexterity, or they are lowered down by ropes, ſometimes above 100 fathoms over projecting precipes. Some of the birds will allow themſelves to be ſeized in their neſts; others are taken in a net fixed to the end of a pole, which the bird-man applies to the mouths of the holes from whence they take their flight. In climbing up the rocks two bird-men tie themſelves together with a rope of a moderate length. The firſt being puſhed up by the other's pole to a proper ſtanding-place or projection, fixes himſelf to the rock, and the ſecond clambers up, aſſiſted by the rope that is tied round the waiſt of his fellow. In this manner they proceed alternately, till they arrive at the birding places. But ſometimes, in ſpite of all their ſkill and precaution, one ſlips, and dragging the other after him, both periſh. Some perſons alſo loſe their lives yearly in the other operation of deſcending from the ſummits; looſe fragments of the rock being moved in the deſcent, ſometimes fall upon and kill the bird-man; and ſometimes the rope being cut by the ſharp-pointed ſtones, he is precipiated and daſhed to pieces among the rocks.

Two of the Norwegian birds are known by the names of the north-wind-fowl and ſouth-wind-fowl: the former is of a grey colour, ſmaller than a ſtarling, and makes a very uncommon noiſe previous to the blowing of the north wind; and the latter never appears in Norway but as the fore-runner of a ſouth wind; hence they both receive their appellations.

The trier, or cock of the wood, is the principal of the game fowls, and the largeſt of all the eatable birds in the country; it reſembles a wild Turkey-cock in the bill and feet, has black or dark grey feathers, and red round the eyes.

The Norwegian eagle is of two ſpecies, the water and land eagle. The water eagle is the largeſt, and lives chiefly on the produce of the ſeas and rivers. The land eagle preys upon land animals, ſuch as ſheep, hares, lambs, kids, &c. Independent of which he kills many birds, and has ſometimes been known to deſtroy children.

About the latter end of autumn the Norway ſwallows try to conceal themſelves among the reeds and buſhes in freſh-water lakes, where they remain all the winter

in a ſtate of inſenſibility, and revive again in the ſpring. The peaſants and fiſhermen frequently find whole flocks of them in this benumbed condition, coupled together, with their legs and bills entangled. If brought into a warm apartment they feel the enlivening warmth, and in about half an hour's time, begin to move; ſoon after they flutter, and even begin to fly about; but, within the ſpace of an hour, they drop down dead; which is owing to their being prematurely waked from their lethargy, or revivified before the natural time.

The Norwegian ſeas abound with fiſh, among which is a ſpecies of the ſhark called haac-mœren, which is ten fathoms in length, and whoſe liver is ſo fat as to yield three caſks of train oil.

The helleflynder is a prodigious large kind of turbot, which, upon various occaſions, appears to have exhibited ſymptoms of revenge againſt mankind.

The whalebone, or blubber-whale, which we have already deſcribed in our account of Greenland, is likewiſe found in the Norwegian ſeas, as are great numbers of ſperma-cæti whales.

In January, 1762, a ſperma-cæti whale was brought into Greenland dock by a trading veſſel. Thoſe who were concerned in taking it, give the following account of this fiſh, and the manner in which they killed it.

As they were going through the Hope they ſaw ſomething floating at a diſtance, which appeared to them like the maſt of a ſhip; but as they approached it, they diſcovered it to be a large fiſh, and, upon ſeeing it caſt up a great quantity of water, concluded it was a whale. They chaced him aſhore below the Hope-Point, and went off to him in their boats. He ſeemed a motionleſs lump, his head and tail being concealed in the water. They firſt pierced the prominent parts; and, having dug a hole twelve inches deep, a great torrent of blood iſſued forth. Upon this they withdrew to a diſtance, and ſoon after the boat had paſſed him (as the water was deep enough over his tail) he ſtruck the ground with ſuch violence as to force up ſtones and mud to a great height in the air. They waited about three quarters of an hour, and then he expired with the moſt horrible groans. After this they faſtened a cable to his body, and at laſt brought him to Greenland-dock where he was ſeen by ſeveral thouſands of people.

They took out of his head eight puncheons of ſperma-ceti, which lay between the eyes and the ſpout-hole, in different cells in the brain. Its extreme length was 54 feet, and its breadth 14; the lower jaw was 10 feet, and the length of the penis eight; the tail meaſured 15 feet.

Amongſt a valuable collection of curious anatomical figures in this metropolis is the ſkeleton of a whale of this kind. Thoſe who ſhew this curioſity ſay, that it will contain thirty people in its head, and fifty in its cheſt; and that twelve hogſheads of ſperma-ceti oil were taken out of its upper jaw, or rather that part of the head above it, which was entirely compoſed of fleſh and oil.

This whale was thrown aſhore on the Iſle of Thanet, Feb. 2, 1762, and meaſures, from the ſnout to the tail-fin, 72 feet. The upper jaw, which appears to be one ſolid bone, is 16 feet long, and ſix broad at the top, where it is wideſt, and from whence it grows narrower to the end of the ſnout, which terminates in a point. Along the middle of it runs a deep round groove, through which is ſucked up the water, which he afterwards diſcharged at the ſpout-hole. From the top of this jaw proceeds a large thick bone, which turns upwards almoſt perpendicularly to the height of about four feet, and forms, as it were, part of a kind of ſkull. The under jaw is not near ſo wide as the upper, herein being juſt the reverſe of the toothleſs whale. At the diſtance of about eight feet from the ſnout it divides and becomes forked, in order to receive in the cavity a protuberance of the upper jaw, which ſeems exactly to fit it. This jaw had two rows of teeth. The upper jaw has no teeth; but, inſtead therefore, there is a groove or ſocket to receive thoſe of the lower; ſo that, when the mouth was ſhut, they muſt have reſembled ſo many pointed weapons in a ſheath. The ſockets of the eyes, which are of an oval form, and placed almoſt at the further part of the jaws, meaſure about eighteen inches over. Hence what is told us by ſome writers, that the chryſtalline humour of the eye in this fiſh is not bigger than a pea, muſt appear to common reaſon as a fable; for we muſt not ſuppoſe that nature is ſo unequal in her proportions. Beyond the ſockets of the eyes are the two fin bones, which are very thick, five feet long, and two feet three inches in the broadeſt part. There are eleven ribs on each ſide, the largeſt of which is ten inches in circumference. The ribs form a cavity eight feet wide within the body of the fiſh, and in which were contained the heart, lungs, &c. The back-bone is at much the ſame diſtance from the floor, by which the ribs are ſupported. The back bone, which is three feet ten inches thick, (meaſured in the round part only, for the upper part of it is cloſely ſet, throughout the whole length of it, with ſpinal bones, like thoſe of a hog) and the tail fins, which extends about 15 feet, compoſe the reſt of this ſkeleton.

Though many parts of this ſkeleton ſeem much decayed, probably owing, in a great meaſure, to the injuries it muſt have unavoidably received in being removed from place to place, it is nevertheleſs highly worthy the attention of thoſe who delight in natural curioſities. The particulars, as related above, were lately taken by one of the authors of this work.

Seals abound about the coaſt of Norway, they reſide in caverns and rocks in the ſea, but go on ſhore twice a year, to bring forth their young. They are eaſily killed by the fiſhermen, who ſtrike them over the noſe with large ſticks; after which the fat is ſtead off with the ſkin; the latter being ſprinkled with ſalt, and rolled up ſingly, and the former depoſited in caſks for train oil.

The ſea ſcorpion is a fiſh about four feet long, with a head larger than the whole body, of a hideous aſpect, wide mouth, enormous jaws, and ſmall ſcales, of a reddiſh colour. Its bite is poiſonous, and it is an exceeding voracious creature.

The ſea devil is about ſix feet in length, but the head makes full one half of the fiſh. The body ſuddenly tapers into a ſharp-pointed tail; the eyes are large, and the jaws wide and horrible, ſet with different rows of ſharp teeth; the tongue is likewiſe furniſhed with a kind of teeth, or ſharp protuberances, ſo that the bite is terrible; and all round the under jaw, which projects beyond the upper, there are hanging ſlips, or griſtly furs, of about four inches in length. This fiſh is extremely voracious, deſtroying innumerable other fiſhes of various ſpecies and ſizes; and if he can ſeize upon a man that is bathing, he is ſure to kill and devour him.

Salmon ſwarm in theſe ſeas, are caught in great quantities, and highly eſteemed all over Europe.

The ſalmon is a very beautiful fiſh, and is every where in great eſteem. The female may be diſtinguiſhed from the male, by having a longer and more hooked ſnout, in having ſcales that are not quite ſo bright, and having its body ſpeckled over with dark brown ſpots. Likewiſe the belly is flatter, the fleſh is more dry, and not ſo red; nor yet is the taſte ſo agreeable.

The fleſh of this fiſh is not ſo red when boiled, as when raw or ſalted. It is tender, flaky, and luſcious; for which reaſon it ſatisfies ſooner, and is harder of digeſtion, though generally preferred to that of other fiſh. About the time of ſpawning it grows more inſipid, and loſes a great deal of its lively colour. Some begin to be out of ſeaſon about the beginning of July, and others much later; which may be known by their falling away, their loſing their beautiful ſpots, and by their colour; inſomuch, that when they are quite out of ſeaſon, they look like fiſh of a different kind.

The ſalmon-fry, called, in ſome parts, a ſalmon-ſmelt, is by moſt thought to be the offspring of a ſick-

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ly ſalmon, which has been forcibly detained from viſiting the ſalt water: it is agreeable enough to the eye, though its taſte is very ordinary and inſipid. The ſalmon chuſes the river for its abode about ſix months in the year, entering the freſh water about February or March, in ſome places, where they continue to the autumnal ſeaſon, at which time they caſt their ſpawn, and ſoon after return to the ſea. In general the ſalt water contributes moſt to their growth, and the freſh renders them fat.

When the time of ſpawning comes, the female makes a hole in a gravelly bottom, like a kind of neſt, of her own dimenſions; which done, ſhe diſcharges her ſpawn and retires. Then the male, or milter, advances and covers the ſpawn with its belly, emitting at the ſame time, a whitiſh fluid like milk. After this the female returns, and they both endeavour to cover their brood with gravel, in which they work with their noſes like hogs.

They then return to the deep to recover their ſtrength, which, they uſually do in about twenty days.

The ſalmon has different names, according to its different agaes, being in the firſt year called ſmelts, in the ſecond ſprods, in the third morts, in the fourth forktails, in the fifth half fiſh, and in the ſixth, at which time they are thought to have attained their proper growth, they are judged worthy of the name of ſalmons. When they are largeſt they weigh near forty pounds.

The herring is from ſix inches to a foot in length. That which diſtinguiſhes this fiſh from all others, is a ſcaly line that runs along the belly from the head to the tail. The colour on the belly and ſides is of a ſhining ſilver; beſides, the ſcales are large, and come regularly off. It has no ſpots, and the belly is ſharp like a wedge, with red eyes The ſcales are large in proportion to the body.

A herring dies immediately after it is taken out of the water, whence the proverb ariſes, "As dead as a herring." The fleſh is every where in great eſteem, being, fat, ſoft, and delicate, eſpecially if it be dreſt as ſoon as caught; for then it is incomparably better than on the next day. There are vaſt quantities of theſe fiſh taken, ſalted, ſmoak-dried, and conſumed all over Europe.

Herrings are diſtinguiſhed into ſix differents ſorts; as the fat herring, which is the largeſt and thickeſt of all, and will keep longer than any; the meat herring, which is likewiſe large, but not ſo thick or ſo fat as the former; the night herring, which is of a middling ſize; the pluck, which has received ſome damage from the nets; the ſhotten herring, which has loſt its roe; and the copſhen, which by ſome accident or other, has loſt its head.

Theſe uſeful fiſhes annually viſit the weſtern coaſt of Norway in ſuch amazing ſwarms as to exceed all belief. The innumerable ſhoals that emerge from their ſhelter under the ice, towards the north pole, divide themſelves into three bodies, about the latitude of Iceland. One of theſe directs its courſe weſtward, ſteering round the Hebrides, and coaſt of Scotland, towards Newfoundland; the ſecond ſteers towards the coaſt of Great Britain; and the third, coaſting about Norway, paſſes the Sound into the Baltic.

The herring and cod are driven in great ſhoals upon the coaſt of Norway, by the great herring whales; who, not daring to venture in among the rocks, or between the iſlands, remain about ſix weeks on the back of the great ſand-bank parallel to the ſhore, extending about 30 miles in length, in order, as is ſuppoſed, to watch the return of the ſhoals. But though the herring whale is thus ſtopped in his purſuit, the ſharks, porpoiſes, and other ſmaller fiſhes of prey, can eaſily enter between the channels, and among the rocks near the ſhore, and theſe continue the purſuit in ſuch a manner, as to drive the cods and herrings into every little creek and inlet, and even to the very margin of the water; ſo that innumerable quantities may be eaſily taken. Several hundred ſhip loads of pickled herrings are yearly exported from Bergen only, beſides the great quantity conſumed at home by the common people.

The largeſt and fatteſt herrings appear upon the coaſt from Chriſtmas to Candlemas, at which ſeaſon the country people aſſemble upon the ſhore in great numbers, with their boats, caſks, ſalt, fiſhing-tackle, &c. In the compaſs of one mile near 300 boats are daily employed, for a month together, in fiſhing. The nets are about 20 feet in length, and, in each, the fiſhermen will often catch near 5000 herrings. The fatteſt and beſt are pickled for exportation; but the worſt ſort are conſumed in the country. The cod, ling, kabelian, and forſk, are caught in ſtrong nets of 400 fathoms in length, in 50 or 60 fathom water: then being pickled with French or Spaniſh ſalt, or dried by various methods, they are, in general, exported to Bremen, Hamburgh, Amſterdam, &c. The Norwegian cod and herring fiſheries employ and maintain an incredible number of people.

The ſea produces a great variety of ſhell-fiſh. Of theſe the moſt particular are the pearl-muſſel, the right of which fiſhery appertains to the King of Denmark, and is carried on at his expence. The pearls which are taken annually about Midſummer, become the property of the queen, as part of the regalia of Norway; and ſome of theſe are very little inferior to the oriental pearls

The ſtar-fiſh is commonly about nine inches in length, and ſometimes twelve. The whole face, and the covers of the gills, are very rough, with a ſort of warts or tubercles, ſome of which are prickly.

That extraordinary production of nature which is ranked among fiſhes, and called the ſea-nettle, is of two kinds, one of which comprehends thoſe that always remain fixed in one place, like ſea plants; and the other contains thoſe that change their place.

The wandering ſea-nettles have nothing common with the preceding, except in the name, and they have different appellations in different places, as alſo according to their ſizes. When they are thrown upon the ſea-coaſt they appear to be quite motionleſs, which perhaps may be owing to the ſhocks they have received againſt ſtones or the ſand, which may be ſufficient to deprive them of life; for it is certain they are a ſort of animals.

The Northern Ocean produces ſome very extraordinary animals, as the merman, mermaid, great ſea-ſnake, and kraken or korven.

The mermaid or merman are ſea animals, that bear ſome reſemblance to the human form. In the year 1719 one of the males of this ſpecies was found dead on a point of land in Noordland. His colour was of a dark grey; the face reſembled that of a man, with a large mouth, and flat noſe; the arms were attached to the ſides by a thin membrane, and terminated in paws like thoſe of the ſea-calf. The body tapered into a fiſh's tail, like that of a porpoiſe, and the length extended to three fathoms. The mermaid is formed in the ſame manner, bating the difference of ſex, which is diſtinguiſhed like that of the human race. Theſe creatures have been ſeen in many parts of the North Sea, have appeared of various magnitudes, from two feet to three fathoms.

In the year 1723, three fiſhermen of Elſineur, in Denmark, being examined, upon oath, before the privy counſellor Frederick Van Gram, declared that, in the month of July, in calm weather, between Hveen and Saedland, they approached, in their boat, ſomething that floated on the ſurface like a dead body, which lay without motion till they were within ſeven or eight fathoms of it, when it ſunk inſtantaneouſly, and roſe again nearly in the ſame place. There he ſtood near a quarter of an hour ſtaring at them, and was ſeen above the water to his breaſt. Being terrified at the ſight of this monſter they began to row away. He then blew up his cheeks, uttered a kind of muttering roar, and dived under water. He appeared like an old man, with

with broad ſhoulders, and a ſmall head, covered with ſhort, black, curled hair. His eyes were hollow, his face was meagre and weather-beaten, and his ſkin was coarſe and hairy. One of theſe deponents further declared, that about twenty years before, he had ſeen a mermaid, with long hair, and large breaſts.

"The marmiele, or marmate, belongs to the ſame claſs, and is, perhaps, the young of this ſpecies. It is formed of different ſizes, and often caught on hooks by the fiſhermen of Norway. Some are no bigger than infants half a year old, and others are as large as children of three years.

"The ſea-ſnake is peculiar to the Norwegian ſeas, where it has been ſeen by many hundred people, mariners, fiſhermen, and others. In the year 1746, a mariner belonging to Bergen, ſhot at a ſea-ſnake, which immediately diſappeared; and when the boat was rowed near the place, the water appeared tinged with blood. The head of this animal, which it held at leaſt two feet above the ſurface of the water, was of a greyiſh colour, and reſembled the head of a horſe. The mouth was very large, and black; the eyes were of the ſame colour; and a long white mane hung down from its neck, which floated on the ſea. Beſides the head, they they ſaw ſeven or eight coils of this ſnake, about the diſtance of a fathom one from the other.

"In Egede's journal of the Greenland miſſion, we find that, on the 6th of July, 1734, a large and frightful ſea monſter raiſed itſelf to a moſt ſurpriſing height out of the water: that it had a long ſharp ſnout, broad paws, and ſpouted water like a whale: that the body ſeemed to be covered with ſcales: the ſkin was uneven and wrinkled; and the lower part was formed like a ſnake. It plunged itſelf back in the water, and then raiſed its tail above the ſurface a whole ſhip's length from the head.

"Though the exact dimenſions of the ſea-ſnake cannot be aſcertained, it may be concluded, from the concurring teſtimony of thoſe who have ſeen it at ſea, that it is 100 fathoms in length, and that its body is as large as a hogſhead. That its ſenſe of ſmelling is very acute, the fiſhermen conjecture from the circumſtance of its avoiding the ſcent of caſtor, a quantity of which they therefore provide themſelves with when they go out to fiſh in the ſummer; and when they meet the ſea-ſnake they throw a ſmall portion of it overboard.

"But the moſt ſurpriſing creature in this ſea, and, perhaps, in the whole world, is the kraken, or korven, an animal of the polypus kind, but ſeemingly a mile and a half in circumference. The Norwegian fiſhermen ſometimes, in a hot ſummer's day, find no more than 20 or 30 fathoms water where the depth uſed to be 80 or 100; and here they catch great plenty of cod and ling. They know the kraken is below them, and that they are fiſhing upon his back. When they perceive, by their lines, that the water grows more and more ſhallow, they judge he is riſing ſlowly to the ſurface, and row away with great expedition. At a proper diſtance they lie upon their oars, and in a few minutes, part of him appears above the water, repreſenting a number of ſmall iſlands and ſand-banks covered with ſea-weeds, and abounding with a great variety of fiſh, that leap about, and roll off his ſides into the water. At length a great number of pellucid antennæ riſe upon his back, as large and high as the maſts of moderate veſſels. By means of theſe inſtruments, or tentacula, he moves himſelf, and gathers in his food, which conſiſts of ſmall fiſhes. After he has remained a little time at the ſurface, he begins to ſink again gradually, and this motion produces a dangerous ſwell and whirlpool in the water. In all probability the floating iſlands, which have been deſcribed by ſo many voyage writers, were no other than the back of this huge monſter."

In the holy ſcriptures the whalebone, or blubber whale, the ſperma-ceti whale, the great ſea-ſnake, and the kraken, ſeem to have been all deſcribed under the general name of Leviathan; for that word is of univerſal acceptation, and implies not a particular fiſh only, but a huge ſea monſter, or prodigious large fiſh. For want of knowing this, thoſe beautiful paſſages in the book of Job, where Leviathan is deſcribed, having been frequently miſunderſtood. Thoſe parts (as finely paraphraſed by the celebrated Dr. Young) which apply to the whalebone or blubber whale, we have already given in our account of Greenland. The lines which ſuit the ſperma-ceti whale, as rendered by the ſame reverend author, are theſe:

At length my huge leviathan ſhall riſe,
Boaſt all his ſtrength, and ſpread his wond'rous ſize.
Whoſe heart ſuſtains him to draw near? Behold
Deſtruction yawns. His ſpacious jaws unfold,
And, marſhall'd round the wide expanſe, diſcloſe
Teeth edg'd with death, and crowding rows on rows.
What hideous fangs on either ſide ariſe!
And what a deep abyſs between them lies!
Mete with thy lance, and with thy plummet ſound,
The one how long, the other how profound!

Thoſe ſuitable to the great ſea-ſnake are as follow:

When late awak'd he rears him from the floods,
And, ſtretching forth his ſtature to the clouds,
Writhes in the ſun aloft his ſcaly height,
And ſtrikes the diſtant hills with tranſient light.
Far round are fatal damps of terror ſpread:
The mighty fear, nor bluſh to own their dread.

The following lines are applicable to the kraken, that aſtoniſhing animal, hitherto unconquered by the moſt ſubtle, and dreaded by the moſt courageous:

His like earth bears not on her ſpacious face;
Alone, in nature, ſtands his dauntleſs race.
For utter ignorance of fear renown'd,
In wrath he rolls his baleful eyes around,
Makes ev'ry ſwol'n, diſdainful heart ſubſide,
And holds dominion o'er the ſons of pride.

SECTION III.

Deſcent, Language, and Religion of the Norwegians. Deſcription of the diſtinct Governments or Provinces of the Kingdom.

THE people of Norway derive their origin from the ancient Normanni, a barbarous race, who annoyed great part of the coaſts of Europe with piratical armaments, in the eighth, ninth, and tenth centuries. Many Daniſh, Engliſh, Dutch, Scotch, and German families, have ſince ſettled in this country, and now form a conſiderable part of the inhabitants.

Their language, in moſt places, is the ſame with that of Iceland, which proves them to be of the ſame origin: but, in the civilized parts of the country, the language differs but little from that of Denmark.

The Chriſtian religion is ſaid to have been planted here about the middle of the tenth century: the reformation was eſtabliſhed by the Danes: ſo that Lutheraniſm is the national religion. They have an archbiſhop at Drontheim, and a biſhop in each of the four following towns, namely, Bergen, Staffanger, Hammer, and Obſolo, otherwiſe called Chriſtianburgh.

Juſtice is adminiſtered here in ſeveral courts, from which appeals lie to the ſupreme court, which is ſettled in the capital of the kingdom, where the viceroy reſides, who governs this ſtate with an abſolute power.

Norway is divided into four governments, or prefectorſhips, which are thoſe of Aggerhus, Bergen, Drontheim, and Wardhus; beſides that of Babus, which is ſubject to Sweden; and the ſeveral iſlands depending on Norway. Of all theſe we ſhall give a diſtinct account.

The province of Aggerhus, in Latin Aggerhuſia Præfectura, is the ſouth-eaſt part of Norway, and is ſituated

ſituated between the province of Bergen on the weſt, from which it is ſeparated by vaſt mountains; Dalcarlia and Bahus, which belong to Sweden, on the eaſt; the mouth of the Baltic, called the Categate, on the ſouth; and the province of Drontheim on the north. Its extent from ſouth to north, is about 300 miles, and from eaſt to weſt, in the ſouth part, about 120; but it grows narrower northward, till it ends in a point. The land is mountainous and woody, but the vallies are tolerably fruitful, being watered by many lakes and rivulets, which paſs through the country, and fall into the Baltic. It is divided into ſix particular governments, viz. Agdeſinden, Hallingdal, Hammer, Hennemark, Rommerritkir, and Tallemark. There are here ſeveral ſea-ports, particularly Fleckeren, were the fiſhing-trade affords a pretty conſiderable income.

The moſt conſiderable cities and towns of this province are Obſelo, Anſlo, or Chriſtiana, in Latin Anſloa, or Anſloga Civitas, or Chriſtiana. They chief city of this province is ſeated at the bottom of a narrow bay, and is 30 miles diſtant from the Baltic, and about 110 from Schagen-Cape in Jutland, to the north. It is the ſeat of the ſovereign court of juſtice, where ſentences are pronounced in the preſence of the governor of the province of Aggerhus, and of the viceroy. This city owes its foundation to king Harold, cotemporary with Sweno, king of Denmark, ſurnamed Eſtritius, becauſe he was the ſon of Margaret, ſurnamed Eſtrita, daughter to Sweno II. and ſiſter to Canute the Great. Harold kept his court here in the middle of the eleventh century.

When the Swedes were beſieging the fort of Aggerhus, in the year 1567, the Danes, in order to take from them all pretences for ſtaying in the country, burnt the city of Obſelo. A peace was concluded between them three years after; and Frederick II. of Denmark, under whoſe reign this town was burnt, dying in 1588, his ſucceſſor Chriſtian IV. rebuilt it in 1614, and called it Chriſtiana, by which name it has been generally known ever ſince. It is the ſee of a biſhop, under the archbiſhop of Drontheim. The cathedral is dedicated to St. Alward, and in it is ſhewn the ſword of Haquin, one of their ancient kings, the hilt of which is of chryſtal, and a great curioſity for art, as well as antiquity. This is a place of good trade for fir-timber, pitch, &c. Many mackarel are caught here; and much pearl is found: of the latter, Henricus Arnoldi, a Dane, gives the following account: their ſhells are like thoſe of muſcles, but larger, and the fiſh like an oyſter, which produces a great cluſter of eggs, like thoſe of cray-fiſh, ſome white, and ſome black. Theſe eggs, when ripe, are caſt out, and grow like the ſhell, from whence they came: but ſometimes it happens, that one or two of theſe eggs ſtick faſt to the ſide of the matrix, and are not voided with the reſt: theſe being fed by the fiſh, in time grow into pearls of different ſizes, and imprint a mark, both in the fiſh and ſhell, of the ſame figure with themſelves. In this city the nuptial rites between king James VI. of Scotland, afterwards king of England, and Anne, the daughter of Frederick II. king of Denmark, were ſolemnized, on the 23d day of November 1589, that prince having taken a voyage thither, upon the lady's being driven back by contrary winds, when ſhe firſt ſet out for Scotland.

Aggerhus, or Aggerhuſlor, in Latin Aggerhuſia, from which the whole province takes its names, lies on the bottom of the ſame bay, about 15 miles from Chriſtiana, to the ſouth-weſt. It has a ſtrong caſtle, memorable for the brave reſiſtance it made againſt the Swediſh army in the year 1567, which beſieged it hotly for 18 weeks together, but was at laſt beat off, and forced ſhamefully to retire.

Friderickſhall, or Friderickſtadt, in Latin Fridirico-ſtadium, ſtands on the Categate, at the mouth of the river Glammen, which riſes in the mountains, in the province of Drontheim, and having paſſed through Aggerhus, falls here into the ſea, and thereby affords this city a pretty good trade. It is about 50 miles diſtant from the town of Aggerhus towards the ſouth-eaſt, well fortified, and of ſuch importance, that it is deemed the key of this kingdom. Charles XII. king of Sweden, ſat down before it in the beginning of December, 1718, and was killed there by a cannon ball, the 11th of the ſame month, as he was viewing the trenches.

Saltzberg is a ſmall town on the river Drammen, which falls into the bay of Chriſtiana, from which city it is about 15 miles diſtant to the north. It has a pretty conſiderable trade from the neighbouring copper and iron mines.

Tonſberg ſtands on the left ſhore of the bay of Chriſtiana, and is about 20 miles diſtant from the city of that name to the ſouth.

Skeen, or Scheen, a few miles from Tongſberg, ſtands on the Categate. Both theſe towns are places of good trade, by means of the beforementioned mines. A ſilver one was diſcovered in the neighbourhood under the reign of Chriſtian IV. but it appears that it is not a rich one, not being worked at preſent.

Hammer, or Hammear, ſtands on the eaſtern bank of a long and narrow lake, formed by a river which, above 40 miles lower, falls into the Glammen. It is 100 miles diſtant from Chriſtiana, to the north-eaſt, and was formerly a biſhop's ſee, which has been removed to Chriſtiana. It is divided into the Greater and Leſſer Hammer, which are parted by a ſmall canal, or arm of the lake.

Hollen, ſeated on the lake of Nordſee, 15 miles from Tonſberg to the north-weſt, is remarkable for its church, which is cut out of the rock called Vear, and has a burying-place on the top of it. It is very ancient, and ſuppoſed, by Olaus Wormius, to be originally a temple of the heathens.

The province or government of Bergen, or Bergenhus, comprizes the moſt ſoutherly, and alſo the moſt weſterly part of Norway, and is ſurrounded by the ſea on the ſouth, ſouth-weſt, weſt, and north. It has the government of Drontheim on the north-eaſt, and that of Aggerhus on the eaſt. Its extent from Cape Naze, in the ſouth, to lat. 62 deg. 30 min. where the government of Drontheim begins, is about 290 miles; but its greateſt breadth, from eaſt to weſt, is not above 90 miles, and in many places much leſs. It is divided into the governments of Bergen, properly ſo called, and Stavinger, which are again ſubdivided into leſſer diſtricts, or præfectures.

The chief towns here are Bergen, an ancient and famous ſea-port, mentioned by Pomponius Mela, and Pliny; it ſtands on a crooked bay called Jeltefiord, into which the entrance is by a narrow ſtreight named Carmeſundt, bordered on each ſide with high rocks for ſeveral miles together. This town is 137 miles diſtant from Chriſtiana to the north-weſt. The bay here is ſo deep, that veſſels of above 400 tons can enter it, and come to load and unload before the merchants warehouſes. The inhabitants are partly natives of this country, and partly Germans and Danes, whom the convenience of the town for trade has drawn thither, this being the principal mart and magazine for ſeveral merchandizes; divers ſorts of fine furs, vaſt quantities of hides, tallow, fir-timber, &c. being brought hither from the neighbouring provinces, and ſhipped off to foreign parts. The inhabitants drive alſo a conſiderable trade in ſtock-fiſh, which are taken on theſe coaſts, and in the lakes, in January, and dried in the open air. The privileges granted by the king of Denmark to ſtrangers make them flock to this town, and import thither thoſe neceſſaries of life which the country does not produce, as wheat, rye, biſcuits, beer, wine, brandy, &c. which they exchange for the merchandizes abovementioned. This is the ſee of a biſhop, ſuffragan to the archbiſhop of Drontheim. The churches here are pretty well built, as are alſo all the edifices raiſed by the merchants of the Hans-Towns, and particularly their exchange. The common people's houſes were formerly of timber only, and covered with turf, ſo that the town was ſeveral times reduced to aſhes; but ſince the year 1702, when it was almoſt entirely burnt down, the houſes have been rebuilt with ſtone, ſo that it is now reckoned the

the largeſt, moſt beautiful, and moſt populous town in Norway, and is the capital of the whole kingdom. On the weſt-ſide of the town ſtands a royal citadel, in which the governor reſides, and which ſerves alſo to defend the harbour.

There is at Bergen a factory called the Cloyſter, in which a community of merchants live, who are ſtiled Monks, though they wear no particular habit, and have nothing in common with monks, except that they are not married.

Stavanger, or Staffanger, the chief town of the diſtrict of the ſame name, ſtands in the bay called Buckenfiord, which is very ſpacious, full of ſmall iſlands, and 80 miles diſtant from Bergen to the ſouth, and 100 from Chriſtiana to the weſt. The harbour is ſpacious and ſafe, and would have a great trade were it not for the neighbourhood of Bergen. Though the town be but ſmall, it is the ſee of a biſhop, ſuffragan to the archbiſhop of Drontheim It is the reſidence of the governor of this diſtrict, who is ſubject to the governor of Bergen. The town is defended by the ſtrong fortreſs of Doeſwyck, which ſtands to the ſeaward, about two miles from Stavanger. To the biſhoprick of Stavanger belongs Tyle-Marchia, whoſe name gave riſe to the opinion of Procopius and Ortelius, that Scandinivia was the ancient Thule. The diſtrict of Stavanger is the moſt temperate, the beſt peopled, and beſt cultivated in all Norway; yet it has no other town of any note but Stavanger.

Drontheim, Trontheim, Dronthem, or Dronthen, is the largeſt government of Norway. It lies along the coaſt of the North Sea, being about 500 miles in length, from ſouth to north. It has the North Sea on the weſt, the government of Wardhus on the north, that of Bergen on the ſouth, and on the eaſt it is ſeparated from Sweden by a long ridge of mountains. It extends from the 61ſt to the 69th deg. of lat. Its greateſt breadth, from eaſt to weſt, is not above 120 miles, and in many places it is much leſs. The country is mountainous, woody, cold, and barren; ſo that, though it be large, the towns are not very conſiderable. It is divided into two parts, namely, the government of Drontheim, properly ſo called, where is the city of that name, and ſeven ſmall bailiwicks, and the ſub-government of Salten, which contains ſeven other ſmall diſtricts, or vallies, on the ſea-coaſt. This whole province was yielded to the Swedes in 1658; but the king of Denmark recovered it 1660, by the treaty of Copenhagen. The vallies of Nomendall, Helligeland, or Halgoland, Froſten, Hinder, Hero, and ſome others, belonged formerly to this province, but were given up to the Swedes in 1645, by the treaty of Bromſbroe, together with the province of Jempland, or Jemterland. This whole country is very thinly peopled, and not cultivated but along the ſea-ſhore, till within 25 or 30 miles from it.

The moſt conſiderable towns here are Drontheim, or Nidroſia, formerly the capital of Norway: it is ſeated on the coaſt of the Northern Ocean, on a little gulph at the mouth of the river Nider, from whence it was anciently called Nidroſia. It is about 220 miles diſtant from Bergen to the north-eaſt, and has a harbour pretty well frequented by ſmall veſſels, though very incommodious for large ones, the entrance being obſtructed by rocks. It was formerly the reſidence of the kings of Norway; but the town being only built with timber, was ſeveral times burnt down, and is very much decayed. It is without ditches or fortifications, being only encloſed by a ſingle wall. The caſtle is not ſtrong, and ſuſtained but a few days ſiege when the town was taken by the Swedes in 1658. The Danes re-took it the ſame year, after a ſiege of ten weeks. It is the ſee of an archbiſhop, being the only one in Norway. The cathedral church, dedicated to St. Olaus, was formerly a very magnificent building, but now lies almoſt in ruins, having been deſtroyed by fire in the year 1522. This town has a conſiderable trade, conſiſting in ſmall maſts, fir-deals, copper, iron, tar, goats ſkins, &c. for which they import ſpices, wine, brandy, vinegar, cheeſe, tobacco, coarſe cloths, &c. The governor has his ſeat here, and reſides chiefly in the caſtle.

The other towns of this province, viz. Leerſtand, Stonden, Scoredale, Opdal, Ramſdael, and Soledael, are ſo ſmall and inconſiderable, as to merit no particular deſcription.

The province of Wardhus is bounded, on the north and weſt, by the ocean, on the eaſt by Ruſſian Lapland, on the ſouth by Swediſh Lapland, and on the ſouth-weſt by the government of Drontheim. It is 310 miles in length, from eaſt to weſt, 200 in breadth from north to ſouth, and is divided into two parts, viz.

The weſtern, or maritime part, which is called Finland.

The eaſtern part, which is called Norwegian, or Daniſh Lapland.

The town of Wardhus, from whence this province hath its name, is the ſeat of a governor, but only conſiſts of a caſtle, and a ſtreet of cottages, inhabited chiefly by fiſhermen.

The province of Bahus, though yielded to the Swedes in 1658, is yet accounted a part of Norway, being its moſt ſouthern province. It is 90 miles long, but not above 25 broad where wideſt, and only 10 in ſome places. It hath Weſt Gothland to the ſouth, Dalia on the eaſt, the government of Aggerhus on the north, and the Cattegate on the weſt. The principal places are

Bahus, a ſtrong caſtle, built on a ſmall iſland made by the river Nore-Elf, which there receives the Gi-otha Elf, and both together are called Trolhetta. It is 116 miles diſtant from Chriſtiana, was built in 1309 by Haquin, the ſecond king of Norway, and ſtands on a ſteep rock near the banks of the river. The kings of Denmark had fortified it after the modern faſhion, but ſurrendered it to the Swedes in 1658, by the treaty of Roſchiled.

Maelſtrand, a ſtrong built town on a rock in a kind of peninſula, about 10 miles below Bahus, is a place of great trade for fiſh, and hath a ſtrong caſtle to guard it.

SECTION IV.

Perſons, Employments, Amuſements, Diſpoſitions, Mode of living, Diſeaſes, Dreſs, Buildings, Armament, Articles of Export and Import, Privileges, &c. of the Inhabitants of Norway.

THE Norwegians in general, are tall, ſtout, robuſt, hardy and well made; hoſpitable, brave, and honeſt, but litigious. The women are finely ſhaped, comely, fair and obliging. The mountaineers are remarkably ſtrong, as the tone of their nerves acquires great firmneſs by hard living, much labour, continual exerciſe, and being expoſed from infancy to all the rigors of the cold ſeaſon. Thoſe who dwell in the maritime parts of the kingdom become excellent mariners, from the inceſſant practice of fiſhing and navigation. The peaſants are generally their own handicraftmen, that is, they are in general able to make, for the uſe of themſelves and families, the following articles, viz. Hats, woollen cloths, linen cloths, ſtockings, ſhoes, iron-work, joinery-work, carpentry-work, &c.

They are likewiſe excellent tanners, expert ſhip and boat-builders, and ſome of them make tolerable violins, and other muſical inſtruments. Their general propenſity, however, is to carve in wood, which they do in a moſt ſurpriſing manner, with only a common knife, which is likewiſe of their own making.

Their amuſements are riding, wreſtling, ſwimming, ſkaiting, climbing, ſhooting, blowing a horn, playing on the violin, thrumming upon a kind of guittar, and making verſes. Indeed they are ſo fond of muſic, that they even play on the violin at their funerals.

The

The Norwegians, upon various occaſions, have evinced their intrepidity; but while under the influence of rancour, their courage degenerates into brutality. They are always quarrelling with each other, and ſometimes their quarrels have been known to rage from generation to generation, and to be tranſmitted from poſterity to poſterity; with particular injunctions from the parents to their children, to conſider it as a family quarrel, and on that account to carry it on with the greateſt implacability. The loweſt claſs of people have their punctilios of honour, and when they conceive themſelves affronted, ſend challenges to fight in ſingle combat; but theſe duels being generally founded in malice, are carried to the moſt ſavage extremes, and degenerate into abſolute butchery. When a combat of this kind is to be fought, the combatants faſten themſelves together by hooks fixed to the extremities of their belts, and then fight furiouſly with their knives till one or both fall to the ground, either dead or mortally wounded. The common people, in many things reſemble the three nations now ſubordinate to the crown of Great Britain: like the Scotch, they have aſpiring thoughts, which even difficulties cannot ſubdue; like the Iriſh, they cheriſh ideas of independence; and, like the Welch, they plume themſelves upon their pedigrees.

The principal people of Norway live as luxuriouſly as the nature and commerce of the country will admit; but the peaſants, in general, are frugal and temperate, except at the time of keeping any of their feſtivals.

The common bread is made of oatmeal, and formed into cakes like thoſe of Scotland. In times of dearth they dry the bark of the fir-tree, or elm-tree, and grind it into a kind of flour, which they mix with a ſmall portion of oatmeal, and thus compoſe a kind of ſubſtitute for bread.

In the maritime parts it is common to knead the roes of cod with oatmeal or barley meal, and boil the compoſition for a pudding; and the liquor, which ſerves as a kind of ſoup, is enriched with a ſalt mackarel, or pickled herring.

Beef, mutton, or goats fleſh, they pickle, ſmoke, or dry, for winter ſtock; but in the ſummer, uſually eat freſh fiſh, growſe, partridge, deer, hare, rein-deer, &c. Cheeſe they have all the year, and in common drink ſour whey; but at Chriſtmas, and other feſtivals, chriſtenings, weddings, &c. they provide good ſtore of ſtrong ale; and, indeed, theſe are the only times in which they ever run into any exceſſes; for their uſual temperance is ſuch, that they are generally very long lived: a great number are to be found who are hearty and well after being turned of an hundred years of age. In the year 1733 four couples danced before his Daniſh majeſty at Frederickſhall, whoſe ages, when added together, exceeded 800 years.

Some few, by temp'rance taught, approaching ſlow
To diſtant fate, by eaſy journies go;
Gently they lay them down, as evening ſheep
On their own woolly fleeces ſoftly ſleep.
So noiſeleſs would I live, ſuch death to find,
Like timely fruit not ſhaken by the wind,
But ripely dropping on the ſapleſs bough,
And dying, nothing to myſelf would owe.
Thus daily changing, with a duller taſte
Of leſſening joys, I by degrees would haſte;
Still quitting ground by unperceiv'd decay,
And ſteal myſelf from life, and melt away.

Some of the Norwegians, however, are ſubject to the gout, epilepſy, rheumatiſm, catarrhs, leproſy, ſcurvy, &c.

The peaſants of this country dreſs in a wide, looſe jacket, made of coarſe cloth, with waiſtcoat and breeches of the ſame. On their heads they wear a flouched hat, or a cap decorated with ribbons: their ſummer ſhoes are without ſoles, but in winter they uſe leather buſkins; and, beſides theſe, they have ſnow ſhoes and ſkaits to travel in the winter. A corps of light troops, thus accoutered, are kept always in readineſs for winter expeditions, in caſe of emergencies, and theſe travel with more ſpeed than the ſwifteſt horſes.

The Norwegian peaſant never wears a neckcloth, or cloſes his waiſtcoat, but on certain occaſions, chooſing always to have his neck and breaſt bare, and ſuffers the ſnow to beat into his boſom. Round his waiſt he wears a leathern belt, adorned with braſs plates, from which hangs a braſs chain, that ſuſtains a knife, gimblet, &c.

The women dreſs in jackets laced cloſe about them; round their waiſts they wear girdles of leather, ornamented with ſilver; and about their necks ſilver chains, embelliſhed with gilt medals; their caps and handkerchiefs, and, on certain occaſions, their treſſes are adorned with ſmall plates and ſpangles of ſilver, braſs, and tin; large rings, buttons, and a variety of other trinkets.

The public edifices of Norway are built with ſtone; the houſes of the principal people with ſtone or brick; but the common people, in general, reſide in wooden habitations.

The wooden houſes are made of fir and pine-trees laid upon each other, and joined with mortices at the corners. Few of the farm-houſes have either chimnies or windows; but a hole in the roof ſerves for both, as it lets out ſmoak, and lets in light. In ſummer time the whole is left quite open, but in winter it is covered with the tranſparent membrane of ſome animal, which admits the light, and at the ſame time is ſo placed, as not to impede the evaporation of the ſmoak. This membrane is occaſionally fixed or removed by the means of a long pole, which pole every ſtranger, who enters the houſe, is obliged to go and touch, agreeable to an ancient cuſtom. The roof is covered with the bark of birch trees, which is deemed incorruptible; and that again is coated with turf, from which the graſs is cut every ſeaſon. The ceiling, on the inſide, is about eight feet from the ground; and being arched like a cupola, the ſmoak rolls about within the circular part till it finds a vent at the hole. Juſt beneath this aperture ſtands a table, ſurrounded with branches, and at the end a high ſeat for the maſter of the family, where, during meal times, he ſits in great ſtate; and, indeed, upon all occaſions, aſſumes the appearance of dignity, puts on many conſequential airs, and fancies himſelf a perſon of the utmoſt importance. It hath been the obſervation of many travellers, that the inhabitants of all conquered nations are much more proud than thoſe to whom they are held in ſubordination; and that, as they are uſually kept poor and illiterate, their vanity riſes in proportion to their ignorance.

Of all the cauſes which conſpire to blind
Man's erring judgment, and miſguide the mind;
What the weak head with ſtrongeſt bias rules
Is pride, the never-failing vice of fools.
What ever nature has in worth deny'd,
She gives in large recruits of needful pride:
For, as in bodies, ſo in ſouls, we find
What wants in blood and ſpirit's fill'd with wind.
Pride, where wit fails, ſteps in to our defence,
And fills up all the mighty void of ſenſe.

The armament of Norway conſiſts in about 30,000 land forces, and about 14,000 ſeamen; and the annual revenue amounts to 180,000l. The commodities exported are numerous, as wrought and unwrought copper, iron, lead, marble, mill-ſtones, cow-hides, goat-ſkins, fox-ſkins, ſeal-ſkins, bear-ſkins, beavers, martens, ermines, maſts, deal boards, timber, herrings, cod, ling, ſalmon, lobſters; flounders, down, feathers, butter, tallow, train oil, juniper and other berries, ſalt, glaſs, tar, nuts, allum, vitriol, pot-aſhes, &c. The commodities imported chiefly conſiſt of luxurious articles.

Every freeholder in Norway enjoys the right of primogeniture, and power of redemption. It is very uſual

uſual to ſee a peaſant inhabiting the ſame houſe which had been poſſeſſed 400 years by his anceſtors. The odels-gads, or freehold, cannot be alienated by ſale, or otherwiſe, from the right heir, called odels-mand. If he is not able to redeem the eſtate, he declares his incapacity every tenth year at the ſeſſions: and if he, or his heirs, to the third generation, ſhould acquire wealth enough for that purpoſe, the poſſeſſor, at the time muſt give up the poſſeſſion.

The hiſtory of Norway is ſo blended with that of Denmark, that we ſhall give both together at the concluſion of the ſucceeding article.

CHAP. IV.

DENMARK.

DENMARK Proper, anciently called Dania, conſiſts of ſeveral iſlands, together with the peninſula of Jutland. Though not any one of theſe is ſeparately called by the name of Denmark, they retain in general that appellation.

Jutland lies between the 54th and 59th deg. of north lat. and from the 8th to the 45th deg. of eaſt long. extending from north to ſouth near 240 miles; the breadth in ſome parts, not being above 24 miles, and in others, comprizing near 180 miles. The German Ocean waſhes it on the northern or weſtern parts; on the eaſt it is bounded by the Categate, and Middle Fort Sound, or Leſſer Belt; and on the ſouth it is divided from the duchies of Lunenburg and Bremen by the river Elbe.

SECTION I.

Soil, Climate, &c.

THE ſoil varies greatly on the continent, and in the iſlands which form this kingdom. In the former there are good paſtures, but the latter are too ſandy to be fruitful. The mountains are barren, but moſt of the plains exhibit marks of fertility.

It has been obſerved, as a great natural defect in Denmark, that the king has not, in all his dominions, one navigable river for veſſels of any conſiderable burthen: for the Eyder cannot be reckoned as ſuch; and the Elbe is rather to be eſteemed one of the confines and boundaries of his territories, than any ways belonging to him. There are ſome lakes here which afford a great quantity of fiſh. The foreſts are abundantly ſtocked with veniſon of all ſorts, as ſtags, elks, and hares; as alſo wild boars. There is likewiſe great plenty of wild fowl.

The air in Denmark, though very cold, is not ſo ſharp as in ſome places of Germany ſituated much more to the ſouth, which may be aſcribed to the ſea flowing about it, the vapours of which melt and diſſolve the nitrous particles, that are carried by the wind from the northern countries, before they arrive in this; by which means the ſharpneſs of the air is very much abated. The gentle breezes, which blow from the ſea, contribute alſo to make the air cooler in ſummer. However, in Denmark there are but two ſeaſons of the year, winter and ſummer; the other two more agreeable ones, ſpring and autumn, not being commonly known; the ſpring never, and the autumn ſeldom; ſo that there is an immediate tranſition from extremity of heat to extremity of cold; and ſo, on the contrary, when winter is over, from cold to heat. During the three months of June, July, and Auguſt, the heat is much more intenſe than in England, and very ſultry in the nights; but it is a gloomy heat; and people generally perceive ſome interpoſition of thick vapours between them and the ſun. In Copenhagen, during theſe three months, they are conſtantly troubled with the plague of flies, which they endeavour to deſtroy by a poiſonous water; upon the laying of which in their kitchens and chambers, whole buſhels of dead flies are ſometimes ſwept together in one room.

This country, in general, produces but little corn; and the vaſt number of barren mountains are great incumbrances and blemiſhes to the whole kingdom. The Eyder is the only ſtream worthy of the name of a river, which can be ſaid properly to belong to Denmark. This riſes near Sedgebourg, runs by Renſbourg, and diſembogues itſelf into the ſea at Tonmingen, after having divided Sleſwic from Holſtein.

A late traveller, ſpeaking of the climate, ſays, he apprehends the year is more properly divided here into ſummer and winter, than, as with us, into four ſeaſons. A ſhort ſummer ſucceeds to the long ſeries of cold and darkneſs, which environs them from October till April; and, during this period, they often experience very great heats for a few days, or ſometimes weeks. Certainly man is much affected by phyſical cauſes; and one is not ſurprized to find the elegant arts chiefly confined to luxurious and ſouthern climates, and faintly raiſing their heads amidſt theſe ſnowy and inhoſpitable regions, where the inhabitants ſeem, in ſome degree, to partake of the aſperities of their ſoil, and where royal munificence, however unbounded, can only raiſe a few ſickly and ſtraggling plants.

This account is forcibly illuſtrated by the following poetical deſcription, which we inſert as ſtrikingly picturesque. Theſe lines are addreſſed by Mr. Philips to the Earl of Dorſet, his patron.

From frozen climes, and endleſs tracks of ſnow,
From ſtreams that northern winds forbid to flow,
What preſent ſhall the muſe to Dorſet bring?
Or how, ſo near the pole, attempt to ſing?
The hoary winter here conceals from ſight,
All pleaſing objects that to verſe invite.
The hills and dales, and the delightful woods,
The flow'ry plains, and ſilver ſtreaming floods,
By ſnow diſguiſ'd, in bright confuſion lie,
And with one dazzling waſte fatigue the eye.
No gentle breathing breeze prepares the ſpring;
No birds within the deſart region ſing.
The ſhips, unmov'd, the boiſt'rous winds defy,
While rattling chariots o'er the ocean fly:
The vaſt leviathan wants room to play,
And ſpout his waters in the face of day:
The ſtarving wolves along the main ſea prowl,
And, to the moon, in icy vallies howl.
For many a ſhining league the level main
Here ſpreads itſelf into a gloſſy plain;
There ſolid billows, of enormous ſize,
Alps of green ice, in wild diſorder riſe.
And yet, but lately, have I ſeen, e'en here,
The winter in a lovely dreſs appear.
Ere yet the clouds let fall the treaſur'd ſnow,
Or winds began thro' hazy ſkies to blow,
At ev'ning a keen eaſtern breeze aroſe,
And the deſcending rain unſully'd froze:
Soon as the ſilent ſhades of night withdrew,
The ruddy morn diſclos'd at once to view
The face of nature, in a rich diſguiſe,
And bright'ned ev'ry object to my eyes:

For

For ev'ry ſhrub, and ev'ry blade of graſs,
And ev'ry pointed thorn, ſeem'd wrought in glaſs:
In pearls, and rubies rich, the hawthorns ſhow,
While thro' the ice the crimſon berries glow:
The thick-ſprung reeds the wat'ry marſhes yield,
Seem poliſh'd lances in a hoſtile field:
The ſtag, in limpid currents, with ſurprize,
Sees chryſtal branches on his forehead riſe;
The ſpreading oak, the beech, and tow'ring pine,
Glaz'd over, in the freezing æther ſhine:
The frighted birds the rattling branches ſhun,
That wave and glitter in the diſtant ſun.
When, if a ſudden guſt of wind ariſe,
The brittle foreſt into atoms flies;
The crackling wood beneath the tempeſt bends,
And, in a ſpangled ſhow'r, the proſpect ends.
Or, if a ſouthern gale the region warms,
And, by degrees, unbinds the wint'ry charms,
The traveller a miry country ſees,
And journey's ſad beneath the dropping trees;
Like ſome deluded peaſant Merlin leads
Thro' fragrant bow'rs, and thro' delicious meads;
While here enchanted gardens to him riſe,
And airy fabricks there attract his eyes:
His wand'ring feet the magic paths purſue,
And while he thinks the fair illuſion true,
The trackleſs ſcenes diſperſe in fluid air,
And woods, and wilds, and thorny ways appear:
A tedious road the weary wretch returns,
And, as he goes, the tranſient viſion mourns.

SECTION II.

Diviſions, Subdiviſions, Cities, and Towns of Denmark.

THE grand diviſions of Denmark are the four following. Jutland, properly ſo called, or North Jutland. The duchy of Sleſwic, or South Jutland. The duchy of Holſtein, and the Daniſh iſlands. We ſhall deſcribe them in that order.

JUTLAND ſo called, or North Jutland, is bounded on the ſouth by the duchy of Sleſwic, on the north and weſt by the German Ocean, and towards the eaſt by the Baltic, the Cattegate, and the Leſſer Belt.

This country is divided into four dioceſes, viz.

Ripen to the ſouth, Arhuſen to the eaſt, Wilburg to the weſt, and Aalburg to the north.

The dioceſe of Ripen is bounded on the ſouth by the duchy of Sleſwic, on the north by the dioceſes of Arthuſen and Wiburg, and extends eaſt and weſt from the Baltic to the German Ocean. It contains 30 prefectorſhips, or bailiwicks, 282 pariſhes, 10 royal palaces, 100 noblemens ſeats, and ſeven cities, which are as follows:

Ripen, or Rypen, in Latin Ripa, is ſeated on the river Nipſaw, which, before it comes to this city, divides itſelf into three branches, the largeſt of which runs on the north ſide of the town; the middle branch, which is the ſmalleſt, runs on the ſouth of it; the third alſo on the ſouth, but at ſome diſtance: they join again a little lower, and fall into the German Ocean, three miles below, forming a commodious harbour. This city is 26 miles diſtant from Tonderon, towards the north, and 24 from Colding to the north-weſt. It is a place of conſiderable trade: the neighbouring paſtures and fields produces abundance of cattle and corn. Hither are drove almoſt all the black cattle from many parts of Jutland, which are here ſhipped off for foreign countries, eſpecially for Holland; and their corn they export into the neighbouring countries. Theſe articles afford them very great profit. But the city is often expoſed to imminent dangers from the tides flowing in with prodigious violence from the ſea, ſo that the water ſometimes comes into the very church-yard of the cathedral, which ſtands on a hill; and even during the terrible inundation that afflicted Jutland in the year 1734, the water roſe an ell high in the very cathedral.

This town is ſtrong by nature only, without much aſſiſtance from art. Towards the weſt there is a caſtle flanked with four bulwarks, after the old faſhion, built in the year 1150. The citizens houſes are pretty well built, and the inhabitants were formerly in better circumſtances than they are now; but they ſuffered very much during the wars with Sweden, the city being taken by the Swedes in 1645, but ſoon after recovered by the Danes. Before the reformation this was a biſhop's ſee, as it is now of a ſuperintendant or Lutheran biſhop. The cathedral is a noble pile, built with free-ſtone, as well as its ſteeple, which is ſquare, very high, and covered with lead. This church is adorned within with ſeveral marble columns, and with the tombs of ſome kings. There is another church dedicated to St. Catherine. Here are alſo two public ſchools for the education of youth in polite literature, and a college for divinity, in the court of the biſhop's palace, where there is alſo a public library. The city is governed by two burgomaſters, or conſuls, and by a ſenate, who formerly adminiſtered juſtice with ſo much ſeverity, that *the juſtice of Ripen* was become a proverbial ſaying, to expreſs a rigorous execution of the law.

Colding, or Kolding, an old city mentioned by Ptolemy, ſtands on the banks of a little river called Coldinger Aa, which parts north Jutland from the duchy of Sleſwic, and falls into a little gulph, thence named the Gulph of Colding. The city is about 11 miles diſtant from Haderleben to the north. It was burnt down during the civil wars in 1247. In 1268, king Eric VI. redeemed it out of the hands of Eric, duke of Sleſwic, and ſon to king Abel. He built a citadel there, to be a bulwark to Denmark, and fortified the town, eſpecially towards the ſouth. Chriſtian III. who liked the city very much, on account of its agreeable ſituation, and wholeſome air, built the caſtle of Arnſburg, above the city, removed thither with his court, and died there January the 1ſt, 1559. The hoſpital was built by Frederick II. whoſe ſon endowed it conſiderably. In May, 1644, the Danes gained a conſiderable victory over the Swedes near Colding. This town is but ſmall, ſince it does not contain above 100 or 120 houſes; but what makes it chiefly conſiderable is its bridge over the Aa, which is called Boherrit, and gives name to the whole country about it. All the black cattle and horſes that come from Jutland, and go into Sleſwic, muſt paſs over this bridge, and pay each a crown for toll; whence ariſes a conſiderable part of the king of Denmark's revenue. Though this town lies commodious for trade on the Leſſer Belt, over againſt Middlefort in Funen, yet they have hardly any trade but in cattle. They have good fiſh, and the river Aa produces excellent eels.

Frederick's Ode, in Latin Frederici Oda, ſtands on the banks of the Leſſer Belt, 10 miles from Colding to the north-eaſt, and about 27 from Ripen towards the eaſt. It was built by king Frederick III. of Denmark, and is well ſeated on a point of land, with an eaſy deſcent to the ſeaward: it has been well fortified, being a paſs over the Leſſer Belt, or Middlefort Sound. The works are very high on the land ſide; and on the other ſide of the point there are eight baſtions: it has four gates, and before each a ravelin, but ruinous. Towards the ſea the fortifications are lower, and of a greater extent; where there are baſtions, platforms, and ſome batteries on the ſhore. Thoſe fortifications encloſe a great deal of ground, but the fifth part of it is not inhabited, for there are many corn-fields and orchards within the walls. This place was formerly a refuge for bankrupts and Jews; but king Frederick IV. recalled thoſe privileges. Here are two churches, one Daniſh, and another German, but they have no ſteeples. In 1658 this town was taken by Charles Guſtavus's troops, commanded by Wrangel; the garriſon, conſiſting of 2000 men, were all killed or taken. This opened a way to the king of Sweden to undertake his expedition over the ice from this place to Fu-

nen, where the paſſage over the Belt is above three Engliſh miles.

Weille, or Weel, is ſix miles diſtant from Frederick's Ode, to the north-weſt, and about 12 from Colding to the north. It ſtands on a little river, which falls into a great bay that communicates with the Leſſer Belt, and makes a good harbour. The city is neat, and well-built, but not large. About 22 miles to the north-weſt ſtands Warde, on a river that falls into the German ocean, 10 miles below the town, which is conveniently ſituated for trade.

Ringcopin, or Ringkiobing, is 45 miles from Ripen, and 24 from Warde, to the north. It lies on a bay of the German Ocean, made by a neck of land 25 miles in length from north to ſouth, ſo that ſhips ride in the port ſafe from all winds.

Lenwick ſtands on the gulph of Limford (from whence it has its name) on the north-weſt borders of this dioceſe, 10 miles from the German ocean to the eaſt, 56 from Ripen, and 81 from Ringcoping, to the north.

Hoſtlebrow, or Hodſelbrow, ſtands about 11 miles from Lenwick to the ſouth-eaſt, and 12 from Ring-coping to the north-eaſt. It is an inland town, but lies on a river which communicates with the German Ocean by a lake, into which the river falls.

The dioceſe of Arhuſen is the eaſtern part of Jutland, having on the north the dioceſes of Wiburg and Aalburg, on the weſt and ſouth that of Ripen, and on the eaſt the Categate and Leſſer Belt. It extends about 60 miles along the coaſt of the Baltic, but is not much above 30 miles in breadth at the wideſt part. It contains 31 prefectorſhips, or bailiwicks, 304 pariſhes, five caſtles, or forts, and eight cities, or walled towns, viz.

Arhuſen, the capital of the dioceſe, ſtands at the mouth of the river Gude, which runs through it, and a little lower falls into the Categate. It is 86 miles to the northward of Slefwic, and 42 north-eaſt of Ripen. The ſituation is pleaſant, being ſurrounded with foreſts full of game, paſtures that are exceeding rich for the country, and fields which produce a conſiderable quantity of grain. The town itſelf is neat and agreeable, well furniſhed with proviſions and domeſtic neceſſaries from the neighbouring country, and with other commodities and luxuries from various countries, by the means of ſhipping. The harbour is tolerable, and the cathedral church erected after a curious ſtile of architecture, beautified and embelliſhed with various monuments of noblemen, prelates, &c. The biſhop's palace was once a magnificent ſtructure, but is now fallen to decay. The city was made an epiſcopal ſee in the year 1014, and is now the ſee of a ſuperintendant.

Scanderburg, ſix miles from Arhuſen to the ſouth-weſt, is a good fortreſs, near the ſpring of the river Gude.

Horſens, 12 miles diſtant from Arhuſen to the ſouth-weſt, is a ſmall city or town ſituated on a little gulph, which ſerves it inſtead of a harbour, and falls into the Baltic.

Randers is a very ancient city, ſituated on the river Gude, which about 12 miles lower, falls into the Baltic, and thus affords this place a good conveniency for navigation. It is a place of great trade, and famous for the beſt ſalmon in Jutland. The neighbouring fields produce plenty of corn.

Ebelſtot is ſeated at the bottom of a bay of the Categate, about 18 miles from Arhuſen to the north-weſt.

Grinaa ſtands near the point or Cape of a peninſula, which juts out into the Categate, and is ſeven miles diſtant from Ebelſtot to the north. It is defended by a caſtle.

Mariager ſtands on the ſouth-ſide of a large bay of the Categate, 16 miles diſtant from Arhuſen to the north.

Hobro, or Hebro, is a ſmall town on the ſame bay, ſix miles above Mariager to the weſt.

The dioceſe of Wiburg has that of Aalburg on the north, from which it is partly ſeparated by the gulph of Limford, Arhuſen on the eaſt, and Ripen on the ſouth and weſt. It is not above 24 miles from ſouth to north, and 26 from eaſt to weſt, being almoſt of a round figure. Though it is an inland country, yet it wants not the conveniency of navigation; for here are large lakes, that branch out into ſeveral parts of this land, and from whence, by means of the Limford, into which they run, and which communicates with the Baltic Sea, they receive veſſels of great burthen. Among theſe lakes there is one named Othefunde, from the emperor Otho, ſurnamed the Great, who, about the year 948, made an inroad this way, penetrated even as far as this country, and, caſting his javelin into the water, gave it the name it ſtill retains. The beſt horſes in Denmark are bred in that part of the dioceſe named Salling. In this territory are comprehended 16 prefectorſhips, or bailiwicks, 218 pariſhes, and three garriſons. The moſt conſiderable towns are

Wiburg, which ſtands in the middle of North Jutland, of which it is the capital city.

It is a place of great reſort, being the ſeat of a high court of judicature, which receives the appeals from inferior courts, but none can be made from it, except to the king.

Wiburg has been the ſea of a biſhop for above 600 years; but the exact time cannot be fixed; for it is a matter ſtill diſputed whether this or Aalburg be the moſt ancient. The biſhop and chapter ſtill ſubſiſt. It ſtands near a branch of the gulph of Limford, called Virkſund, and was anciently called Cimmerſburg, as being the chief city of the Cimbri; but whence it had its preſent name is not certain.

Scheve, or Schitthnis, which ſtands on the ſame gulph, is ſituated 12 miles from Wiburg to the north-weſt.

The peninſula of Salling, ſurrounded on all ſides by the ſame gulph, except towards the ſouth, is the moſt noted place in Denmark for fine horſes, which are exported by foreigners

Nybe, in Latin Nibe, on the ſame gulph, 18 miles from Wiburg to the north-eaſt, is alſo noted for a good breed of horſes.

The dioceſe of Aalburg is the moſt northern part of Jutland, and ſurrounded by the ſea on all parts, except on the ſouth, where it is divided from Wiburg and Ripen by the gulph called Limford, which runs from the Baltic Sea above 50 miles acroſs the country, and is ſhut out of the German Ocean by a narrow iſthmus, or neck of land, made by the ſand-hills on the weſt ſhore of Jutland, over-gainſt a great ſhoal called Juſche-Riff. This dioceſe is about 70 miles long, from the ſouth-weſt to the uttermoſt point of Schager-Riff, in the north-eaſt; but as it is of a triangular form, its breadth is not equal every where, being but about 40 miles where broadeſt. The north part of this dioceſe, which is cut off by the gulph, (for the city of Aalburg lies on the ſouth-ſide of it,) is called Wenſuſal, and by Latin authors Vandalia, whence ſome apprehend it was the ſeat of the Vandals. The inhabitants are the hardieſt of the king of Denmark's ſubjects. The country is fruitful, and pretty well enriched by trade. It is divided into 13 bailiwicks, which contain 177 pariſhes, 100 caſtles, and the following cities and towns.

Aalburg, ſo called from the great quantity of eels taken in the gulph of Limford, ſtands on the ſouth ſhore of it, about ſix miles from the Categate to the weſt. It is the ſee of a biſhop, founded about the year 1060; but the biſhops reſided anciently at Burglaw, whence the dioceſe was then called the dioceſe of Burglaw; but ſince the reformation, the Lutheran biſhops have had their palace at Aalburg.

Wenſuſal, or Burglaw, ſtands on the river Ryaa, which, 14 miles lower, falls into the gulph of Limford, from which this city is as many miles diſtant to the north. It was formerly the ſee of a biſhop, which has been removed to Aalburg.

Skagen

Schagen, Scagen, or Skau, as the inhabitants call it, is ſeated on the promontory, or cape, which it gives name to; and is the moſt northern land of Jutland, betwixt the Norwegian ſea and the Categate, or Schager-Rack.

The town is more frequented by merchants from all parts of Europe than any other town in Jutland, becauſe they touch here in their way to the Sound. Its trade would be far greater ſtill, were it not for the dangerous coaſt it lies on.

Nikioping ſituated in the Iſle of Mors, made by the gulph of Limford, is a conſiderable town.

Tyſted ſtands on the ſouth-weſt part of this dioceſe near 30 miles from Aalburg to the weſt, in the middle of the iſthmus made by the German Ocean and gulph of Limford, which is the moſt fruitful place of this diſtrict. This town is noted for a kind of univerſity, which was firſt a free-ſchool only, founded by Chriſtian the Third.

Seeby is a ſmall ſeaport town on the Eaſtern ſhore, 15 miles diſtant from Schagen, towards the ſouth-weſt.

The Duchy of SLESWICK, or SOUTH JUTLAND, is as ancient dependance on the kingdom of Denmark; for in the year 1128, king Nicholas the Firſt gave it to his nephew Canute, the ſon of Eric. Denmark was afterwards deprived of it; but in the year 1459, Chriſtian the Firſt re-united it to that kingdom. It is about 86 miles in length, and 60 in breadth, being bounded by Jutland on the north, by the Baltic on the eaſt, by the duchy of Holſtein on the ſouth, and by the German Ocean on the weſt.

It is watered by ſeveral ſtreams, which render it exceeding fruitful in moſt parts, and in general abounds in meadows and paſtures. The eaſtern parts lie conſiderably higher than the weſtern, and in the latter there are large plains, which produce a great plenty of all ſorts of corn. The nobility here are rich, and the common people enjoy a great ſhare of independence. This duchy is divided into four circles, viz, Gottorp, Tonderon, Flenſburg, and Haderſleben. The principal cities and towns are the following.

Sleſwic, the capital of the whole duchy, is ſituated on a ſmall arm of the ſea, called the Sley, at the diſtance of about 38 miles from Gluckſtadt to the north eaſt, and 28 from Lamden to the eaſt. Chriſtianity was eſtabliſhed here in the ninth century, and the great church founded by Eric Barn, in conjunction with St. Anſchar, biſhop of Hamburg; and in the year 930, king Herold Blatand erected an epiſcopal ſee. Afterwards the Sclavonians invaded theſe parts in the year 1065, deſtroyed the church, and reſtored the pagan ſuperſtitions; but ſoon after theſe foreigners were expelled, Chriſtianity was reſtored, and the cathedral rebuilt. In the next century it became a place of great trade, and much frequented by merchants from Great Britain, France, Spain, Flanders, &c. The ſoil, eſpecially towards the ſouth and eaſt, is not very fruitful; but the town is ſufficiently ſupplied with all neceſſaries of life from the neighbouring country, and the Sley affords abundance of fiſh. They brew beer here, which is not very palatable; but they import ſome from abroad, as well as wine, which is pretty cheap. Among the public buildings is a ducal palace, which they ſhew to ſtrangers: it does not contain much that is worthy of notice, except a library, which contains a few ancient manuſcripts, and a cabinet of rarities in natural hiſtory, which has a few things that are really curious. In the gardens are ſome water-works, and many walks in the old taſte, which the poor people of this country think great exertions of magnificence. The principal church is ancient, and a very large fabric; it contains many monuments of the ducal families, but none that will yield much entertainment to a traveller. In the ſuburbs there is a church dedicated to St. Michael. Sleſwic was formerly the ſee of a Roman Catholic biſhop, and is now that of a proteſtant ſuperintendant.

Within a few miles from Sleſwic to the ſouth, are yet to be ſeen, in many places, the ruins of the famous wall and trench, which was built in ancient times by the Daniſh kings, againſt the incurſions of the Saxons. It is thought to have been begun by Gotherick, or Gothofred, king of Denmark, to keep out the armies of the emperor Charles the Great, about the year 808, and afterwards improved by queen Thyra, and other Daniſh monarchs, and rendered ſo ſtrong as to be eſteemed impregnable by the counſellors of Henry, ſurnamed the lion, duke of Saxony. This rampart was called Denewark, and, like Hadrian's wall in England, is reported to have reached from ſea to ſea, quite acroſs this neck of land.

Gottorp was the ancient ſeat and patrimony of the dukes of Holſtein, the chief branch of which family, after the royal one, took from thence the title or ſurname of Gottorp. It is about ſix miles diſtant from Sleſwic to the ſouth-weſt, and ſtands on the Sley, which almoſt ſurrounds it, and carries veſſels of ſmall burthen to and from the Baltic. This place is, at the ſame time, a fortreſs, and a noble palace, being accounted one of the fineſt ſeats in all theſe northern parts. The caſtle ſtands to the weſt of the Sley, in the middle of a little lake, and is built in the form of an oblong ſquare, fortified with four baſtions of earth; the bottom is paved with free-ſtone, the curtains are long, and the ſides ſtands north and ſouth. You approach the caſtle by a bridge, which joins it to the ſouth ſhore. It is commanded by a mountain that ſtands north-eaſt of it, from whence the Danes annoyed the caſtle in the year 1675, whence the duke was treacherouſly ſurpriſed by the king of Denmark at Rentſburg. The duke, before his death, had deſigned to rebuild the caſtle, but the front only is finiſhed; if the whole had been completed, it would have been one of the fineſt palaces in Europe. A rampart encompaſſes the firſt court, and the gate of the caſtle is a fine blue ſtone, as hard as marble, with a lantern over it that has 27 lights. On the north ſide of the caſtle there is a bridge of 200 paces over the lake; and at the end of the bridge, a walk, between two rows of trees, that lead to the garden, which is adorned with many fine water-works and caſcades. On the left there is a baſon, or fiſh-pond, 200 paces ſquare, with rows of trees on all ſides, except to the north; there are, alſo, fine arbours on the ſides of the pond; and in the middle, a Hercules, of a monſtrous ſize, repreſented with his club, going to kill the Lernæan hydra. Out of every part the water plays. In every corner of the pond, there are ſtatutes which form caſcades. On the north there is a parterre, in the form of a creſcent divided into ſeveral compartments, with niches round, containing buſts of many kings, and modern princes. There are alſo the repreſentations of many fabulous animals that throw water. At the end of the walk there is a ſmall room, in which is to be ſeen a globe, made by the famous Tycho Brahe, ſo contrived, that, by mechaniſm, it repreſents his ſyſtem of the world. There is another admirable globe of copper, 10 feet and an half in diameter, with a ſphere, wherein the ſun moves in the ecliptic, and all the heavenly bodies are carried round in exact order, by means of certain wheels, which are turned about by water, conveyed from the adjacent mountain. Before this houſe there is a level ground 50 paces broad, and three times as long, divided into three parts: thoſe on the ſides have fine parterres, and that in the middle has a great baſon in the centre, with water-works; the next terrace is higher; and the whole is incloſed with green pales, as high as each terrace, with buſts all round. From the higheſt terrace there is the fineſt proſpect perhaps in the world, viz. the caſtle in the front, in the middle of a lake ſurrounded with a charming country, and a fine plain before it. On the left there is a great orangery, or green-houſe, where they keep the Indian trees, myrtles, pomegranates, and other exotics, in boxes. The park is noble, about four Engliſh miles in circumference

cumference, and full of fallow deer and ſtags. There is a toll-booth, or cuſtom-houſe, where all toll is paid for great numbers of black cattle, that paſs from Jutland into Germany; this produces a conſiderable ſum to the king of Denmark, ſince, in ſome years, toll is paid for above 50,000 head of cattle.

Eckrenford ſtands on a little gulph of the Baltic, which makes a very commodious haven, and affords it a conſiderable trade, being one of the ſafeſt ports on that ſhore. It is about 22 miles diſtant from Gottorp to the eaſt, and ſix from Kiel towards the north.

Chriſtianpreis, the capital of a bailiwick of that name, which borders on the duchy of Holſtein, is ſituated on a gulph of the Baltic, at the entrance of the haven of Kiel, and is commanded by a caſtle that was built in 1637, by Chriſtian IV. king of Denmark. It is about five miles diſtant from Kiel to the north, and four from Eckrenford to the eaſt. It has about 500 houſes, and two gates, defended with ſtrong works. The Eyder ſerves for a ditch, and makes it inacceſſible; and where the river grows narrower they have built a creſcent in the water, with port-holes for 16 pieces of cannon.

Frederickſtadt was thus called from its founder, Frederick, duke of Holſtein and Sleſwic, who built it in the year 1621, peopled it with Hollanders, and granted them great privileges. He endeavoured alſo to ſettle a ſilk trade there, and, for that purpoſe, ſent an embaſſy to Muſcovy and Perſia, which gave occaſion to Adam Olearius, ſecretary to it, to publiſh an account thereof in an excellent book of travels. This town ſtands on the banks of the river Eyder, and is 24 miles diſtant from Sleſwic towards the weſt, and 42 from Gluckſtadt to the north. It is built after the Dutch faſhion, and all religions are tolerated there. The town is ſquare, and ſurrounded with a large canal, planted with rows of trees. It is divided into two parts by another canal, alſo with trees on the ſides. The Lutheran church is built with bricks, and very neatly.

Tonderon is alſo ſituated on the river Eyder, 10 miles below Frederickſtadt, and about 14 miles from the German Ocean. It is not an ancient town, but it has a good trade, which encreaſes daily, by means of its commodious harbour formed by the Eyder. It was formerly well fortified, but the fortifications were demoliſhed in 1714 by the Danes, who, after a long blockade, forced the town to ſurrender upon terms. This is the capital of the bailiwick of Eyderſtadt, and much frequented by the Dutch, who buy black cattle here.

Flenſburg, the capital of a diſtrict known by the ſame name, as well as that of Angelen, or Engeland, the country of the Angles, who invaded South Britain, and beſtowed upon it the appellation of England, is ſituated eight miles to the northward of Sleſwic, on the gulph of Flens, formed by the Baltic; and the harbour is ſo commodious, that ſhips of great burthen may come up, and lie loaded from the warehouſes.

Huſum, which is 10 miles from Tonderon, and ſituated on the gulph of Hover, was formerly flouriſhing and opulent, but it is now greatly decayed; its ruin being deduced from three capital cauſes, war, inundations, and conflagrations.

Lohm-Cloſter is an inconſiderable town, ſituated on the river Lohm-Beoke, about 10 miles from the German Ocean.

Haderſleben is a large ſea-port town, by the lake of Haderſleben, which runs into a narrow gulph, that diſembogues itſelf into the Baltic. The inhabitants carry on a tolerable trade by means of the fiſh that are caught in great plenty, both in the lake and gulph.

Timder, 12 miles to the weſtward of Haderſleben, is a remarkable neat town, ſituated in a fertile ſoil, on the ſouthern bank of the river Wydaw. Here is a ſmall ſtrong fort, which the king keeps in excellent repair. The harbour, however, is choaked up at preſent, and the town hath ſcarcely any trade.

Apenrade is ſituated at the bottom of a gulph of the Baltic, 25 miles north of Sleſwic. It is defended by a tolerable citadel; but has, nevertheleſs, been frequently plundered in time of war.

Luxburg, or Gluckſburg, is four miles to the eaſtward of Flenſburg, near the ſame gulph, but on the oppoſite ſide. It is but a ſmall town, yet has a caſtle, and gives title to the Dukes of Holſtein-Gluckſburg.

THE Duchy of HOLSTEIN, though introduced into moſt ſyſtems of geography under the article of Germany, we ſhall treat of under that of Denmark, for the following reaſons; becauſe Holſtein lies on the north-eaſt ſide of the river Elbe, is ſubject to the King of Denmark, and is one of the richeſt provinces in the dominions of that monarch.

A traveller, who had acceſs to the public records of the kingdom of Denmark, and received many curious particulars from the unfortunate prime miniſter Count Struenſee, thus deſcribes this duchy. The great duchy of Holſtein, which is all united to the Daniſh dominions at preſent, is famous for its fine paſtures, and for producing excellent beef. Great quantities of horned cattle are bought up in Jutland, and other provinces of Denmark, and brought here to be fattened: and their beef, beſides what is uſed for the conſumption of Hamburgh and Lubeck, is ſalted, dried, and exported; the former to Holland, and the latter to all parts of Lower Germany; and, together with an excellent breed of horſes, of which great numbers are exported yearly, bring conſiderable ſums of money into the province, of the whole of which the court of Denmark has not hitherto found the means to drain them; ſo that this province may juſtly be ſaid to be the richeſt in the Daniſh dominions.

This duchy is bounded on the weſt by the German Ocean, on the eaſt by the Baltic, on the ſouth-eaſt by Mecklenburgh, on the ſouth-weſt by the river Elbe, and on the ſouth by the territory of Hamburg, and by Lauenburg. It is 80 miles in length, 60 in breadth, where broadeſt, and divided into four principal parts, or provinces, viz. Holſtein Proper, Wagria, Stormar, and Ditmarſh.

Holſtein is remarkably fertile, and contains many rich marſh, paſture, and meadow lands. Dykes have been cut through the marſh lands at an immenſe expence, not only to drain off the waters, which naturally accumulate there, but to drain off ſuch as are occaſioned by the inundations both of the ſea and rivers, which are frequent. Theſe, however, give ſuch a richneſs to the ſoil of the marſhes, that cattle are bred in great numbers, and fattened in them, and vaſt quantities of excellent butter and cheeſe are made of the milk. In ſome parts of them they ſow wheat, barley, peas, beans, rape-ſeed, &c. which thrive exceedingly. Sheep are bred in the more ſandy, heathy, and barren diſtricts; and woods and orchards abound in other parts. The beef, veal, mutton, lamb, and pork, are all fat and palatable; and the beſt ſea and river fiſh are caught in great plenty. The Holſtein horſes are exceeding beautiful, and, on that account, are highly prized both in Denmark and Germany. The principal people uſually farm out their cattle to a kind of bailiff, who runs all hazards, receives all profits, and allows the proprietor ſo much per head for the whole: thus the gentry receive a certain income without having any trouble, and the bailiff is ſufficiently rewarded for his pains, as he uſually makes a fortune by the extra profits.

The country is in general plain and level, and watered by the rivers Eyder, Sor, and Trave, with many rivulets, dykes, &c. An odd cuſtom prevails here, which is to drain the lakes and ponds, at certain times, and ſell the carp, lampreys, pike, perch, &c. which are found in them; and then ſome years after to ſow them with oats, or uſe them for paſture; and after that to lay them under water, and breed fiſh in them again. The houſes and churches are very neat; for the people here

here, with reſpect to nicety, reſemble the Hollanders. The duchy contains about 30 cities and towns, great and ſmall, and 600 pariſhes. The clergy are annually choſen, and removeable at pleaſure. The people are rigid Lutherans; ſo that they give but very little countenance to Calviniſts, and are ſtrongly prejudiced againſt the Roman catholics. With regard to their character, in other reſpects, they are, in general, well made, finely featured, fair, ſtrong, courageous, and ſo celebrated for their integrity, that the expreſſion Holſteinglaube, or *honeſt Holſteiner*, is proverbial throughout Germany, Denmark, &c. The principal cities, towns, &c. in Holſtein are as follow:

Lubeck, an imperial city, and chief of the Hans Towns, is ſituated at the conflux of ſeveral rivers, the largeſt of which is the Trave, It is 12 miles from the Baltic, where it has a fine harbour, 25 miles north of Lauenburg, 40 north-eaſt of Hamburg, and 117 ſouth-weſt of Copenhagen. It is a biſhopric under the archbiſhop of Bremen, and was tranſlated hither from Oldenburg in 1163.

Lubeck is a government or republic within itſelf, with royal juriſdiction, viz. to make and execute its own laws, as well in civil as in capital cauſes. From the conſiſtory there lies an appeal to the ſenate of the city, which conſiſts of four burgomaſters, two ſyndics, who are civilians, and 16 common-councilmen; each of whom has his particular province, and they are all for life: but the common-council is only formed of lawyers and merchants, with an excluſion of mechanics. Father and ſon, or two brothers, cannot be in the regency at the ſame time.

The name of this city is ſuppoſed to be derived from Lob-eck, the German word for a point of land, which agrees with its ſituation. It is an ancient place, and, as the Poles ſay, was founded by one of their kings, who conquered this part of the kingdom; but the Germans aſcribe its foundation to Codeſchalk, one of the kings of the Vandals, in 1040. It has ſuſtained wars, both offenſive and defenſive, for ſeveral years, not only againſt the dukes of Mecklenburg, but againſt the king of Sweden. It is ſaid to have been a conſiderable city when taken in the year 1134, by Crito, a prince of Rugen, who deſtroyed it; but it was rebuilt in the year 1140, by Adolph II. count of Holſtein, and then firſt endowed with the immunities of the city. In 1158 it was again reduced to a heap of ruins by fire, and was afterwards reſtored by Henry the Lion, duke of Saxony, in whoſe time the collegiate church was founded. In 1164 the famous league of the Hans Towns was begun here, and their college is ſtill kept, together with the records, and common ſtock raiſed by contributions. In 1181 the emperor Frederick I. brought it under ſubjection to the empire; but Henry the Lion retook it; upon which it fell into the hands of Holſtein, and afterwards of Denmark. The city having ſuffered greatly by fire, particularly in 1276, was rebuilt in the handſome manner now ſeen; the ſenate having made an order, that none of the houſes ſhould, for the future, be built with timber, or covered with thatch. In 1350 it was almoſt depopulated with the plague, which carried off vaſt numbers of the inhabitants. At preſent it is a fine noble city, ſpacious, and well fortified; two miles in length, and more than one broad; the ſtreets being ſtrait, uniform and wide. Many of the ſtreets have rows of lime-trees on the ſides, and a canal in the middle. The churches are magnificent, and about twenty of them have high ſpires. The two chief ſtreets leading from the cathedral, and the Miller's Gate, to the royal and caſtle gate, being the higheſt parts of the city, are interſected by others that deſcend gradually on each ſide to the Trave and Wagnitz Rivers. The houſes are large and ſtately, being built of brick, covered with tiles, generally high, and adorned with ſculpture. The river Trave brings ſhips into the very heart of the city, which is near ten miles from the ſea. The largeſt veſſels, however, unload at Travemund, a fort on the bay of Lubeck. The principal trade is to Riga, Revel, Narva, and Peterſburg; and the magazines and warehouſes are well ſtocked with the productions and commodities of England, France, Spain, Holland, the Eaſt and Weſt Indies, &c. The fortifications are ſtrong, well finiſhed, and kept in good repair. The baſtions are lofty and extenſive, the out-works numerous, and the haven defended by ſeveral forts and ramparts. The ſeveral market-places are large, and well ſupplied; and the public buildings ſtately, particularly the ſenate-houſe, arſenals, hoſpitals, &c. St Mary's church is the moſt conſiderable in the place being a lofty edifice, ſtanding in the midſt of the city, and has a double ſteeple, two hundred and ſeventeen yards high, built in 1304. The inſide of it is profuſely ornamented with pillars, monuments, &c. but there are few of them which deſerve much notice. The great altar is very richly executed in marble, by Quillin, who did ſo many at Antwerp; and near it is a famous clock, which is the moſt remarkable object at Lubeck, exhibiting the eliptic, zodiac, equator, and topics, and the planets in their ſeveral courſes; which are ſo minutely done, that the ſtation of any of them is to be found at every hour of the day. It ſhews the regular variations of the celeſtial bodies, ſun riſing and ſetting, the eclipſes, feſtivals, and other remarkable days; all which it will continue to ſhew till the year 1875. Beſides all this, there are ſeveral automatons; and among others, a figure of our Saviour, with a door on its right hand, which opening at twelve at noon, out come, in order of proceſſion, the emperor and the ſeven eldeſt electors, and turning to the image, make a profound obeiſance: this the figure returns by a wave of his hand; after which the whole groupe retires in the ſame order, through a door on the left, and both doors ſhut directly. In the tower is another piece of machinery, the chimes, which plays the hours with a pleaſing melody, and minute exactneſs. Under them is the bell, on which is ſtruck the hour. This is performed by a figure of time; whilſt a leſſer figure, repreſenting Mortality, and ſtanding at the other ſide of the bell, turns aſide its head at every ſtroke. This work, for its preſervation, is ſurrounded with a frame of wire. By the inſcription it appears to have been erected in 1405.

Among others is a very curious piece called Death's Dance, which repreſents human beings in all ſtations of life, from an emperor to the meaneſt perſon, and from an old man to an infant, led round a circle by ſo many ſkeletons, ſhewing that death ſpares neither age or condition.

Ah! what is life, with ills encompaſs'd round?
Amidſt our hopes fate ſtrikes the ſudden wound.
To-day the ſtateſman of new honour dreams,
To-morrow death deſtroys his airy ſchemes.
Is mouldy treaſure in thy cheſt confin'd?
Think all that treaſure thou muſt leave behind.
The heir with ſmiles ſhall view the blazon'd herſe,
And all thy hoards with laviſh hands diſperſe.
Should certain fate th' impending blow delay,
Thy mirth will ſicken, and thy bloom decay:
Then feeble age will all thy nerves diſarm;
No more thy blood its narrow channels warm.
Who then would with to ſtretch this narrow ſpan,
To ſuffer life beyond the date of man?

The cathedral of Lubeck is a building of very great antiquity, being elected in the year 1170, by duke Henry the Lion, anceſtor of the preſent elector of Hanover. The occaſion of building it is mentioned in an inſcription on one of the walls, viz. that Henry the Lion, duke of Saxony, hunting in this part of the country, caught a ſtag with a gold collar and croſs about its neck, on which was this inſcription, *Hoc me Cæſar donavit*, containing the date of the year, which was in the reign of Charlemain: and the duke, from ſurprize at this accident, erected this cathedral,

for commemoration of it, on the ſame ſpot, and endowed it with an handſome revenue. In the top of the church is to be ſeen the figure of the ſtag.

All parts of this city are ſerved with water by pipes from a reſervoir. The next ſtaple commodity to corn is beer, which is in high eſtimation, not only as a pleaſant liquor, but as a medicine, when externally applied to bruiſes, wounds, &c. Here are ſeveral hoſpitals, which are well ſupported. There is one for ancient people of both ſexes, which was once a caſtle, from whence the citizens drove out the Daniſh garriſon. St. Ann's is for orphans, and other children of poor burghers, who are inſtructed in ſome handicraft buſineſs; and there is an apartment for the confinement of libertines and lunatics. There are two other hoſpitals for the reception of poor travellers, where they are allowed three days refreſhment, and then ſent forward with a paſs; but ſuch as happens to be ſick are provided with all neceſſaries till they recover or die. The richeſt foundation of this ſort is St. George's Cloyſter, which is chiefly for the maintenance of ſuch artificers as are grown old and paſt their labour. There is alſo St. Gertrude's hoſpital, which is a peſt-houſe. There are, moreover, ſeveral alms-houſes, endowed by the merchants, for the maintenance of the widows of poor members; beſides ſeveral little ſtreets of houſes for the widows of other poor citizens.

Travemund, dependent on Lubeck, from whence it is but nine miles to the north-eaſt, and 32 weſt of Wiſmer, is a little town near the mouth of the river Trave, One of the counts of Holſtein ſold it, in 1320, for 4000 marks, to the Lubeckers, who fortified it with four good baſtions, erected a light-houſe to guide the ſhips at night, and commonly keep a garriſon here of three or 400 men, commanded by a burgher of Lubeck, who receives his orders from the burgomaſters, and admits no perſons into the place without a paſſport. It was ſeized by the czar in 1617, in order to ſecure tranſports for his troops; but he was perſuaded to quit it. There is a peninſula over againſt it, about a quarter of a league in circumference, which belongs to the duchy of Mecklenburg. The river Trave riſes out of a great lake, in the juriſdiction of Segeberg; and after a ſerpentine courſe, from north to ſouth, by Segeberg and Oldeſlo, turns ſhort to the eaſt, waters the city of Lubeck, of which this town is the port, then falls into the Baltic.

Oldeſlo, or Odelſo, on the river Treve, ſeven miles ſouth of Segeberg, 18 weſt of Lubeck, and 31 north-eaſt of Hamburg, is a little old town, which was formerly a very flouriſhing place, and the capital of this part; but ſuffered ſo much by the neighbouring princes, who contended for this province, and by a duke of Brunſwick, who deſtroyed its ſalt-works, to favour thoſe of Lunenburg, that is greatly decayed.

Travendal, on the ſame river, within a mile of Segeberg, is only noted for ſeveral treaties betwixt the king of Denmark and the duke of Holſtein in 1700, for adjuſting the duke's rights.

Eutin, or Utin, about 16 miles from Lubeck, has given title of duke, and ſeat, to the younger ſon of the duke of Holſtein, ever ſince the year 1596.

Ploen is a town almoſt ſurrounded by lakes: it is the capital of what is deemed a principality of the ſame name. It has a palace, which ſtands high, and commands a beautiful proſpect, and is adorned with pleaſant gardens and a park. The neighbouring lakes and woods furniſh great quantities of fiſh and timber, upon the ſale of which the inhabitants principally ſubſiſt.

Oldenburg, or Alterburg, was once a very conſiderable town, but is now fallen to decay. It is ſituated near the Baltic, 27 miles north of Lubec, and gives name to a ſmall diſtrict. In ancient times the Sclavonian kings kept their court here.

Lemben is a market town on the confines of Sleſwic, not far from the Eyder. It is celebrated for its beer, which is ſent into many parts of the circumjacent country, and even tranſported abroad.

Meldorp, or Meldorf, is a large town, ſtanding on a river or ſtream, called the Meele. It has ſome trade, and three market-places round its church, diſtinguiſhed by the names of the north, ſouth, and weſt markets. Here is likewiſe a public ſchool for the ſtudy of the claſſics and rhetoric.

Heyde is a large but poor town, 10 miles to the north of Meldrop.

Krempi is a ſmall open town, on a little river of the ſame name.

Gluckſtadt is ſituated on the north ſide of the Elbe, 26 miles ſouth-weſt of Hamburg. It is a neat well-built town, and ſo ſtrong as to be deemed impregnable.

The Danes have 2000 men in garriſon here, and ſome men of war in the harbour, which is very ſafe and ſpacious. Here the Calviniſts have a church, the Roman Catholics a chapel, and the Jews a ſynagogue. The town was founded in 1620, when Chriſtian IV. king of Denmark, ordered it to be called *Gluckſtadt*, which implies *Fortunate-Town*. There being no ſprings about the town, the inhabitants uſe rain-water, or that of the river. Thoſe who are convicted of theft receive this ſentence; to draw during life, the duſt carts belonging to the town, to which they are chained like ſlaves.

Bredenberg, or Britenburg, is a village on the Stor, defended by a caſtle: it gives name to a lordſhip that has long been the property of the ancient and celebrated family Ranzau.

Primeburg is a market town on the Pinace, 13 miles from Hamburg, and 14 from Gluckſtadt. It is only remarkable for giving name to a county which fell to the crown of Denmark by the death of its laſt count, in 1640.

Altena, a large and populous village, is joined by a row of houſes on the Elbe to Hamburg. It had its name from the king of Denmark, as it is ſaid, purely to banter the deputies of Hamburg. The latter remonſtrated to him againſt building this town too near their city; and having frequently obſerved thereupon, in their diſcourſe to the king, "Dat is al te na," which, in the language of this country, is "It is too "near," the king, taking particular notice of the three laſt monoſyllables, ſaid to the deputies, he could not excuſe himſelf, if he did not go on with the buildings; but that to oblige them, he would call it by the name they had given it. It was formerly a refuge, not only for inſolvent debtors, but even malefactors, that came from Hamburg; becauſe, though the inhabitants, a few fiſhermen and ſailors, ſubject to the king of Denmark, depended entirely on the trade and buſineſs of that city, yet it was quite out of his juriſdiction. It is noted for a treaty in 1689, betwixt the king of Denmark and the duke of Holſtein-Gottorp; but much more for its calamity in 1712, when Count Steinboch, the Swediſh general, having juſt defeated the king of Denmark and his army at Gadebuſch, came and burnt this town to the ground. The reaſons pretended by the Swedes were, that magazines of bread, beer, &c. were preparing here for the Muſcovites and Saxons; and that it was partly in repriſal for the burning of Staden, and other cruelties committed by the Danes and Muſcovites in the duchies of Bremen and Pomerania; but there was this difference as to Staden, that the Danes beſieged it in form, and deſtroyed it by their bombs; whereas Steinboch was judged to act the part of an incendiary. As ſoon as he appeared before Altena, he ſent in a meſſage to adviſe the inhabitants to retire with what they could carry off, for that he was going to deſtroy their town. The magiſtrates came out in a body, and, falling at his feet, offered him 50,000 rixdollars to ſave the town; but Steinbock inſiſted on 200,000, which they were ready to comply with, and only deſired time to go to Hamburg for the money; but the general would admit of no delay; ſo that the poor inhabitants were obliged to turn out; the mothers with their infants at their breaſts, and ſons with their aged and infirm parents on their backs, others groaning under loads of houſhold-goods, and all lamenting their fate with the moſt lamentable cries. The Swedes ſtood at the barriers with flaming torches in their hands while

while they paſſed, and, before they were all gone out, entered the town, and ſet fire to all parts of it, which burnt 2000 houſes, with ſeveral fine magazines, and the Popiſh church. Several old men and women, beſides infants, periſhed in the flames; but they ſpared the Lutheran and Calviniſt churches, with about 80 houſes that lay neareſt to Hamburg. Never was greater deſolation known. But what completed the ruin of this place was the raging of the plague at the ſame time in Holſtein, inſomuch that the Hamburgers were forced, for their own preſervation, to ſhut the gates againſt their diſtreſſed neighbours, many of whom periſhed with cold and want. The king of Denmark relieved them as far as the neceſſity of the times would permit, and cauſed them to be ſupplied with materials for rebuilding their town. The buildings at Altena are now better in appearance than thoſe of Hamburg; the ſtreets are ſtrait and regularly built, wide, and well-paved. There is a town-houſe erected; and ſeveral other public buildings ſhew that the place is in a flouriſhing and improving ſtate. The merchants houſes are on the water-ſide, ſo that ſhips unload and load at their doors. The king of Denmark made it the ſtaple of the Daniſh Eaſt India company, which has been of very great importance to the town. This meaſure was an admirable one for Altina, by means of her ſituation, diſtributes the India goods were no other town in Denmark could: ſhe ſends large quantities into moſt parts of Germany, and herein rivals the Hamburgers, who are forced to buy theirs of the Dutch. In all theſe points the intereſt of Denmark has been very well conſidered for this laſt century, from a noble attention in their kings to promote whatever has been moſt for the intereſt of their ſubjects.

Toleration is allowed here, which is denied at Hamburg, to all Chriſtian ſects, of whom there is ſaid to be a greater variety at Altena than in any city of Europe, except Amſterdam. The Calveniſts of Holland and France have handſome churches, built all together on two ſides of the ſame court. The Papiſts, tho' tolerated, are not ſo publicly countenanced as the Proteſtants.

Kiel is a town of great trade at the mouth of the river Swentin, on a bay of the Baltic, and the capital of all Holſtein, 17 miles eaſt of Renſburg, 24 of Gottorp, 36 north-weſt of Lubeck, and 48 north of Hamburg, and ſtands between hills on an arm of the ſea, where it forms a lake. It has a good harbour, well frequented by ſhips from Germany, Sweden, &c. and is populous and wealthy. Both the town and harbour are defended by a caſtle on a neighbouring hill. On the right, or eaſt-ſide of this caſtle, the ſea waſhes its walls; and on the other ſide of the bay there is a delightful country, though woody. On the left there is a ſmall arm of the ſea, and another delicate country adjoining to it. There is a garden facing this caſtle, which is the only place whereby Kiel has communicated with the main land; only to the left of the caſtle there is a row of houſes leading to a village called Brunſwick. This garden which ſtands along the ſea-ſide, is above 200 paces broad, and conſiſts of a terrace walk, levelled with the foundation of the caſtle, from whence there is a deſcent to parterres full of all ſorts of flowers, and adorned with a fountain and wilderneſs: and this leads to other parterries, from whence there is a ſmall aſcent to another terrace. It ſuffered very conſiderably during the war between Sweden and Denmark. An univerſity was eſtabliſhed here by the duke in 1665, which has had many learned profeſſors. It is divided into the new and old towns, of which the former is the largeſt and moſt pleaſant, the ſtreets being planted with rows of trees. The old town, which is a ſort of peninſula, is fortified by deep ditches; and there are fine walks of trees on the harbour. There is a palace facing the town on the north-ſide, but it is in very bad repair. Here are ſeveral conſiderable buildings, particularly a large church and an hoſpital, which, before the reformation, was a Franciſcan monaſtery.

The trade of this town is not ſo conſiderable as it was in the time of duke Frederick, who ſent an embaſſy to Perſia in 1633, to ſettle a commerce with that country. But it is much enriched by its yearly fair, which is kept for three weeks after twelfth-day, and frequented by multitudes of all ranks, eſpecially by the nobility and gentry of the duchies of Sleſwic and Holſtein, who meet every evening at a houſe, where there is a variety of gaming; and very often parties are made for ſupper, which is generally followed with a ball. Vaſt ſums of money are here negociated; and payments made of ſums contracted before-hand, as punctually as by an Amſterdam banker upon the exchange; inſomuch, that the man who does not preſerve his credit at this fair, is looked upon as a bankrupt, and ſubjected to puniſhment, beſides the ſcandal. During this fair Hamburg looks like a deſart, becauſe every body hurries either to pay their rents, to renew their leaſes, or to let out money, &c. by which means the town, which at other times is but inconſiderable, is ſo full, that it is difficult to get lodgings.

The old town is ſeparated from the new one by a bridge, at the end whereof is a draw-bridge and gate, guarded.

Renſburg is ſituated near 20 miles weſt of Kiel, and 32 ſouth-eaſt of Lunden, being near the borders of Sleſwic. It is ſmall, but well built, and very ſtrong, having modern built fortifications, a capacious morais on one ſide, and a neat old caſtle, with a round tower, on the other. The town is ſurrounded by the river Eyder, which forms two ſmall lakes, and abound with fiſh. It is divided into the old and new town.

Wilſter is a ſmall town on a river of the ſame name, ſix miles from Gluckſtadt.

Itzehoe is a ſmall town on the river Stor, which is navigable from thence to the Elbe. The country from hence to Hamburg is remarkably pleaſant, and exceeding fertile. The town is divided into the old and new, the latter of which is extremely well built. Here is a Lutheran nunnery for ladies of quality, but they do not make vows, or lie under thoſe reſtrictions which are cuſtomary in Roman Catholic convents, It conſiſts of an abbeſs and 19 other ladies, and has the advowſon of ſeveral churches.

ISLANDS, COMPREHENDING THE PRINCIPAL PARTS AND PLACES IN THE DANISH DOMINIONS.

WE annex our deſcription of the following inſular to the continental parts of Denmark, becauſe, collectively conſidered, they are the ſeat of regal and legiſlative government, contain the metropolis of the realm, the general archives of the nation, and are the ſources whence flow the chief political, civil, and eccleſiaſtical decrees, ſtatutes, &c. Add to theſe reaſons, they are ſo abſolutely blended with, and nearly contiguous to, the other main parts of the nation, that it would be impoſſible to deſcribe Denmark as a kingdom, without taking them into particular conſideration. The other iſlands, not ſo immediately connected with, though ſubject to, or dependant on, Denmark, we ſhall deſcribe in our account of the iſlands in thoſe ſeas, where they are reſpectively ſituated.

Before we enter into a deſcription of theſe parts of the Daniſh monarchy, it is neceſſary to premiſe a few obſervations concerning the Baltic. This ſea, or rather inland gulph, ſituated between Denmark, Sweden, Germany, and Ruſſia, receives into its boſom ſeveral other gulphs, particularly the gulphs of Finland, Bothnia, Livonia, and Dantzick. It is remarkable that this ſea, or gulph, neither ebbs nor flows; and there is always a current from it, that ſets through the Sound into the ocean. It is likewiſe generally frozen over three or four months in the winter.

ZEELAND, ZEALAND, OR SEELAND.

ZEELAND is the moſt extenſive and fertile iſland of the Baltic, and the principal part of the kingdom of Denmark. It is bounded on the eaſt by the Sound, which divides it from Schonen, and on the weſt by the Geater Belt, which ſeparates it from Funen. The

iſlands

iſlands of Moon, Falſter, and Laland, lie on the ſouth; and on the north are the Categate and Schagerrack. It is almoſt of a round form, being 70 miles in diameter, and about 200 in circumference. The land, in general, is low, and very fertile; and its woods, foreſts, &c. abound with game. The coaſt is indented with many gulphs, bays, creeks, &c. which are of great commercial uſe, as they afford many ſecure harbours. The ſea vapours render the air thick, but not unwholſome, as the people here, in general, live to a very old age; but they are dull, diſpirited, and inactive. Zealand is divided into 26 bailiwicks, called herrits, and theſe contain 346 pariſhes, with ſeveral conſiderable cities, towns, &c. Of theſe the principal is

Copenhagen, the capital of the whole kingdom. This city takes its name from the commodiouſneſs of its port; for the word itſelf ſignifies, *The Merchant's Port or Haven.* It is ſituated on the eaſtern ſhore of Zeeland, upon a fine bay of the Baltic, near the ſtrait called the Sound, in 55 deg. 40 min. north lat. and 12 deg. 56 min. eaſt long.

Copenhagen was originally a mean little village of fiſhermen's huts, which, by the aſſiſtance of the biſhops of Roſchild, gradually roſe to be a conſiderable town, and at length was declared a city, and made the royal ſeat of the Daniſh ſovereigns. The houſes were formerly of wood; but in the year 1728, almoſt the whole city was reduced to aſhes by fire; and ſince that time it has been more ſumptuouſly and ſecurely built of free-ſtone. The then reigning king exhauſted immenſe treaſures to erect a ſuperb palace; and the town is embelliſhed with elegant houſes, belonging to the nobility, many magnificent churches, and other elegant public edifices. An ingenious gentleman, however, who was very lately in this city, ſays, "ſo few perſons viſit this metropolis, or kingdom, from motives of curioſity, that they are quite ſurprized when I aſſure them I have no ſort of buſineſs here, and am only employed in the ſearch of knowledge. There is no face of induſtry or buſineſs here; and Copenhagen, though one of the fineſt ports in the world, can boaſt of little commerce. The public places are filled with officers, either in the land or ſea ſervice; and they appear to conſtitute three-fourths of the audience, both at the comedy and the opera. The number of forces are indeed much too large for this little kingdom. They can boaſt, it is true, a vaſt extent of dominion; but of what importance are the barren and almoſt uninhabited mountains of Norway and Lapland, ſtretching to the pole, or the plains of Iceland, where the inhabitants are yet, and will propably ever remain, in the moſt profound barbariſm? Their dominions in Holſtein are by far the moſt rich, and furniſh a large part of the royal revenue. There needs, indeed, no ſtronger proof of the poverty of the kingdom, than the ſcarcity of ſpecie. I have ſeen no gold, and hardly any ſilver. They pay every thing in paper; and if you loſe a ſingle dollar at the card-table, or the billiard-table, it is given in a bill." The excellency of the harbour is owing to the iſland of Amack, which breaks off the waves, and ſhelters from the ſurge of the ſea. Here ſtands the areſenal, the exchange, the caſtle, and the mint, with about 500 houſes, known by the name of the New Town. The whole city of Copenhagen is about five miles in circumference. It lies very low; but there is a riſing ground within about half a league of it, and two or three little hills that cover it on the weſt-ſide, from whence the city may eaſily be bombarded. It has a very regular citadel on the north and north-weſt, built on the ſhore, with ſeveral fine baſtions, with ravelins of earth, well ſtored with cannon, and palliſadoed. The other ſides are of more difficult acceſs, by reaſon of marſhes. There are ſeveral royal baſtions, with ravelins before the curtains, which reach from the citadel to the ſouth part, and continue beyond the arm of the ſea, which ſeparates Zeeland from Amack. A circuit of fortifications, conſiſting of eight royal baſtions, and a ravelin, encloſes the new city, the port and fleet, and faces the tolbooth, or cuſtom-houſe battery, which ſecures the entry into the haven. Theſe fortifications make the city of a round form. The houſes, which are not above 7000 in number, do not take up above half the ground encloſed. The entrance into the harbour is ſo narrow, that one ſhip only can paſs at a time; and this entrance is ſhut up every night with a ſtrong boon. The citadel on one ſide, and a good block-houſe, well furniſhed with cannon, on the other, command the mouth of it. Within this haven rides the royal navy, every ſhip having its place aſſigned to it. A wooden gallery ranges round the whole encloſure where the fleet lies, and is laid over the water in ſuch a manner, that all the ſhips may be viewed near at hand, as eaſily and commodiouſly as if they lay on dry land. This harbour is capacious enough to hold 500 ſail, where neither the wind or the enemy can do them the leaſt miſchief. The road without is very good and ſafe, being fenced from the ſea with a large ſand-bank, on the points of which are always two buoys floating to direct all ſhips that come in or go out. Here are no tides to fear, and there is always a ſufficient depth of water. Sometimes, indeed, according as the wind blows in or out of the Baltic, there lies a current; but it is neither frequent or dangerous.

The iſland of Amack lies eaſt from the city of Copenhagen, on the other ſide of the haven, and is called the Garden of Copenhagen. It is almoſt of an oval form, and was chiefly planted by Hollanders, ſent thither by Margaret, ducheſs of Savoy, and governeſs of the Low Countries, at the deſire of Chriſtian II. who had married her niece, ſiſter to Charles V. emperor of Germany. He wiſhed that his queen might have pulſe, and other garden-ſtuff, planted there, which none knew ſo well how to cultivate as the Hollanders. Half the iſland was granted to them, and keeps to this day the name of Hollandeſby. They ſtill retain the Dutch faſhions, and ſupply Copenhagen with milk, butter, and cheeſe. The other half of the iſland is inhabited by Danes. Beſides pulſe, and other fruit, which this iſland produces, here is alſo plenty of wheat, barley, and oats. It alſo produces abundance of hares. The inhabitants are induſtrious, and their houſes neat and cleanly.

Here is a place which approaches nearer to the nature of a circus than a ſquare. Each ſide is formed of only one ſingle palace; and in the center is an equeſtrian ſtatue in bronze, of king Frederick the Fifth. This place has a good effect, and is much more handſome than the Place de Victoires at Paris. There is a fine collection of paintings in one of theſe palaces, and a very curious private muſeum in another. But the greateſt curioſities, natural and artificial, both for variety and intrinſic value, are preſerved in the Royal Muſeum, in eight chambers, erected over the king's library. The chambers, or apartments, are large and well furniſhed. One of theſe rooms is wholly taken up with medals, antique and modern, each ſort being kept by themſelves, and very judiciouſly arranged; and in a ſeparate caſe are contained the Paduans, and other counterfeit medals, which, in workmanſhip, ſo nearly reſemble the true Grecian and Roman antiquities, that a good judge can ſcarcely diſtinguiſh them from originals. The ſeries of the modern medals of European nations are abſolutely complete, and thoſe of each nation kept diſtinct. Here it is proper to obſerve, by way of explanation, that a Paduan, amongſt medaliſts, is a modern medal ſtruck with all the marks and characters of antiquity. The name is taken from a famous Italian painter, called the Paduan, from Padua, the place of his birth, who ſucceeded ſo well in the cheat, that the beſt judges are at a loſs to diſtinguiſh his medals from thoſe which are really antique.

Amongſt the natural curioſities preſerved in the chambers, one of the moſt remarkable is a petrified child.

child. It was cut out of the mother's belly at Sens, in Champagne, in the year 1582, after having lain there between 20 and 30 years; and that it is a human fœtus, and not artificial, is evident beyond all diſpute. Its head, ſhoulders, and belly, are of a whitiſh colour, and very much reſemble alabaſter; the back and loins are ſomewhat brown and harder; but, from the hips downwards, it is of a red colour, and as hard as perfect ſtone can be, exactly reſembling the hard ſort of ſtones generated in the bladder. This fœtus, after it was taken from the mother, was firſt carried to Paris, where it was ſold to a jeweller of Venice, who happened to be there, for about 20l. ſterling; of whom it was afterwards purchaſed by Frederick III. king of Denmark, for 60l. and added to this collection.

In one of the chambers are to be ſeen two elephants teeth, each weighing an hundred and fifty pounds, which were dug out of a ſtone quarry in Saxony.

In this fine collection there are ſeveral large pieces of ſilver ore, dug out of the mines of Norway in 1666, one of which weighs 460 pounds, and is valued at 5000 crowns. Another piece, ſomewhat leſs, is valued at more than 3000; both being ſo rich, that they are reckoned to contain at leaſt three parts ſilver. They are compoſed of a whitiſh ſtone, the cracks or cavities whereof ſeem to be filled with pure virgin ſilver, which, in ſome places, lies in broad flat plates, and in others like pieces of fine ſilver lace. But what is moſt admired in theſe pieces of ore, are the threads, or branches of ſilver, which ſhoot out an inch or two beyond the ſurface of the ſtone, appearing in the form of ſmall ſhrubs or buſhes. Several other rarities of this kind are to be ſeen among the ſilver ores preſerved in this muſeum.

Here are alſo ſeveral large pieces of amber, ſome weighing 40 or 50 ounces; which, upon opening the ditches about Copenhagen, when they fortified the city, were found ſticking to the ſides of old trees that were buried there, like the gum on the plum-trees in our gardens.

In the ſame chamber are a great many large branches of white and red coral, and one of black; likewiſe a pair of ſtag's horns growing out of a piece of wood in a ſurprizing manner.

Here is a human thigh bone three feet three inches long; and two very large ſcollop ſhells, holding about three gallons each, and weighing 224 pounds a piece. Theſe were brought from the Eaſt-Indies; and, it is ſaid, the fiſh they belong to is of ſuch ſtrength, that if a man happens to get his arm or leg between the ſhells when they open, it claps them together ſo forcibly as to cut the limb clear off.

A piece of marble is preſerved in this collection, which the Lutherans reckon a very valuable curioſity, the natural veins of the ſtone running in ſuch a manner as to repreſent the exact figure of a crucifix. Some, indeed, have ſuſpected the repreſentation to have been by art; but, upon the niceſt examination, it appears to be entirely the work of nature.

Among the artificial curioſities there is a ſkeleton made of ivory, two feet ſix inches high, in imitation of a human one; and it is ſo nicely formed and put together, that it may be eaſily taken for a natural one.

There are likewiſe two crucifixes of ivory, and the whole hiſtory of our Saviour's paſſion, beautifully expreſſed in a piece of carved work.

A ſmall man of war in ivory, with ſilver guns, is a curioſity much admired; as is alſo a watch made of ivory, with all its wheels and movements.

Beſides theſe there are many other curioſities in ivory, ebony, box, amber, and other materials, which are kept for the ſake of their elegant workmanſhip. There is likewiſe a common cherry-ſtone, on the ſurface of which are engraved 220 heads, but their ſmallneſs makes them appear imperfect and confuſed.

In this royal repoſitory are ſix golden ſepulchral urns, which were found in the iſland of Funen in 1685, by a peaſant, as he was ploughing his land, and contained each of them ſome aſhes of a greyiſh colour. The largeſt of them weighs two ounces and a half, and the others two ounces and a dram. They are extremely thin, and each has three rings of gold about its neck, with ſeveral circles carved upon the outſide of the urn, having one common center. This diſcovery confirms the accounts given by various writers, that it was an ancient cuſtom among the northern nations to burn their dead, and then bury their collected aſhes in golden urns.

There is another ſepulchral urn of chryſtal, of a conical figure, which has alſo a golden ring about it, and was found near Bergen in Norway.

There are likewiſe in this collection ſeveral veſſels of different ſizes, ſome of glaſs, and others of earth, which are called lachrymal urns, or lachrymatories, being uſed by the ancient Romans to catch the tears of weeping friends, which were afterwards mixed with the aſhes of the deceaſed.

We ſhall conclude our account of this celebrated muſeum with a deſcription of the Daniſh and Oldenburg horns, two curioſities which are greatly admired. The Daniſh horn is of pure gold, weighs an hundred and two ounces and an half, is two feet nine inches long, and holds about two quarts of wine meaſure. This horn was accidentally diſcovered in the year 1639, by a country girl, in the dioceſe of Ripen, in Jutland, and is undoubtedly a piece of great antiquity, by the figures carved on the outſides, which ſeem to be hieroglyphics, &c. It is likely that ſome of theſe figures were deſigned to repreſent their deities; and the horn was probably uſed in ſacrifices, as among the ancient Aſſyrians, and other nations, who, upon ſuch ſolemnities, made a great noiſe with horns and trumpets, and uſed them to drink out of at their ſolemn entertainments.

The Oldenburg horn is of pure ſilver, gilt with gold, weighs about four pounds, and is curiouſly enamelled with green and purple colours. The Daniſh antiquaries relate many fabulous ſtories of this horn, which are not worth repeating; and as to what they ſay of its being given to Otho, earl of Oldenburg, in the year 982, it is plain it cannot be of that date, for the figures and characters on the outſide are modern; which, however, with the enamelling, and other ornaments, are of excellent workmanſhip, and make it a very fine and valuable curioſity.

An ingenious traveller, in ſpeaking of the palace of Roſenburg, in this city, ſays, it was conſtructed by our famous Inigo Jones, and ſtands in the middle of a large garden. It is ſmall, and at preſent very little uſed by the king, or royal family. There is an air of antiquity in all the apartments, tapeſtry, and furniture, which is not diſpleaſing, and impreſſes with reſpect. The grand ſala, or dining-room in particular, is in this ſtile. The hangings, which are not ill-executed, repreſent the various actions by ſea and land, which diverſified the ancient laws between the Swedes and Danes, who ſeem always to have had the ſame rivalſhip and animoſity which the French and Engliſh are diſtinguiſhed for, and which, 'tis probable, they will ever, in ſome degree, retain. At one end of this grand apartment are three ſilver lions as large as life, who ſeem, by the ferocity and rudeneſs of their appearance, deſigned to characterize the age and nation in which they were caſt. Here are ſeveral cabinets full of curious rarities, which the various ſovereigns of Denmark have ſucceſſively collected and left to their poſterity. Many of them are intrinſically valuable, others only preſerved from ſome event or accident connected with them. Among the firſt is a ſaddle, on which Chriſtian IV. made a ſort of triumphal entry into Copenhagen. It is covered with pearls, diamonds, and other precious ſtones; and the ſpurs are of ſtones enriched with jewels. The coat worn by the king, and a light helmet on the ſame occaſion, are likewiſe covered with pearls. They preſerve likewiſe, with great care, a handkerchief of this prince, dyed with his blood from a wound which he received by a ball, that

deprived him of an eye. The man who accompanied us ſhewed me, with exultation in his countenance, a ſword of Charles XII. of Sweden. It is juſt ſuch a ſword as ſuch a monarch may be ſuppoſed to have uſed, and would well become the meaneſt ſoldier. It, indeed, evinces his ſtrength and vigorous frame of body, by its ſize and weight: the blade is at leaſt four feet long, and both the hilt and garde are entirely compoſed of braſs.

The gardens of this place conſtitute one of the chief diverſions of this city, as they are always open, and on feſtivals or Sundays crouded with company. They are large, but not laid out with taſte, or adorned with any productions of art, one ſtatue only excepted of Hercules vanquiſhing the Næmean lion, which ſtands under a portico, raiſed to defend it from the inclemency of the weather. This is of Italian workmanſhip; and the artiſt has found means to diſplay great anatomical ſkill and beauty in the attitude and muſcles of the hero, who, by an extraordinary exertion of ſtrength, forces open, and breaks the jaw of his adverſary.

The other principal buildings of Copenhagen are the king's mews, or ſtables, the orphan-houſe, the opera-houſe, the military ſchool, the royal library, which contains above 40,000 printed books and manuſcripts, in various languages, and the univerſity. With reſpect to the latter, it muſt be obſerved, that, prior to the reign of Chriſtian I. (who was one of the beſt kings that ever ruled the Danes, and, indeed, may be deemed the Alfred of Denmark,) the Daniſh nobility and gentry, for want of proper ſeminaries of learning in their own country, were under the neceſſity of ſending their children to the French and German univerſities and colleges for education. To remedy this great inconvenience, Chriſtian applied to, and obtained leave of, the pope, to eſtabliſh a public ſeminary of learning in his own dominions, when the univerſity of Copenhagen was accordingly founded in the year 1475. But neither the ſucceſſors of this wiſe and patriotic monarch, or even the clergy, have ſeconded his laudable endeavours with a proper degree of ſpirit: for a very intelligent gentleman, who recently viſited this city, ſays, "There are ſeveral hundreds of ſtudents in the univerſity of Copenhagen who were entered upon eſtabliſhments which were made by former kings, when all the neceſſaries of life were very cheap, and when their young men could live decently upon what were allowed them; but now, as all theſe neceſſaries are become much dearer, and as few of thoſe ſtudents have any private fortune, many of them are in the greateſt miſery. I have met with ſeveral young men of lively parts, in the univerſity, which might make a conſiderable figure in the world; but ſince the new titular nobility bear the ſway here, ignorance and impudence, as coming the neareſt to their own character, are rewarded; whilſt real merit, modeſty, and decency, are treated with the greateſt contempt. Some time ſince, the king had a French comedy eſtabliſhed at Copenhagen, to the ſight of which every decent perſon was admitted gratis: but I was really aſtoniſhed to ſee three or four young men of genius refuſed admittance to this comedy, becauſe they were ſtudents in the univerſity, though they were very decently dreſſed, and even ſolicited to be admitted into the galleries; while thoſe places were filled with valet de chambres, and others of that claſs. No claſs of people are held in more contempt, in this country, than the ſtudents of the univerſity. What encouragement, then, have men of genius to ſtudy and cultivate the ſciences?"

Helſeneur, or Elſeneur, is ſituated about 20 miles north of Copenhagen, on a neck or ſtrait of the ſea, called the Sound, and ſurrounded by walls. The caſtle of Cronenburg, which defends Helſeneur, and the caſtle of Helſinburg, on the oppoſite ſhore, command the commerce of the Baltic; for between theſe two forts all veſſels that trade into that ſea muſt paſs; ſo that this ſtrait is the moſt frequented of any in Europe, that of Gibraltar excepted. The caſtle of Cronenburg was built by Frederick II. of free-ſtone, brought from Gothland. Every ſhip that paſſes this ſtrait muſt ſtrike ſail at Cronenburg, and come to the town to compound for the cuſtom, under the penalty of forfeiting the veſſel and cargo. Helſeneur was ſurrounded with walls under the reign of Chriſtian IV. and peopled not only with Danes, but alſo with citizens from ſeveral nations. The city ſuffered very much when Charles Guſtavus, king of Sweden, beſieged Cronenburg in 1658. It was taken by him, but reſtored to the Danes by the treaty of Copenhagen in 1660. This was the native place of the celebrated John Iſaac Pontanus, though his parents were of Haerlem in Holland. He was doctor of phyſic, profeſſor in the univerſity of Hardewyck, and hiſtoriographer to the king of Denmark, and the province of Gelderland.

The caſtle of Cronenburg is four or 500 paces diſtant from Helſeneur, on the ſpot where ſtood formerly the fortreſs of Orekrange. It is built upon oaken piles, faſtened with hewn ſtones, and ſo ſolid, that it ſupports the fury of the tide, which ſometimes beats againſt it moſt violently, without damaging it in the leaſt. It makes a large ſquare court, and was adorned with fine ſtatues; the apartments alſo being very ſplendid. The pipes of the ciſtern, which ſupplied the garriſon with water, and the locks of the doors, were all of fine ſilver, before it was plundered by the Swedes. It has four little towers at each corner, covered with copper: but the caſtle, with the chapel, ſteeple, and ornaments of it, are all going to decay. It has a ditch towards the ſea, ſurrounded with another ditch; and the land ſide is ſecured by five baſtions, and a half baſtion. They have five cannons upon them: but the baſtion that ſecures the paſſage of the Sound has but two cannons, 36 pounders each; and 11 more of ſmaller ſize. The rampart is vaulted with free ſtone. Frederick II. who built this caſtle, ſpent none but his own money in the building of it; and declared, that if he knew there was one ſingle ſtone in it that coſt his people a farthing, he would have it removed.

The unfortunate queen Caroline Matilda was confined in this caſtle. There is a little hunting-ſeat, or palace, about a quarter of a mile from Elſeneur, to which the king reſorts, for a few hours, in ſummer. There is nothing worthy of obſervation in the ſtructure itſelf; but from the roof the proſpect is enchanting, as it commands the town of Helſeneur, the caſtle of Cronenburg, the Sound, and the coaſt of Sweden, for a conſiderable way.

Over-againſt Helſeneur lies the iſland of Huen, or Ween, remarkable only for the caſtle of Uraniburg, built by the famous Tycho Brahe. King Frederick II. had given him that iſland for his life, that he might build an obſervatory there, with other buildings proper for his purpoſe. The king gave him alſo a penſion of 2000 golden crowns, a conſiderable fief in Norway, and a prebend in the church of Roſchild. This iſland was perfectly well ſuited to Tycho Brahe's deſign; for it is properly a hill, which riſes in the middle of the ſea, the top of which is flat and ſmooth, and commands a proſpect all over the coaſt of Schonen, and the neighbouring country, affording thus a very extenſive horizon. Add to this, that the ſky is here generally clear, there ſeldom ariſing any fogs. Tycho Brahe laid, towards the middle of the iſland, the foundation of his caſtle, which he named Uraniburg, that is to ſay, the Town of Heaven; and finiſhed it in four years time. From the diſpoſition and convenience of the apartments, together with the engines and inſtruments for obſervations it contained, it was looked upon as a building that had not its equal in the world. In the neighbourhood of it were lodgings for workmen of all kinds, maintained at the expence of the maſter; a printing-houſe, a paper-mill, forges for making of inſtruments, laboratories for chymical experiments, &c. Four years after he built, in the ſouth part of the iſland, another houſe, which he called Stelburg, that is, Starburg; there he kept ſeveral inſtruments, and lodged

ſome

ſome ſtudents and ſervants, who applied themſelves to ſome particular ſtudy. But Uraniburg is now gone to decay. The iſland of Huen belongs now to the Swedes.

The chair in which Tycho Brahe uſed to ſit, to make his aſtronomical obſervations, is ſtill preſerved in the Royal Muſeum, and held, by the Danes, in the higheſt veneration. "Thus (ſays a judicious traveller in a letter to a friend) it ever happens! I need not remind you that the aſtronomer himſelf was driven from his native country by faction and malevolence; or that he died at Prague, in the court, and under the protection, of the emperor Rodolphus, who ſheltered this illuſtrious fugitive, and afforded him an aſylum. Dr. Johnſon's lines, ſo often quoted on ſimilar occaſions, are very applicable:

"See nations ſlowly wiſe, and meanly juſt,
"To bury'd merit raiſe the tardy buſt."

Holbeck, Callenburg, Ringſtede, Preſto, Koge, Warienburg, Newſtad, Skelſkor, and Korſor, are places which contain nothing worthy of deſcription.

Frederickſburg is a ſmall town, 20 miles diſtant from Copenhagen, to the north-weſt, and 18 from Helſeneur to the ſouth-weſt. It is conſiderable only by the ſtately caſtle and royal palace which ſtands near it. That caſtle was formerly but a ſmall ſeat belonging to a private gentleman. King Frederick II. being charmed with its ſituation, bought it of him, and began to enlarge it. His ſon, Chriſtian IV. finiſhed it. This is the Verſailles of Denmark. The houſe is built on piles in a lake. The body of the caſtle conſiſts of a very fair front, with two great wings. The chapel is well adorned, and covered with gilt copper. It has 12 ſilver ſtatues of the apoſtles; and all the locks, bolts, &c. were ſilver, till it was plundered by the Swedes. The hall is adorned with paintings, and has the pictures of ſeveral of the kings of Denmark, and of the royal family, as large as the life; and a frame of paintings, which repreſents the ſea and land battles of the kings of Denmark. It is hung with rich tapeſtry of mohair, repreſenting the actions and battles of Chriſtian IV. There is a gallery which leads from the caſtle to the hall of audience, adorned with pictures, moſt of which were bought in Italy. Here is a park about nine miles long, of a proportionable breadth, and interſperſed with pools and fiſh ponds, with a mixture of green plods, hillocks, and ſmall vallies. It was ſtocked with fallow deer from England. There is a pretty flower garden behind the caſtle, in the very lake; in which, though it is exceeding deep, they have built a kind of terrace on piles that coſt an hundred thouſand crowns.

Roſchild, or Roſkild, lies at the bottom of the bay of Ifefiord, and is 18 miles diſtant from Copenhagen to the weſt. It was formerly the capital of Denmark, when the king reſided there; but ſince they have choſen Copenhagen for their reſidence, it has dwindled greatly in point of importance, and is much decayed with reſpect to wealth and commerce. Of 27 churches, which formerly embelliſhed this town, only two are now ſtanding. It continues, however, to be the burial place of the royal family. Among the monuments of the Daniſh ſovereigns, ſome of which are extremely magnificent, ſtands a beautiful marble pillar, erected by queen Margaret, as a ſupport to the whetſtone ſent her by Albert, king of Sweden, to ſharpen her needles, in deriſion to her ſex. But it whetted her reſentment in ſuch a manner, that he ſuffered ſeverely for his ſarcaſm; for he was taken priſoner by the queen, detained ſeven years in cuſtody, and obliged to relinquiſh all his pretenſions to the crown of Sweden. Here is a convent of Lutheran nuns belonging to the beſt families; but they are not obliged to wear any particular habit, or to be reſtricted by the vows uſual in convents; but are permitted, if they think proper, to quit the convent, and marry. In 1658 the famous treaty of peace was here concluded between Denmark and Sweden. The univerſity is in a declining condition; and, indeed, the whole town exhibits evident marks of poverty and decay.

Sora is ſituated on the banks of a lake, about the center of Zealand, was formerly the ſeat of a rich abbey, and has many pleaſant fields and foreſts near it. To this place the academy of Frederickſburg was removed, and the foundations of the univerſity were augmented by Chriſtian IV. Charles Guſtavus, king of Sweden, was educated here, and retained ſuch a veneration for the place, that when he invaded Zealand, he would not ſuffer his ſoldiers to enter the town. But the revenues of this ſeminary have been annexed to the crown of Denmark, and the whole is gone to decay. Abſolom, archbiſhop of Lunden, once founded here an eſtabliſhment for the maintenance of thoſe who ſhould write the hiſtory of Denmark; and to this foundation we owe the hiſtory written by the celebrated Saxo Grammaticus.

FUNEN.

THIS iſland is the next to that of Zealand, in the ſcale of importance, among the ſeveral parts which form the Daniſh kingdom. It is bounded by the Greater Belt on the eaſt, by the Leſſer Belt on the weſt, by the Baltic on the ſouth, and by a little channel, which ſeparates it from the iſland of Samſæ, on the north. It is about 36 miles from eaſt to weſt, and 30 from north to ſouth. The country is fertile and agreeable, being finely diverſified with verdant hills, ſhady woods, pleaſant groves, fruitful fields, rich paſtures, &c. The ſoil is good, well cultivated, and affords a great deal of grain, not only for home conſumption, but exportation. Great quantities of black cattle, horſes, hogs, &c. are bred here. This iſland is an appendage to the eldeſt ſons of the kings of Denmark, and is deemed one of the richeſt governments belonging to that ſovereignty. It contains four garriſoned towns, and 264 villages; but the moſt conſiderable places, and the only ones, indeed, worthy of deſcription, are the following.

Odenſee, the capital of the iſland, ſtands about its center, and is a capacious, well-built, pleaſant town. Here the kings once reſided, and the aſſembly of the ſtates met before the crown became hereditary, and the ſovereign abſolute. In a church here, which is dedicated to St. Canute, the body of that prince was found near a century and a half ago. It was depoſited in a copper coffin, gilt, and adorned with precious ſtones. The moſt particular circumſtance relative to this town, at preſent, is, that the inhabitants brew the beſt beer in the whole kingdom.

Nyburg lies on the narrower part of the Greater Belt, between Funen and Zealand. This place has ſome trade, the harbour is good, and the adjacent country is fertile. The damages done to the fortifications in the late wars with Sweden, are not yet thoroughly repaired. Embarkations for the iſland of Zealand are made at this town.

Schwenborg is an agreeable town, with a commodious harbour, ſituate on the ſouth-eaſt part of the iſland. From hence Charles Guſtavus, in the year 1658, began his march, over the ice, to the iſlands of Langeland, Zealand, and Falſter.

Woburg, or Foburg, is a ſmall town, ſituate on a little gulph on the ſouthern coaſt of Funen, over-againſt the iſland of Arroe, and is about 10 miles diſtant from Schwenborg to the weſt.

Aſſens lies on the ſouth-weſt coaſt of this iſland, over-againſt Haderſleben, in the duchy of Sleſwic. It is about 11 miles diſtant from Odenſee to the ſouth. In the year 1535 the army of king Chriſtian III. commanded by John Rantzaw, routed that commanded by Chriſtopher, earl of Oldenburg, and killed Guſtavus Troll, archbiſhop of Upſal. Rantzaw afterwards levelled this town with the ground.

Middlefar,

Middlefar, on the weſtern ſhore of the iſland, lies on the Leſſer Belt, hence alſo called Middlefar-Sound. It is 17 miles diſtant from Aſſens to the north-weſt, and as many from Odenſee towards the ſouth-weſt. It is a ſmall, but neat town, in a country abounding with all the neceſſaries of life. It is the common paſſage from this iſland to Colding in Jutland; the Belt not being broader here than the Thames is at Graveſend. On the 13th of January, 1658, Charles Guſtavus, king of Sweden, led his army over the ice to this place, routed the Daniſh forces that oppoſed him, and made himſelf maſter of the whole iſland of Funen.

FALSTER.

THIS iſland lies to the north-eaſt of Laland, from which it is ſeparated by a narrow ſtrait. It has Zealand on the north, and the iſland of Moon on the north-eaſt. It is 20 miles in length, and eight in breadth. Its ſoil is very fruitful; and much corn is ſent from hence to Mecklenburg, and other parts of Germany. It is divided into two bailiwicks; that of the ſouth, or Synder-Herrit; and that of the north; or Norre-Herrit. It has ſeveral towns; among which the chief are Nycoping, on the weſtern coaſt of the iſland, of which it is the capital. It is one of the moſt pleaſant and well-built towns in the whole kingdom, and ſtiled, by Dr. Heylin, the Naples of Denmark. It has a ſtrong caſtle, and a well-frequented harbour. Stubcoping, in Latin Stubcopia, ſeated on the north coaſt, is a place of ſome trade, being the uſual paſſage from Zealand into Germany.

ARROE.

THE iſland of Arroe is ſituated near the coaſt of Funen, being eight miles in length, and two in breadth. It is extremely fruitful in corn, and abounds in aniſeed, with which the inhabitants give a flavour to their bread, and ſeaſon their meat. In this iſland are plenty of horſes and black cattle; and ſome woods, in which are abundance of hares. The whole Iſland has but three pariſhes, the moſt conſiderable of which is Kopin, or Kioping. The town belonging to it ſtands on the ſouthernmoſt part of the iſland, and bears the ſame name as the pariſh. It has a trade on account of its port, and is ſituated at the bottom of the bay.

LALAND.

THE iſland of Laland is ſituated on the eaſtward of Langeland, and to the ſouthward of Zealand, from which it is ſeparated by a narrow ſtrait, called Grone Sound. From its lowneſs, or flatneſs, it has the appellation of Laland, or Lowland. It is near 40 miles in length, and about 20 in breadth, where wideſt. The ſoil is very fertile; ſo that Copenhagen is ſupplied from hence with great quantities of corn, beſides what the Dutch traders are furniſhed with for exportation. This iſland is divided into five diſtricts, or bailiwicks, is the ſeat of a governor, and has ſeveral ſmall iſlands ſubject to its juriſdiction. It contains various pleaſant little villages and hamlets, and a few ſeats belonging to the nobleſſe, excluſive of four towns, Naſcow, Saxcoping, Levenſcoping, and Nyſted.

Naſcow, or Naxkow, the capital, is 59 miles ſouth-weſt from Copenhagen, and has a commodious harbour for trade. The fiſhery is of ſome conſequence, and the circumjacent country is rich in meadow and paſture lands.

The reſt contain nothing worthy of particular notice.

MOON.

THE iſland of Moon lies to the ſouth-eaſt of Zealand, and to the north-eaſt of Falſter. It is about 20 miles long, eight broad, and full of high chalky hills. Here is ſome paſture ground, but very little corn land. It was formerly part of the Daniſh admiral's allowance, as being the firſt place for him to reſide in. There are in this iſland ſeveral villages, large pariſhes, and a conſiderable city, called Stege, or Stekoe, which lies on the north of the iſland, on a little rivulet, that a mile lower falls into the ſtrait called Grone Sound. This city made a brave defence againſt the Lubeckers in the year 1510, and forced them to retreat: and the valour of the inhabitants of the whole iſland was ſignalized in 1659, when they defended themſelves better againſt the Swedes than the larger iſlands had done.

LANGELAND.

THIS iſland, which is 22 miles long, and eight broad, is ſituated on the Greater Belt, to the ſouthward of Funen. It abounds with wheat, rye, and barley, of which the natives export great quantities. It is divided into 16 pariſhes; and Rutcoping, on its weſtern coaſt, is the moſt conſiderable town, being defended by the fort of Traneker, which is always furniſhed with a ſtrong garriſon.

FEMEREN

LIES near the coaſt of Holſtein, from whence it is ſeparated by a ſtrait which is not above two miles broad, and is called Der Femmer Sundt, i. e. the Straits of Femeren. Though it is but a ſmall ſpot of ground, yet it has always been looked upon as one of the keys of Denmark, with regard to the empire. Therefore king Chriſtian IV. was more afraid of the Germans becoming maſter of this iſland, than of their over-running Jutland, which cauſed him to fortify all the old caſtles, and put ſtrong garriſons into every place of importance here. This iſland is extremely fruitful in corn and paſtures, and yet has but two pariſhes, namely, Borg and Peterſdorp. There is a fort at the place where people land from Holſtein, called Rethſchans, that is, the Fort of the Paſſage.

BORNHOLM.

BORNHOLM, anciently Boringia, is ſaid to have been diſcovered by Thicloraus, the ſon of a prince of Jutland. It is the remoteſt and moſt caſterly of all the iſlands belonging to the king of Denmark, being about 75 miles diſtant from Zealand to the eaſt, and not above 15 from the neareſt coaſt of Schonen to the ſouth-eaſt. It is about 18 miles long, from north-weſt to ſouth-eaſt, and about 10 in breadth, from ſouth-weſt to north-eaſt. Bornholm is a place of great importance for its ſituation and fruitfulneſs, and belonged once to the archbiſhop of Lunden; but king Chriſtian II. took poſſeſſion of it in the year 1524, as being abſolutely neceſſary for the fleet he was preparing againſt Sweden; which uſurpation George Selteburg, who was then archbiſhop, oppoſed with all his power, but in vain, for he was forced afterwards to fly into Germany, to avoid the effects of the king's diſpleaſure. The Swedes have frequently laid this iſland waſte; and, in the war with Frederick II. they made themſelves maſters of it, and deſigned to keep it; but they were obliged to reſtore it by the treaty of Copenhagen, concluded May 27th, 1660. The moſt conſiderable places are Sandwyck, on the northern coaſt; Rattenby, on the ſouth weſtern; Nex, on the eaſtern; and Sand-Hamer, to the north of Nex, on the ſame coaſt; beſides which there are here ſeveral villages.

MANY little iſlands ſurround the above-mentioned more conſiderable ones; but they are either uninhabited, or of ſo little importance, as not to be thought worthy of notice by travellers, or of mention by geographers. Some others are contiguous to them, and belong to the other provinces of Denmark; the moſt conſiderable of which are Samſoe and Leſſaw, on the coaſt of Jutland.

Samſoe, or Samſoi, is in the Baltic, eight miles from the coaſt of Jutland. It is near nine miles in length, three in breadth, fruitful, healthy, and pleaſant.

Leſſaw

Leſſaw belongs to the dioceſe of Aabur, oppoſite to which it lies, at about the diſtance of 12 miles from the ſhore. It is ſurrounded by ſand hills, but has two places where ſhips may ride ſafely at anchor, on the north and eaſt ſides, and contains three ſmall villages.

Appertaining and contiguous to the duchy of Sleſwic, are the following iſlands, viz.

Rom, which is in length ſeven, and in breadth four miles, contains ſeveral ſmall hamlets, and about 1500 inhabitants. Towards the eaſtern parts the paſturage for cattle is excellent; and on the weſtern ſide of the iſland are ſeveral harbours, in which ſmall veſſels may ride in ſafety.

The greateſt part of Manoe, formerly a conſiderable iſland, has been ſwallowed up by the ſea.

The iſland of Sylt is ſituated to the northward of Fora, and is of a triangular form, the longeſt ſide being about 14 miles in length. It is ſandy, barren, and inhoſpitable; and the people, who are a hardy, clowniſh race, are annually engaged in the whale fiſheries, on the coaſts of Iceland, Greenland, and Spitſbergen. Earthen urns, containing human bones, aſhes, &c. have been found in the hills of this iſland, which farther evinces that the ancient inhabitants burned their dead.

Northſtrand lies oppoſite to the bailiwick and town of Huſum, and was, it is ſaid, ſeparated from the continent by a violent ſtorm. When it became an iſland it was about 12 miles long, and four broad, in ſome places, and in others leſs. Its ſoil is very fruitful, and produced abundance of corn before the inundations we ſhall mention hereunder. It had alſo very fat paſtures, where they fed exceeding good cattle; and they uſed to ſend daily to Huſum, and other places, a prodigious number of ſheep, fowls, ducks, and geeſe, and great quantities of butter. It contained 21 or 22 pariſhes, and about 8000 inhabitants; but it has ſuffered prodigiouſly at ſeveral times by fatal inundations. In the year 1300 the little city of Rungholt, with ſeveral churches and villages, were carried away by the waves, which drowned alſo great numbers of people, as well as cattle. In 1532 there aroſe ſuch a violent ſtorm, that almoſt the whole iſland was overflowed; when 1600, or, according to others, 1500 perſons periſhed in the water. The next year another ſtorm damaged the dykes very much. From 1672 to 1618, there happened every year ſuch inundations, as occaſioned prodigious loſſes, and put the inhabitants to very great expence; and particularly in 1615, when 30 perſons periſhed in the waves. They were afterwards free for ſome years, and had time to repair their banks and dykes; but all their care and precautions proved ineffectual againſt the ſtorm that happened October the 11th, 1634. At ten of the clock at night the whole iſland lay under water, above 6000 perſons were drowned, and, of all the inhabitants, there were hardly 1500 that ſaved their lives. The churches, which ſtood on the riſing grounds, held out the ſtorm indeed, but fell down afterwards; and 28 wind-mills were carried away by the waves. The loſs of cattle of all ſorts was reckoned to amount to 50,000 heads; and the dykes were broke in 44 different places. The whole iſland continued thus overflowed, except a ſmall ſpot of ground which ſtood higher than the reſt. Since that time the inhabitants have laboured, with the aſſiſtance of ſome Dutchmen, to regain part of the land they have loſt.

Amron, or Amroen, is a ſmall iſland to the north-weſt of Northſtrand, from which it is about ſeven miles diſtant. It is in the form of a creſcent, and is only conſiderable for its oyſter fiſhery.

Fora, or Foehr, lies towards the north-eaſt of Amron, and nearer the coaſt of Sleſwic, between Northſtrand and Sylt. It belongs to the prefectorſhip of Tunder, and is of an oval figure, about ſix miles in length, and four in breadth. It abounds in cattle and corn, has about 4200 inhabitants, and ſeveral villages. The inhabitants ſtill preſerve the language, manners, and dreſs of the ancient Friſons, though ſome of them ſpeak the dialect of Lower Saxony.

SECTION IV.

Language, Religion, Learning, and Forms of Government of the Danes, ancient and modern.

THE language of the Danes, like that of the Norwegians, is a corrupted dialect of the Teutonic, and in pronunciation harſh and diſſonant. It is intermixed with many Dutch, German and French words; but the French is the language of the court.

The eſtabliſhed religion of Denmark is the Lutheran. The kingdom is conſidered as divided into ſix dioceſes, viz. one in Zealand, one in Funen, and four in Jutland; but theſe are, in fact, no other than ſuperintendencies; for they are without cathedrals, eccleſiaſtical courts, or temporalities. The principal buſineſs of their biſhops, or rather ſuperintendants, is to inſpect the doctrines and morals of the inferior clergy. The ſuperintendants are not diſtinguiſhed from other miniſters by their habit; the clerical dreſs conſiſting of a black gown with ſhort ſleeves, a round cap with flat edges, and a large ruff about the neck. The revenue of the biſhop or ſuperintendant of Copenhagen, which is the richeſt benefice in the whole kingdom, amounts to no more than 2000 rix-dollars, or about 510l. ſterling per annum. The clergy are wholly dependent on the government, and are obliged to act with the utmoſt ſubmiſſion and ſervility to the court. But to make amends for being obliged to be ſo obſequious to one claſs of people, they take care to ſhew their authority, and domineer over another claſs; for having acquired an abſolute influence over the minds of the common people, they exerciſe a kind of ſpiritual tyranny over their conſciences. The clergy, in general, preach without notes, and ſome of them lead very exemplary lives. Their churches are kept neater, and are more embelliſhed with ornaments, than thoſe of England; but the decorations are uſually inelegant, and often abſurd. This incongruous taſte is very pointedly ridiculed by an ingenious traveller, who, in a letter dated from Copenhagen, ſays, "I have been in all the churches here, whether German, French or Daniſh; but it is not in the Lutheran places of devotion one muſt ſearch for the productions of art or elegance. Madonas and Magdalenas are confined to Roman catholic walls. There is one church here, indeed, where they have placed ſix ſtatues of plaiſter before the high altar. As they have armed two of theſe with monſtrous gilt ſwords, as big as Charles the XIIth's, and a third is employed in blowing a trumpet, I muſt own I took them, at firſt ſight, for a kind of guard drawn up to defend the place; but on a nearer approach I found (probably for fear of ſuch a miſtake) they had chriſtened them all, and placed their names ſeverally and reſpectively at their feet. To four of them they applied the Jewiſh appellations of the angels which occur in ſcripture, Gabriel, Uriel, Raphael, and Michael; but unhappily when they had got ſo far, having yet two figures remaining, and no more angelic titles, they ſeem to have been at a ſad loſs; as under one of them they have put the word cherub, but left it undetermined who he might be; and to the other they have affixed Jeremeill; but who that Jeremeill is continues uncertain.

The Danes have a great paſſion for ſonorous muſic; hence their organiſts entertain the congregation for a conſiderable time, both before and after ſervice. Thus it appears, that where the belles-lettres find a difficulty in gaining ground, harmony will obtain an eaſy admittance; and people without taſte, and who, in general, have but very crude notions of elegance, will ſtill admire muſic.

"Man may juſtly tuneful ſtrains admire,
"His ſoul is muſic, and his breaſt a lyre;

" A lyre which, while its various notes agree,
" Enjoys the ſweets of its own harmony.
" In us rough hatred with ſoft love is join'd,
" And ſprightly hope, with grov'ling fear combin'd,
" To form the parts of our harmonious mind.
" What raviſhes the ſoul, what charms the ear,
" Is muſic, though a various dreſs it wear.
" Beauty is muſic too, tho' in diſguiſe;
" Too fine to touch the ear, it ſtrikes the eyes.
" 'Tis muſic heavenly, ſuch as in a ſphere
" We only can admire, but cannot hear.
" Nor is the pow'r of numbers leſs below;
" By them all humours yield, all paſſions bow,
" And ſtubborn crowds are chang'd, yet know not how.
" Let other arts in ſenſeleſs matters reign,
" Mimic in braſs, or with mix'd juices ſtain;
" Muſic, the mighty artiſt, man can rule,
" As long as it has numbers, he a ſoul."

Though learning, from the attention given to various manufactures, and the ſcience of agriculture, is at a low ebb in this kingdom, it has produced ſome few perſons admirably eminent in the mathematical ſciences, and the art of medicine, ſuch as Tycho Brahe, Borrichius, Bartholines, &c. But the merit of theſe is to be conſidered as the effulgence of a comet, challenging the greater admiration, becauſe ſo ſeldom ſeen. The ſmall progreſs of the Danes in the ſciences, however, appears alſo to reſult from a defective conſtitution, and an oppreſſive government; for the clergy and lawyers, as they are entirely dependant upon the court, and great lords of the kingdom, are moſt meanly ſubſervient. It is true they fill their reſpective places in the ſcale of ſlavery, but they fill them as ſo many cyphers, or rather as ſo many machines, that are moved at the will of others.

As the ancient form of government in Denmark was the ſame with the Goths and Vandals eſtabliſhed in moſt, if not all, parts of Europe, whither they carried their conqueſts, Denmark was, till lately, governed by a king, choſen by the people of all ranks; even the boors had their voices; which king Waldemar III. who reigned in 1374, acknowledged in his memorable anſwer to the pope's nuncio, who pretended to a great power over him: "Our being we have from God, our kingdom from our ſubjects, our riches from our parents, and our religion from the church of Rome; and if you grudge it us, we renounce it by theſe preſents." The ſtates of the realm being convened, were to elect, for their prince, ſuch a perſon as to them appeared handſome, valiant, juſt, merciful, affable, a maintainer of the laws, a lover of the people, prudent, and adorned with all other virtues fit for government, and requiſite for the great truſt repoſed in him; yet with a due regard to the family of the preceding king. If, within that line, they found a perſon thus qualified, or eſteemed to be ſo, they thought it but a point of gratitude to prefer him before any other to this high dignity, and were pleaſed when they had reaſons to chuſe the eldeſt ſon of their former king rather than any of the younger, as well becauſe they had regard to priority of birth, when all other virtues were equal, as becauſe the greatneſs of his perſonal eſtate might put him above the reach of temptations to be covetous or diſhoneſt, and enable him, in ſome degree, to ſupport the dignity of his office. But if, after ſuch a choice, they found themſelves miſtaken, and that they had advanced a cruel, vicious, tyrannical, covetous, or profuſe perſon, they frequently depoſed him, often times baniſhed, and ſometimes deſtroyed him. This they did either formally by making him anſwer before the repreſentative body of the people; or if, by ill practices, ſuch as making of parties, levying ſoldiers, contracting of alliances to ſupport himſelf in oppoſition to the people's rights, he was grown too powerful to be legally contended with, they diſpatched him, without any more ceremony, the beſt way they could, and elected preſently a better man in his ſtead; ſometimes the next of kin to him; ſometimes the valiant man that had expoſed himſelf ſo far as to undertake the execution, or the killing of the tyrant; and, at other times, a private perſon of good reputation, who poſſibly leaſt dreamt of ſuch an advancement.

Frequent meeting of the ſtates was a fundamental part of the conſtitution. In thoſe meetings all matters relating to good government were tranſacted; good laws were enacted; all affairs belonging to peace or war, alliances, diſpoſal of great offices, contracts of marriages for the royal family, &c. were debated. The impoſing of taxes, or demanding of benevolences, were purely accidental; no conſtant tribute being ever paid, or any money levied on the people, unleſs either to maintain a neceſſary war, with the advice and conſent of the nation, or, by way of free gift, to contribute to raiſe a daughter's portion; the king's revenue, at that time, conſiſting only in the rents of his lands and demeſnes, in his herds of cattle, foreſts, ſervices of tenants in manuring and cultivating his grounds, &c. cuſtoms upon merchandize being an impoſition of late crept into this part of the world; ſo that he lived, like one of our modern noblemen, upon the revenues of his own eſtate, and eat not through the ſweat of his ſubjects brows.

The buſineſs of the king was then to ſee a due and impartial adminiſtration of juſtice executed according to the laws; nay, often to ſit and do it himſelf; to be watchful and vigilant for the welfare of his people; to command in perſon their armies in time of war; to encourage religion, arts, and learning: and it was his intereſt, as well as his duty, to keep fair with the nobility and gentry, and be careful of the proſperity of his ſubjects.

Such was the ancient form of government in this kingdom, which continued with little variation (excepting that the power of the nobles increaſed too much) till the year 1660, when, at one inſtant, the whole face of affairs was changed, the crown made hereditary, and the king abſolute.

This ſingular revolution was thus brought about. After the peace with Sweden the whole nation was in a moſt calamitous ſituation; for the treaſury was ſo much exhauſted, that, when the army was to have been diſbanded, there was no money to pay off the troops; hence the ſoldiery became inſolent and licentious. At the ſame time the nobles were proud and tyrannical; the clergy diſcontented, from their want of importance, and the diſreſpect with which they were treated; and the commonalty quite deſperate on account of the heavy taxes with which they had been oppreſſed to carry on the war.

At this criſis the ſtates aſſembled to deliberate and redreſs the grievances of the nation, when it was propoſed by the commons that an equal and equitable tax ſhould be laid upon all perſons indiſcriminately, and without diſtinction, in an exact proportion to their reſpective circumſtances. The nobles, however, ſtrenuouſly pleaded their privileges, which they aſſerted, were a full exemption from their payment of any taxes whatever; and the commons as ſtrenuouſly contended, that as the nobles engroſſed and enjoyed the greateſt part of the lands, wealth, honours, &c. in the kingdom, it was more particularly incumbent on them to bear their ſhare of the common burthen, and to contribute to the general defence. The debates grew warm, and the altercation became violent. Each party conceived an implacable animoſity againſt the other, and the paſſions of all were equally over-heated. In the height of this ferment a nobleman, called Otto Craeg, ſtood up, and, in a tranſport of rage, told the commons, that they neither underſtood the privileges of the nobility, who were always exempted from ſuch impoſitions, or the condition of themſelves, who were no other than their ſlaves. Theſe degrading expreſſions irritating the commons beyond all degree of forbearance, Nanſon, their

their ſpeaker, ſtarted up, and, fired with indignation, ſwore that the nobility ſhould repent their having conſidered the commons as vaſſals, and terming them ſlaves. Immediately the commons, or clergy and burghers, broke up the aſſembly, and marched under the auſpices of their leaders to the brewer's-hall, and, in a few hours, reſolved to make the king a preſent of an abſolute power, and to render the crown hereditary in his family, ſo as that it might deſcend even to females, for want of male heirs. This reſolution they accordingly put in execution the next day; and though the nobility heſitated at firſt on the matter, yet they were alſo obliged at length to comply, and in three days time the alteration was completed; ſo that the kings have been ever ſince, and are at preſent, abſolute and arbitrary, not the leaſt ſhadow of liberty remaining to the ſubject. All meetings of the eſtates in parliament are abolithed. Nay, the very name of eſtates and liberty is quite forgotten; as if there had never been any ſuch thing; the very firſt and principal article in the Daniſh law being, "That the king has the privilege referved to himſelf to explain the law; nay, to alter and change it as he ſhall think proper." The conſequences of this are obvious; frequent and arbitrary taxes, and commonly very exceſſive ones, even in time of peace, little regard being had to the occaſions of them; ſo that the value of eſtates, in moſt parts of the kingdom, is fallen three-fourths: and it is worſe near the capital city, under the eye and hand of the government, than in remoter provinces: poverty in the gentry, which neceſſarily cauſes extremity of miſery in the peaſants; partiality in the diſtribution of juſtice, when favourites are concerned; with many other miſchiefs; being the conſtant effects of arbitrary rule in this and all other countries wherein it has prevailed.

In a word, it may be truly ſaid, that the people of Denmark, with a raſh and deſperate hand, from motives of revenge, fomented by an artful miniſtry and ambitious clergy, reſigned their liberty and independence, and inveſted their ſovereign with deſpotic power over their lives and fortunes.

From this time the kings of Denmark unite, in their perſons, all the rights of the ſovereign power; but not being able to exerciſe the whole themſelves, they are obliged to delegate ſome part of the executive power to their confidential ſubjects.

The ſupreme court of judicature, for Denmark and Norway, is held in the royal palace at Copenhagen, the king being preſent; the tribunal of Holſtein is held at Gluckſtadt; and that for the duchy of Sleſwic in the town of that name. The nod of the ſovereign is deciſive in the council, the members being obliged implicitly to obey his will, as they are removeable at his pleaſure.

Every man, if he chuſes it, may plead his own cauſe; and the proceedings are ſo ſummary, that a ſuit may be carried through all the courts, and finally decided in thirteen months.

Subordinate to the ſupreme court of judicature, at which the king preſides, there are three other courts, viz. the land-ſtag, or provincial court; the Herredsfougds, or diſtrict court; and the Byfoglids, or town court. Appeals lie from each of theſe courts to the other, according to ſuperiority; and the final appeal to the ſupreme court, where an abſolute deciſion is given by the king as the ultimate legiſlator.

The judges are appointed by the king, but removeable at pleaſure. They are puniſhable for miſdemeanors, that is, if the monarch thinks proper to deem their actions ſuch; and thus royally condemned, are obliged to make reparation to the injured party. Their ſalaries, which are inconſiderable, are paid from the king's treaſury, from fines, and from gratuities where ſentence is paſſed. In Copenhagen are likewiſe an exchequer court, to try cauſes relative to the revenue; and a commercial court, to decide all differences reſpecting trade. The admiralty court manages all marine diſputes; and the chancellory executes all manner of buſineſs reſpecting treaties, alliances, &c.

The police in Denmark is very ſtrict. At the entrance of many towns a whipping-poſt ſtands conſpicuous, on the top of which the figure of a man is placed, with a ſword by his ſide, and a whip in his right hand. Gibbets and wheels are alſo placed on eminences, on which the bodies of malefactors are ſometimes left, after execution, to deter others from their crimes.

Some criminals are puniſhed by being whipped in the market place, and baniſhed. Some of the lower ſort are puniſhed by being led through the city of Copenhagen in what is called the Spaniſh mantles. This is a kind of heavy veſt, ſomething like a tub, with an opening for the head, and irons to encloſe the neck. This mode of puniſhment is very much dreaded, and is one cauſe that night robberies are rarely heard of in Copenhagen.

The place of execution is out of the city. Decollation is deemed more honourable by the ſword than the axe. This is the common mode of execution. But of ſome more heinous crimes the puniſhment is breaking on the wheels; and; on executing this on ſtate priſoners, it has been the practice ſometimes to begin with cutting off their right hands. Executions, however, are rare. A great number for child-murder are condemned to work in ſpin-houſes for life, and to be whipped annually, on the day when, and the ſpot where, the crime was committed. This mode of puniſhment is dreaded more than death; and ſince it has been adopted, has greatly prevented the frequency of the crime. The puniſhment for grand-larceny is whipping, and ſlavery for life. Thoſe who are condemned to ſlavery are diſtinguiſhed by a brown coat, with red ſleeves, and irons on one leg, with a chain faſtened to their waiſts. They work on the fortifications, in ſummer, from five to eleven, and from one to ſix. Their bread is coarſe and black. Beſides an allowance of bread, they have a pay of one ſtiver (a penny) per day. They lie on barrack beds.

At Copenhagen the ſtate priſon is in the citadel. In this priſon there are five or ſix rooms, about 15 feet by 14, with one window, and a caſe (or bed) in each. A traveller, who lately viſited this kingdom, relates, that he obſerved here one priſoner who was guarded by an officer and ſoldier in the room, and another at the door, though the guard-room was below. The weather being then very warm, he was permitted to have the window open; and this is all the freſh air allowed ſtate priſoners; for they are never ſuffered to go out of their rooms. The king makes them an ample allowance for diet. At the time of divine ſervice their doors are open, and they hear it by an oblique perforation into the church, through the thick walls oppoſite to the doors.

The ſame traveller obſerved chains faſtened to the walls in the cloſe rooms, where the Counts Struenſee and Brandt had been confined; and was informed that Struenſee, who had been confined above three months, when he firſt came out, though in view of a terrible death, exclaimed, "O what a bleſſing is freſh air!" Here are ſome dark rooms for the puniſhment of ſoldiers, but no dungeons.

In the priſon of the ſtat-houſe there were nine perſons confined for crimes, and eleven for debt. The female criminals were at work in their ſeveral apartments, which were clean; but the male criminals were dirty and offenſive. The allowance granted them is three marks (27 pence) per week. There are in this priſon arched damp dungeons. A reſident chaplain ſays prayers to the priſoners every day.

The blue-tower (the priſon for the bailiwick and ſervants of the court) conſiſts of four ſmall rooms on three floors. There were in it eight men and two women. Their allowance is two pence a day, with which they purchaſe what they pleaſe of the gaoler, who keeps a public houſe, and has a ſalary from the court. Here, as well as in the priſon at the ſtat-houſe, was obſerved the

the neatneſs of the women, whoſe rooms were a contraſt to thoſe of the mens. The reaſon is, that the gaolers wives inſpect the apartments of their own ſex, and are more attentive than their huſbands.

The ſtock-houſe is near the ramparts. Here criminals from the garriſon, and convicts from the different claſſes of the people, are condemned to ſlavery. There were ſeen in this place 143 ſlaves. They never put off their cloaths at night; and as they have new clothes only once in two years, and are very ſlight, many of them were almoſt naked. Some had light chains on one leg, ſome heavy chains on both legs. Others had iron collars. One was chained by his wriſt to a wheel-barrow. Theſe were puniſhments inflicted upon thoſe who had attempted to eſcape, or been obſtreperous.

On the other ſide of the court, down ten ſteps, are ſeven arched dungeons, with one ſmall window, in which were eleven priſoners, who lay on barrack beds. The diſtreſs and deſpair, in the pale and ſickly countenances of theſe ſlaves, were ſhocking to humanity. The traveller before-mentioned went to the ſervice of the chapel, where, of the few that attended, the man chained to the wheel-barrow was one. They ſat together on benches, and ſoldiers were properly placed at different parts of the chapel; and two, with bayonets fixed, ſtood at the door. Service being ended the ſlaves firſt paſſed down. This priſon was extremely offenſive.

In the ſpin houſe were about 300 or 400 priſoners, ſorting, carding, and ſpinning wool for the king's manufactory in Copenhagen. In the court were ſeen ſeveral rooms, with one man in each, employed in either raſping or chopping logwood. Sixty-ſix women were confined for life, and all employed in carding and ſpinning in one room. Several rooms are aſſigned to the ſick.

The public executioner, though univerſally deſpiſed, is uſually rich, as he is not only well paid to deprive culprits of life, but is the general contractor to empty all the jakes, and remove from houſes, ſtables, ſtreets, &c. all kinds of filth, and, in particular, dead cats, dogs, &c. which no other Dane will touch upon any account whatever.

In Copenhagen there is a maſter of the police, who ſuperintends the council and civil affairs of the city; and ſuch diligence and circumſpection is uſed, that a perſon may walk through the whole city, at midnight, in perfect ſafety. To prevent fires, the chimney-ſweepers are bound to keep a regiſter of all the chimnies they ſweep, that, in caſe of an accident from a foul vent, the owner may be convicted or puniſhed for his avarice or neglect.

The apothecaries of this kingdom are under excellent regulations; only two are allowed in Copenhagen, and one in all other towns of importance. They are licenſed by the college of phyſicians, and confirmed by the king; and are obliged to keep an exact regiſter of the drugs they ſell, by whom preſcribed, and to whom ſold.

The code of Daniſh laws is ſo perſpicuous and ſhort, that it is contained in only one quarto volume, which is written in the language of the country, and divided into ſix books, which comprize theſe ſeveral particulars: The procedure of the courts of juſtice, eccleſiaſtical law, official and honorary law, maritime law, property law, and criminal law.

Denmark is divided into ſeven capital governments, each being under the direction of a governor appointed by the king, who is called ſtifts ampts-man; and this ſtifts-ampts man, or governor, is uſually a court favourite.

Each of theſe ſeven capital governments is again ſub-divided into three ſmaller juriſdictions, called ampts; and the governors of theſe ampts are called amptſmen. But ſtifts ampts-men, and amptſmen, are equally ſubſervient to the court, and oppreſſive to the poor.

SECTION V.

Preſent State of Commerce, Coin, Revenue, Armament, Military and Naval, &c.

DENMARK is commodiouſly ſituated for carrying on an extenſive commerce, but the ſubjects are prevented from availing themſelves of it by the intolerable exactions of the great. When an induſtrious farmer here is ſituated upon a poor farm, which he is by his great diligence and induſtry, endeavouring to cultivate and enrich, as ſoon as he has performed the laborious taſk, and expects to reap the profits of what he has ſown, his lord, under pretence of taking it into his own hand, removes him from that farm to another of his poor farms, and expects that he ſhould perform the ſame laborious taſk there, without any other emolument than what he ſhall think proper to give him. Hence many of the farmers, thus diſcouraged, ſcarce raiſe grain enough for their own conſumption, but ſuffer their lands to run to paſture, on which they breed cattle; but, at the ſame time, theſe paſtures will not bring cattle to perfection, as they are obliged to be ſent to Holſtein to fatten.

The commercial commodities of this country are chiefly fiſh, timber, tallow, pitch, tar, planks, ſkins, live cattle, horſes, and, from ſome provinces, grain.

The money of Denmark is reckoned in rix-dollars and ſtivers; the firſt being 4s. 6d. each, the latter rather more than an Engliſh penny.

In 1612 an Eaſt India company was eſtabliſhed in Denmark; and a ſettlement made at Tranquebar, on the Coromandel coaſt: but this Eaſt India trade, though it benefits individuals, is detrimental to the nation in general, as the Danes pay in ſpecie for all their tea, porcelane, bale goods, &c. not having natural productions, or manufactured goods, proper for thoſe markets: and were it not for the ſmall quantities of thoſe goods which they ſend into Germany, Pruſſia, Courland, &c. and the teas which they occaſionally ſmuggle, the whole country would ſoon be ruined by the company.

Chriſtian VI. indeed, did the utmoſt in his power to benefit his country. He aboliſhed the monopolies of wine, brandy, ſalt, and tobacco. He terminated the diſputes which had long ſubſiſted between the crown of Denmark and the city of Hamburg; inſtituted a council of trade; invited artiſts, workmen, and manufacturers from foreign countries, to ſettle in Denmark; eſtabliſhed a bank; maintained a reſpectable fleet and army, &c. &c. and his ſon, Frederick the Vth, trod in his laudable footſteps; but in later times, theſe proſpects have been obſcured by oppreſſion, imprudence, faction, and party.

The revenues of Denmark ariſe from crown lands, taxes, and duties; and theſe are extremely heavy. The landholders pay dearly to the ſovereign for the privilege of holding their lands, for the implements and liberty of cultivating them, and for every neceſſary article of life. All perſons, not ſervants, (the clergy excepted,) pay eight ſhillings annually, as a capitation tax for themſelves, the ſame for their wives, and the ſame for all their children who exceed twelve years of age. The clergy only are exempted, in conſideration of the trouble they take in making out liſts every year of all taxable perſons within their reſpective pariſhes. Here is likewiſe a tax of four ſhillings upon every ſtable where horſes are kept. There are ſome few exemptions from the general mode of taxation; but the perſon ſo exempted pays a particular tax, levied in a peculiar manner.

With reſpect to domeſtics, thoſe who ſerve the nobility are thus taxed: ſtewards and houſekeepers four ſhillings, footmen two ſhillings, and maid ſervants one ſhilling annually. Labourers pay yearly four ſhillings, and their wives two, if not hired ſervants.

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One of the moſt conſiderable articles in the revenue of Denmark is the money raiſed by a duty, or toll, paid by all ſhips which paſs through the Sound into the Baltic; the Sound being a narrow ſtrait between Schonen and the iſland of Zealand. On the Daniſh ſide ſtands the town of Helſeneur, or Elſeneur, and the caſtle of Cronenburg; and, on the Swediſh ſide, the town of Helſinburg. Between theſe paſs and repaſs all the ſhips and veſſels that trade to the Baltic. The Danes, by different treaties of peace, have expreſsly retained their title to the Sound, and receive toll from all ſhips and veſſels that paſs, thoſe of Sweden excepted; yet they do not eſteem the ſecurity of that title ſo firm as they could wiſh; for as they are not maſters of the land on both ſides, they may have the right, but, not the power, to aſſert it upon occaſion, and ſeem only to enjoy it during their good behaviour; as their ſtrong neighbours the Swedes, are able to make uſe of the firſt opportunity, or umbrage, to their prejudice; and this they could perhaps do with impunity.

The laws of nations always run a length
Proportion'd to their wealth, their pow'rs, and ſtrength:
The rules of equity are ſet at nought,
If, to back int'reſt forces can be brought;
For whatſoever politicians ſay,
Their int'reſt points, and paſſions lead, the way.

The origin and nature of this toll are as follow. It was laid by the conſent of the traders into the Baltic, who were willing to allow a ſmall ſum for each ſhip that paſſed, towards maintaining of lights on certain places of that coaſt, for the better direction of ſailors in dark nights: hereupon this paſſage of the Sound became the moſt uſed, that of the Great Belt being, in a little time, quite neglected, as well becauſe of the great convenience of thoſe lights to the ſhipping that paſſed in and out of the Eaſt Sea, as becauſe of an agreement made, that no ſhip ſhould paſs the other way, to the end that all might pay their ſhares; it being unreaſonable that ſuch ſhips ſhould have the advantage of thoſe lights in dark or ſtormy winter nights, who avoided paying towards the maintaining of thoſe fires, by paſſing another way in good weather. Beſides, if this manner of avoiding the payment had been allowed, the revenue would have been ſo inſignificant, conſidering the ſmall ſum which each ſhip was to pay, that the lights could not have been maintained by it; and the Danes were not willing to be at the charge ſolely for the uſe and benefit of their own trading ſhips; becauſe they were maſters of ſo few, as made it not worth their while; the Lubeckers, Dantzickers, and merchants of other Hans Towns, being the greateſt traders at that time in the northern parts of Europe, by which they arrived to a great height of power and riches. But there being no fixed rule, or treaty whereby to be governed, with regard to the different bulk of the ſhips belonging to ſo many different nations, the Danes began, in proceſs of time to grow arbitrary, and exacted ſmaller or greater ſums, according to the ſtrength or weakneſs of thoſe they had to deal with, or according to their friendſhip or diſcontent with thoſe princes or ſtates to whom the ſeveral ſhips belonged; therefore the emperor Charles V. to aſcertain this toll, concluded a treaty with the king of Denmark, which was ſigned at Spire on the Rhine, and was in behalf of his ſubjects of the Netherlands, who had great traffic in the Baltic; and agreed that as a toll-cuſtom in the Sound, every ſhip of 200 tons, and under, ſhould pay two roſe-nobles at its entrance into, or return from the Baltic; and every ſhip above 200 tons, three roſe-nobles. A roſe-noble is worth about eighteen ſhillings ſterling. This agreement remained in force till ſuch time as the United Provinces ſhook off the Spaniſh yoke, when the Danes, taking advantage of thoſe wars, raiſed their toll to an extravagant height, the troubleſome times not affording the Dutch leiſure to attend to the redreſſing ſuch an exaction.

The toll at preſent, however, is greatly reduced, and much more reaſonable; and if the principal maritime powers choſe to diſpute the matter, they certainly would have no occaſion to pay it at all; for the Danes have not a ſufficient naval ſtrength to oblige either the Engliſh or Dutch to pay this toll, or paſs through this paſſage, if they rather choſe to ſhoot either of the Belts. Beſides, the breadth of this Sound, in the narroweſt part, is four Engliſh miles over, and every where of a ſufficient depth; ſo that the king of Denmark's caſtles could not command the channel, was he maſter of both ſides, much leſs now he has but one. It is plain, therefore, that this pretended ſovereignty is very precarious, being partly founded on the inattention of ſome princes concerned in it, to the great injury of trade.

This toll affords the king yearly a conſiderable profit, though much leſs at preſent than it did formerly. About the year 1640 it produced 240,000 rixdollars per annum; but ſince 1645 it has not yielded above 190,000; ſome years not above 80,000. In 1691 it did not extend to full 70,000; and is now much leſs.

All people of rank, who have public employments, pay a ſum equivalent to ten pounds ſterling, for the privilege of being married: people of rank, who have no public employment, pay at the rate of four pounds ſterling; clergymen, citizens, free farmers, and the ſtewards of the nobility, pay ſixteen ſhillings; mechanics eight ſhillings; and ſervants and labourers four ſhillings. Seamen, ſoldiers, and huſbandmen, who are vaſſals, are exempted from this tax; and with very good reaſon, for they are totally unable to pay it; and ſome, indeed, have ſcarce a ſufficiency to purchaſe the common neceſſaries of life.

There is a tax, or exemption ſubſidy, which though exorbitant and oppreſſive, is chearfully paid by all houſekeepers that can raiſe the money, becauſe, by the payment, they are exempted from having ſoldiers quartered on them. This tax is rated by the civil magiſtrate, according to the ſize, ſituation, rent, &c. of the houſe.

Beſides the taxes to government, two more are paid by all citizens and burghers, for the ſupport of their reſpective cities and towns, viz. a capitation tax, and a ground rent tax.

Here is alſo a heavy ſtamp act; and taxes upon patents, commiſſions; a titulary tax, paid by the nominal nobility, &c. From theſe various taxes, duties, impoſts, and emoluments, the whole revenue of Denmark, at preſent, amounts to the annual value of about 1,200,000 l. and this is the utmoſt that government can poſſibly draw from the people, without draining the kingdom of the little money that remains in circulation.

The military ſtrength of this kingdom conſiſts of regular troops, militia, and navy.

The greateſt part of the regular troops are foreigners, and more particularly Germans. The cavalry and dragoons are well mounted, and conſiſt of 11 regiments; and each regiment of four ſquadrons, including the body guards. Of theſe regiments three are quartered in Zealand, one in Funen, three in Jutland, and four in Holſtein.

The infantry is compoſed of 16 regiments, of which two do duty as the king's guards. When the regiments are complete, each conſiſts of two battalions, and each battalion contains ſix companies of 100 men each.

The artillery conſiſts of three regiments, one of which is ſtationed in Denmark, another in Norway, and a third in Holſtein.

The body of engineers is divided into three parts, each of which comprizes 20 officers of various ranks. Since the reduction of the Daniſh forces their numbers are 16,000 cavalry and dragoons, and 30,000 infantry and artillery; the whole of the regular troops comprizing 40,000.

Every perſon who cultivates or poſſeſſes 360 acres of land, is obliged to find one man for the militia, and

pay half the expence of a man towards a corps-de-reserve, to be embodied and called out upon emergencies.

The Danish fleet is composed of about 30 ships of the line, and about 16 frigates; but these are usually kept in such bad repair, that the Danes would find a difficulty, upon an emergency, in fitting out 20 ships capable of putting to sea. To man this fleet there are two orders of seamen; viz. 30,000, who are constantly enrolled and retained in times of peace, by a trifling annual stipend, and being exempted from the payment of certain taxes; and a second class, composed of four divisions, each division having a chief, and ten companies of 118 men each. These are commanded by a captain, who has two subaltern officers under him. In this class, there are a certain number of gunners, who have a kind of naval academy, and instruct the seamen. This second class, or order, contains about 4720 men, who are always ready for immediate service, and constantly kept in full pay. They are occasionally recruited from the enrolled seamen, and wear a blue uniform, faced with different colours, according to their respective squadrons and divisions.

The Danish men of war carry the same complement of men, in proportion to their guns, as the French ships of war do; but they are much inferior in point of construction, both to English and French ships of war; and, indeed, are far from being equal to the Swedish ships.

A marine academy was instituted for the instruction of young cadets by Frederick IV. Appointments were made for 50 cadets to be trained up to a thorough knowledge of naval affairs, and perfectly taught navigation, gunnery, drawing, fencing, history, geography, geometry, several other branches of the mathematics, &c. In order to join practice to theory, they were annually to make a voyage in a frigate, and successively to perform the service of common seamen, pilots, and officers. This noble institution, however, is now greatly, if not wholly, neglected.

SECTION VI.

Ranks or Classes, different Manner of Living, Dispositions, Persons, Dress, Food, Customs, Diversions, Diseases, and Employments of the Danes. Divers Remarks, &c.

THE inhabitants of Denmark may be divided into five classes, viz. the nobility, who have privileged fiefs in the kingdom. The titular nobility. Clergy, lawyers, and students. Merchants and Citizens. Seamen, farmers, and labourers.

The superior classes are of an high spirit, and have as much vivacity in them as any people in Europe, the French alone excepted. The nobility in particular are shewy, fond of magnificence, and live in a mean between the English and the Germans; more sumptuous than the latter, but not with such a general consistency as the former. In their dress the French fashions are principally followed; and the language of that nation, as before observed, is universal among them. In their houses they are expensive, not only in the architecture, but also in the furniture, exceeding, in this respect, the Germans, but not equalling the English. At their tables they resemble the Germans most for cookery, but do not sit so long at their meals. In Germany four courses and a desert will hold, upon a moderate computation, four hours and an half, which, in England, are dispatched in one; but the Danes are between the two, seldom rising, however, under the two hours. Some of the nobility are very expensive in French cooks, but it is not general. In their wines they are particularly curious, both as to quality and variety. Their tables are admirably well served with fish, particularly of the fresh water kind; and sea fish is in great abundance, though not of the best sorts. Wild fowl they abound greatly in, and have a greater variety than in England. Their venison is excellent; but their butcher's meat is not, on the whole, to be compared to that of the English. All the rich nobility have hot houses, and hot walls, fronted with glass, in their gardens; yet, for want of a complete knowledge in the management of the plants, their fruit, in general, is bad. In other sorts of provisions they are upon a par with their neighbours; and their importations of various eatables of luxury have much increased of late years.

The sigh that heaves by stealth, the starting tear,
The melting languish, the obliging fear;
Half utter'd wishes, broken, kind replies,
And all the silent eloquence of eyes,
That teach the fair, by various wiles, to move
The soften'd soul, and bend the heart to love.
Proud of her charms, and conscious of her face,
The haughty beauty calls forth ev'ry grace;
With fierce defiance throws the killing dart;
By force she wins, by force she keeps the heart.
The witty fair a nobler game pursues,
Aims at the head, but the rapt soul subdues.
The languid nymph enslaves with softer art;
With sweet neglect she steals into the heart:
Slowly she moves her swimming eyes around;
Conceals her shaft, but meditates the wound:
Her gentle languishments the gazers move:
Her voice is music, and her looks are love.

Many of the second class, or titular nobility, are foreigners, and in particular Germans, who generally come hither very poor; but by servilely attending the court, and falling into all the schemes of the favourite or minister, usually acquire wealth.

Those who compose the third class, as they are dependent on, are obliged to be subservient to, the court, and submissive to the minister and favourites.

The people of the fourth class are conceited and haughty, but at the same time servile and timid.

With respect to the fifth class, the seamen would be much more alert in their business, if they were better used; and act with greater spirit and courage, if they were not familiarized to fear, and trained from their births, to the most abject slavery. The farmers are perfect vassals, and by not being permitted to have any will of their own, become timid, careless, and indolent. If any of these happen to get a little money, they become perfect sots, and usually destroy themselves by intoxication; taking no delight in any thing but out-drinking their neighbour; and in this they exactly resemble the country squire described by Gay, who says,

Methinks I see him in his hall appear,
Where every table floats with clammy beer;
'Midst mugs and glasses, shatter'd o'er the floor,
Dead drunk his servile crew supinely snore.
Triumphant o'er the prostrate brutes he stands;
The mighty bumper trembles in his hands:
Boldly he drinks, and, like his glorious sires,
In copious gulps of potent ale expires.

Indeed, this vice of drinking to excess is almost general among the Danes. The labouring people are some of the most oppressed and miserable wretches in Europe.

These people seldom enter into quarrels with each other, although they are very fond of drinking, and smoaking tobacco, which are of general use here, and doubtless contribute much to their health, and to the little vivacity they possess in the midst of such a cold and wet atmosphere.

The warlike genius for which the Danes were formerly celebrated, is now totally lost. They are timid, suspicious, deceitful, dull, and, in general, stupid. To be more minute in their characters, an accurate writer says, "Their general character is a strange composition of pride and meanness, insolence and poverty. If any

any gentleman can find a purchaſer for his eſtate, the king, by the Daniſh law, has a right to one third of the purchaſe money; but the lands are ſo burthened with impoſitions, that there would be no danger of alienation, even if this reſtriction was not in force. No perſon would offer money for an eſtate to be held upon ſuch terms; and ſome gentlemen have actually offered to make a ſurrender to the king of large tracks of fertile land in the iſland of Zealand. Conſcious that they enjoy their poſſeſſions, thus encumbered, at the nod of an arbitrary ſovereign, they are at little or no pains to improve their eſtates; and they look upon trade as beneath their dignity. They therefore rack their tenants with the utmoſt oppreſſion, in order to procure the immediate means of gratifying their vanity, gluttony, and extravagance. Thoſe courtiers who derive money from their employments, inſtead of purchaſing land in Denmark, remit their caſh to the banks of Hamburg and Amſterdam. The merchants and burghers tread in the footſteps of their ſuperiors, and ſpend all their gain in luxury and pleaſure, with an impatient avidity, as if they were afraid of incurring the ſuſpicion of affluence, and being ſtripped by taxation. The peaſant, or boor, follows the ſame example; for no ſooner has he earned a rix-dollar, than he makes haſte to expend it in brandy, leſt it ſhould fall into the hands of his oppreſſive landlord. This lower claſs of people are as abſolute ſlaves as the negroes in the Weſt-Indies, and ſubſiſt upon much harder fare. The value of eſtates is not computed by the number of acres, but by the ſtock of boors, who, like the timber, are reckoned a parcel of the freehold."

The Danes, in perſon, are uſually tall, ſtrong, well-limbed, and tolerably featured; in general they have red, yellow, and light hair. In the ſummer they dreſs in light apparel; and, in winter, wear warm furs, or woollen cloathing. They feed upon ſtock-fiſh, ſalt meat, and other coarſe diet. The only good piece of furniture in their houſes is the feather-bed.

The Danes equally feaſt and make merry at marriages and funerals. The nobility pique themſelves upon having ſumptuous burials and monuments for their dead. The principal diverſions of theſe people are being drawn in ſledges upon the ice, during winter, and running at the gooſe on Shrove Tueſday. The king annually partakes of the paſtime of ſtag-hunting, during which diverſion he lays aſide the trappings of royalty, and mingles, as an equal, with his nobles and attendants. Even the common people are indulged with very extraordinary freedoms at this time. When the hunting is over, about ſix in the evening the hunting aſſizes are held in the great court before the palace, where the ſtag, with great ceremony, is cut up by the huntſmen, who are cloathed in red, and have hunting-horns about their necks, while the hounds attend with the moſt clamorous impatience. Proclamation is made, that if any perſon has, that day, tranſgreſſed the laws of hunting, he ſhould be immediately accuſed. Some individual is always ſelected for this purpoſe, tried, and found guilty. Then he is led by two gentlemen towards the ſtag, where he firſt kneels down between the horns. He is afterwards obliged to raiſe up his poſteriors, on which an officer, with a large wand, inflicts a certain number of ſtripes, to the infinite diverſion of the queen, ladies, and other ſpectators; during which the hounds open, and the huntſmen blow their horns, as if in concert, to proclaim the king's juſtice. The criminal having undergone this ludicrous chaſtiſement, riſes up, and makes a profound obeiſance; and then the hounds are permitted to regale upon the ſtag they had run down.

Swan-hunting is another royal diverſion, which the court enjoys in a ſmall iſland near Copenhagen, where thoſe birds breed in great numbers. Before the young ones are ſufficiently fledged to take their flight, the king, queen, courtiers, &c. ſet out for this iſland in a number of pinnaces, encloſe the haunt of the ſwans, and, with fowling-pieces, deſtroy them by thouſands. The fleſh is never eaten, but the feathers and down belong to the king.

In many of their diverſions the Danes follow the faſhions of the French and Engliſh. Cards make a greater progreſs than formerly; and the wives of the nobility, and of ſuch other claſſes as can afford it, have, at Copenhagen, their aſſemblies almoſt as regularly as any at London. The men are great cheſs players, it being a game they are very fond of, and which is more commonly introduced at their viſits than in England. Billiards and tennis are alſo common at Copenhagen. The theatre is French; though they have eſtabliſhed a Daniſh one, where pieces, tranſlated from the Engliſh and French, are indifferently performed. Attempts have been made for an Italian opera, but with no ſucceſs.

The people of Denmark are ſubject to apoplexies and epilepſies, which are owing to hard drinking, and low living. While the peaſants are employed without doors, at their labour, the women are occupied at home in ſpinning yarn for linen, which is here made to a great degree of fineneſs and goodneſs. The cities and towns afford but bad accommodations to ſtrangers, the taverns being poorly ſupplied; and a traveller, to be in any wiſe contented in this country, muſt carry with him a traveller's appetite and patience.

The titles and diſtinctions, of which the Danes are ſo fond, are partly annexed to military, civil, and eccleſiaſtical employments, and partly nominal. The various employments give a kind of dignity, during life, to thoſe who hold them; and the nature of the employ fixes the rank between thoſe who are in the ſame train; but cannot decide the precedency between an officer, a magiſtrate, and an eccleſiaſtic; and therefore this is regulated by an ordinance for the etiquette or rank. With reſpect to the nominal ranks, nobility and title, the beſt information is thus given by a very intelligent writer: "As thoſe whoſe offices are named in the edict, are ſuppoſed to be ſuperior to thoſe who have no employ, or whoſe employ is not claſſed in the ordinance, the deſire, and even the want of having a rank, is the reaſon why ſimple titles, which are not annexed to any employment or emolument, are ſo much the objects of ambition. It is common, in this country, to obtain the title of an employment, which the perſon never exerciſes, and from which he never receives any pecuniary benefit, but even pays a conſiderable ſum yearly for bearing the title: and very often thoſe who have a certain rank by their employments, after ſome time, obtain titles ſuperior to their reſpective functions. Theſe titles are likewiſe ſometimes imaginary; as thus, when a perſon has the title of counſellor of ſtate, of juſtice, or of finances, it is not to be concluded from thence, that he has neceſſarily any part of the government of the ſtate of juſtice, or of the public revenue, except the word *actual* is added to his character, otherwiſe it is only a nominal character which marks his rank. The king of Denmark has a great number of lords of the bed-chamber, who pay about ten pounds ſterling yearly for wearing a golden key, which gives them a conſiderable rank; and yet there are not ten paid for their attendance at court. To the court belong two ancient orders of knighthood, viz. That of the Elephant, and that of Daneburg.

The badge of the former, which is the moſt honourable, is an elephant ſurmounted with a caſtle ſet with diamonds, and ſuſpended to a ſky-coloured ribbon, worn like the George in England. This order was inſtituted by Chriſtian I. at his ſon's wedding. It is conferred only on perſons of the higheſt quality; and the number of companies amount to thirty, beſides the ſovereign. The order of Daneburg, though leſs honourable, is much more ancient. This is beſtowed, as an honorary reward, upon the nobleſſe of inferior rank; its inſignia being a white ribbon with red edges, worn over the left ſhoulder, from which depends a ſmall diamond croſs, and an embroidered ſtar on the breaſt of the coaſt, ſurrounded with the motto *Pietate & Juſtitia*, or piety and juſtice.

Here

Here is likewiſe a modern order of knighthood, called the order of St. Matilda, and inſtituted in honour of the late unfortunate queen; but it is now but little regarded, and conſequently not aſpired to or fought after.

SECTION VII.

HISTORY OF DENMARK, NORWAY, &c.

THE original inhabitants of Denmark and Norway appear, from the moſt authentic intelligence that can be obtained, to have been colonies of the ancient Scythians, and were called by the appellation of the Cimbri. They had ſpread themſelves through all the northern and weſtern parts of Europe, and acquired their firſt fame from their celebrated expedition into Italy, their conqueſt of the Gauls, and ſucceeding enterprizes againſt the Romans, till that people, rouſed by their ancient ſpirit, drove them back into their own country.

Little more is mentioned of thoſe people for many years, when, it is ſaid, that a great perſon, named Woden, or Oden, made himſelf ſovereign of all the northern nations; and his abilities being equal to his courage, he not only ſubdued all around him as a general, and ruled the people for them as king, but formed a new religion for them as prieſt, and preſcribed a code of laws as a legiſlator. Hengiſt and Horſa, who firſt brought over the Saxons into England, derived their lineage from him; and moſt of the royal and noble families of the northern parts of Europe, to this very day, pretend to trace their deſcent from him. Yet hiſtorians do not pretend to aſcertain from whence this celebrated perſon came, or when he died, unleſs a very ridiculous and fabulous account of his death can be credited. They, indeed, ſay, that he lived about 60 years before the birth of Chriſt, and that he was the firſt who ever bore the title of king of Denmark.

Woden's progeny reigned after him in the ſeveral northern nations, and at length revenged the misfortunes and miſcarriages of their anceſtors upon the Romans, by gradually weakening, and at length overturning, the empire.

From Woden, the firſt Daniſh king, to Regner, ſurnamed Logbrog, who began his reign A. D. 750, the Daniſh chronicles mention 18 kings, but furniſh us with little more than their names, or at leaſt with only ſuch fables as are too ridiculous and abſurd for commemoration, or even recital, in this enlightened age.

The prodigious number of people who left this country in the fifth century, to join the armies which effected the conqueſt of the weſtern empire, greatly weakened the kingdom. It recovered about the eighth century, when we find the Danes riſe into importance as a maritime people, and harraſs the coaſts of Courland, Livonia, Pomerania, Ireland, Scotland, France, and England. They even attacked the emperor Charlemagne, burnt his palace at Aix-la-Chapelle, over-run Lower Saxony, Friezeland, Holland, and Flanders; conquered the greateſt part of the kingdom of France; obliged her kings to pay an immenſe tribute; ravaged Spain and Italy, and committed many other depredations. Alfred the Great, king of England, was the firſt monarch who gave them any conſiderable check, by building a fleet to oppoſe their naval expeditions, and attack them on that element where they ſeemed to have ſuch a manifeſt ſuperiority.

At this time the greateſt part of the people were bred up to the ſea from their childhood, and had no ideas of the dangers to which they were expoſed on this element. When a prince had attained the age of 18 or 20 years, he generally requeſted his father to have ſome ſhips equipped, by which he might attempt ſome glorious and uſeful exploit with his followers. This the father regarded as a mark of his riſing courage, and of a great mind. A fleet was armed immediately, of which the admiral, and all his officers and men, made reciprocal promiſes never to return, except loaded with ſpoils and laurels. If they had received any injury from a neighbouring nation, that nation was choſen for the firſt victim. Thoſe whom they vanquiſhed were generally put to death. Sometimes, indeed, they contented themſelves with making ſlaves of them; and often, likewiſe, by a ſingular kind of generoſity, or rather by a deſire of ſignalizing themſelves, if they found themſelves ſuperior to the enemy which preſented itſelf againſt them, they ordered off a part of their fleet; that they might fight the enemy with equal force, deſpiſing the gaining an advantage with ſuperior numbers, and regarding it as an infamous practice to ſurprize an enemy in the night. Their veſſels were always well provided with arms, and their men were all taught to ſwim, ſo that as they generally fought near the ſhore, they were often in a ſituation of ſecuring themſelves, although their veſſels were deſtroyed.

The manner in which the lands were divided in Denmark and in Norway, ſhews us that the chief end of their government was to have a great maritime force. Every diviſion, whether it was greater or leſs, took its name from the number of veſſels that it could equip, and in ſome places their names are ſtill in uſe. In the beginning of their maritime expeditions their fleets were not very conſiderable; but when their princes had enriched themſelves by plundering their neighbours, they came to have 2 or 300 ſail of ſhips of war, and each ſhip to carry from 100 to 120 men. To a nation that is wholly addicted to plunder and rapine, civil laws and a police are of very little uſe. This was ſtrictly the caſe of Denmark when their king, called Gorman, came to the throne in the year 840. The few uſeful regulations which had been left them by Woden and others, were now laid aſide, and the kingdom was divided among two or three princes, who governed with a very limited power: and that confuſion which we find in the hiſtory of Denmark to this time, was occaſioned by one hiſtorian writing the hiſtory of one prince who reigned in this country, and another the hiſtory of another prince who reigned at the ſame time. But Gorman, by uniting to his crown all the provinces of Denmark, of which his anceſtors had been diſpoſſeſſed, and being forced by the emperor to receive the Chriſtian religion into his ſtates, gave this government again ſome form; and from hence we may date the origin of the civil government which exiſted in this ſtate for many years afterwards.

In the year 999 it is related that there was a general maſſacre of the Danes ſettled in England, which is ſtill commemorated annually at Hocktide. Some are apt to doubt the truth of this fact; but however that be, certain it is, that Swein and his ſon, Canute, or Knute, made an entire conqueſt of this kingdom about the year 1014, though ſeveral battles were fought with the Saxon king Ethelred, and his ſon, Edmund Ironſide, before the Danes could eſtabliſh themſelves here. Upon the death of Edmund Ironſide, anno 1017, all the great men acknowledged Canute their king, ſwore allegiance to him, and renounced the two ſons of Edmund, Edward and Edmund, who were baniſhed into Sweden, from whence they went into Hungary, where they reſided many years. King Canute, in the mean time, obliged the Engliſh to raiſe him 10,000l. every year, with which he paid his forces, and maintained his court: and in the year 1019 he conquered the kingdom of Norway. In the 15th year of his reign, anno 1031, he viſited Rome, when he gave great part of the ſpoils of the countries he had conquered to that ſee, and returning to England, died at Shaftſbury, on the 12th of November, 1036, having divided his dominions between his three ſons. To Harold he gave England, to Swein Norway, and to Canute Denmark. Harold died anno 1040, leaving neither wife or iſſue, and was ſucceeded by his brother Hardicanute, the third ſon of Canute, who died in the year 1042. This was the laſt king of the Daniſh race in England; for he was ſucceeded here by Edward, called the Confeſſor, ſon of king Ethelred.

Canute

Canute VI. ſubdued Vandalia, (the preſent Pomerania and Mecklenburgh,) and took upon him the ſtile of king of the Vandals, which country continued ſubject to the Danes 27 years. He made a conqueſt alſo of Livonia.

Waldemar II. extended his dominions in Germany, and lived in great reputation in the beginning of his reign: but count Swein committing the care of his territories, as well as his wife, during his abſence in the Holy Land, to his majeſty's protection, he debauched the count's wife in his abſence, of which her huſband being informed at his return, took the king priſoner by a ſtratagem, and having confined him three years, made him pay 45,000 marks to obtain his liberty.

While the king was priſoner, Pomerania, Mecklenburg, Lubeck, and Dantzick, revolted; the Teutonick knights took Livonia from him; and Adolph, count Schawenburg, ſubdued Holſtein and Stomaria.

On the death of Olaus, without iſſue, anno 1387, queen Margaret, his mother, was elected queen of Denmark and Norway, who, having aſſociated her nephew, Erick, with her in the government, ſubdued the king of Sweden; and it was enacted by the ſtates that theſe three kingdoms ſhould be united for the future under one prince; and, upon the death of queen Margaret, Erick became ſole ſovereign of the whole; but he was depoſed on pretence of mal-adminiſtration, and retiring into Pomerania, lived a private life there till he died.

Chriſtian, earl of Oldenburg, was elected anno 1439, and from him the preſent royal family of Denmark is deſcended. He ſubdued the kingdom of Sweden, which had revolted; and the emperor Frederick gave him the country of Holſtein. This prince married his daughter Margaret to James III. king of Scotland, and gave him with her the iſlands of Orkney and Shetland, the laſt being a very valuable acquiſition, as it affords the beſt herrings in theſe ſeas. Here the Dutch begin that fiſhery every year at Midſummer, without aſking leave of the Britiſh court; though they paid 30,000l. annually for this privilege in the reign of king Charles I. Chriſtian was ſucceeded by his ſon John, who divided the duchy of Holſtein with his brother Frederick.

In the reign of Chriſtian III. the Lutheran religion was eſtabliſhed in Denmark. He was ſucceeded by his ſon Frederick II. anno 1538. Chriſtian IV. his ſon, being engaged in a war with Sweden, in order to obtain peace, was compelled to yield up the province of Holland to the Swedes.

Frederick III. his ſon, was beſieged in his capital city of Copenhagen by Charles Guſtavus, king of Sweden, who drew his artillery over the ice into the province of Zealand; and if the Dutch had not come to his aſſiſtance, would probably have made a conqueſt of that iſland. But though this prince was unfortunate in his wars with foreigners, he raiſed his prerogative to that height, that he perfectly ſubdued his ſubjects, and, from a limited elective monarchy, made himſelf an abſolute prince, and eſtabliſhed the ſucceſſion of the crown in his family in the year 1660, when the peaſants and lower claſs of people complained they were not able to diſcharge the debts the public had contracted during the war, and therefore entreated the nobility and gentry, that, as the profits of the lands were theirs, they would condeſcend to bear part of the burthen; the nobility and gentry, before this time, paying no taxes for their lands. To this they anſwered the commons with great inſolence, told them that they were born in a ſtate of ſervitude, their ſlaves and vaſſals, and did not underſtand their duty. The commons made no reply, but retired from the aſſembly with the clergy, who adhered to them, and going immediately to court, acquainted his majeſty that they were come to a reſolution to make him an abſolute monarch, and his throne hereditary. His majeſty, being apprized of the deſign, had introduced an army into the town, in order to compel the upper-houſe to concur in this reſolution of the commons, if they refuſed their conſent. The lords being acquainted with the ſubſtance of the addreſs the commons had made to the throne, and, ſenſible that they were in no condition to diſpute with the court and them, ſupported by the army, they offered to make the crown hereditary, and entreated that the conſtitution, in other reſpects, might not be altered: but they were given to underſtand, that the king would be ſatisfied with nothing leſs than their unanimous concurrence with the reſolution taken by the clergy and commons, which they found themſelves obliged to ſubmit to, and took the oaths to his majeſty, acknowledging him the ſupreme and only legiſlator. Thus was the conſtitution changed from a republic, with a nominal king at the head of it, into an abſolute hereditary monarchy; not one of the nobility daring to oppoſe it; only Gerdorf, a popular member, ſaid, he was confident his majeſty deſigned the happineſs of his people, and not to govern them according to Turkiſh politics, wiſhed his ſucceſſors might follow his example, and make uſe of this unlimited power only for the good of their ſubjects.

Chriſtian V. ſucceeded his father Frederick III. anno 1670, and being joint-ſovereign of Holſtein and Sleſwic, with the duke of Holſtein, in order to exclude the duke from his ſhare in thoſe provinces, or at leaſt to oblige the duke to acknowledge his dependence on the crown of Denmark, treacherouſly invited him to an entertainment, and then made him priſoner, and ſent detachments of his army to take poſſeſſion of ſuch towns as belonged to him; with which the duke reproaching him, the king anſwered, he was always in the intereſt of Sweden, and never to be truſted; and unleſs he would renounce his right to certain places, he would take poſſeſſion of the whole country; and particularly demanded of him an order to the commander of Tonningen, the ſtrongeſt fortreſs belonging to the duke, to ſurrender it to his majeſty's troops; which the duke conſented to, apprehending the king would have taken his life if he had refuſed, and Tonningen was thereupon delivered up to the Danes. Several other articles he was obliged to ſign, that were very prejudicial to him: but the duke making his eſcape to Hamburg, proteſted againſt the validity of all the acts he had been obliged to ſign. The king thereupon gave orders for the demoliſhing Tonningen, and ſequeſtered the duchy of Sleſwic, cauſing both magiſtrates and people to ſwear allegiance to him, declaring them abſolved from their allegiance to the duke. He alſo cauſed all the duke's revenues to be brought into his own treaſury, continued garriſons in his towns, and even in his palace of Gottorp. But not knowing how ſoon he might be obliged, by the duke's allies, to deliver up what he had ſo unjuſtly ſeized, he exacted contributions from the poor ſubjects, to the value of many millions, to the ruin of as flouriſhing a province as any in Germany, whereby he filled his own treaſury, and diſabled the duke's ſubjects from giving him any aſſiſtance. The duke remained ſtill at Hamburg, from whence he ſent his ſon to the German princes to implore their aſſiſtance. He applied to the court of England, which was guarantee of the peace of the north, but to very little purpoſe, till the king of Sweden, Charles XI. undertook his cauſe in the year 1689, and was about to have tranſported an army into Germany for his reſtoration. The German princes, and the Engliſh and Dutch, who were now entered into a confederacy againſt France, being apprehenſive that this might diſturb the peace of the empire, and divert the troops from the French war, held ſeveral conferences on this ſubject at Altena; and, at length, obliged the king of Denmark to reſtore the duke of Holſtein his dominions, after he had been in poſſeſſion of them 13 years; but took no care that the Dane ſhould make him any ſatisfaction for the devaſtation of his territories. From the concluſion of the differences between the king of Denmark and the duke of

Holſtein at Altena, by the mediation of the confederates in 1689, to the year 1696, things remained tolerably quiet: but the late duke of Holſtein, Chriſtian Albert, dying about that time, and the king of Denmark having ſent a deputation to his ſon and ſucceſſor, duke Frederick, to renew the union between them, and to let him have a ſight of the late duke's will, that he might ſee if there was any thing in it in favour of the eldeſt prince, in relation to the ducal part of the duchy of Sleſwic, the duke refuſed both the one and the other; alledging, that the treaty of Altena, in 1689, had not been obſerved, or juſtice done to the ducal houſe, particularly in reſtoring the ſeigniory of Gottes-Gabre, in the iſland of Aroa.

The guarantees of the treaty of Altena, ſeeing both ſides inclined to a rupture, interpoſed their good offices, and engaged them to ſettle conferences for compoſing their differences, which were held at Penenburg: but the duke continuing to introduce Swediſh forces into Holſtein, and build and enlarge his fortifications during the time of the treaty, the king of Denmark marched an army into the country, and cauſed the new fortifications to be demoliſhed in the year 1697, which the duke, at that time, not finding himſelf in a condition to oppoſe, thought fit to acquieſce in, till the death of the then king, which happened the 4th of September, 1699, when he was ſucceeded by his ſon, Frederick IV. This the duke looked upon as a favourable opportunity to rebuild the fortifications which had been deſtroyed, eſpecially as having married the king of Sweden's ſiſter, and being aſſured of ſupport from that crown. He began, therefore, to repair the fortifications of his demoliſhed forts, as he inſiſted he had a right to do by the treaty of Altena, and introduced into the country a conſiderable number of Swediſh troops, to prevent their being demoliſhed again. The mediators and guarantees of the treaty of Altena employed their good offices to prevent a rupture, and propoſed that both the Swedes and the Danes ſhould withdraw their troops out of Holſtein, and that the fortifications ſhould not be proceeded in till the matter was ſettled by a treaty.

But the Dane being determined on a war, both with Sweden and Holſtein, and having entered into a confederacy both with Ruſſia and Poland for that end, would not hearken to any pacific meaſures. On the contrary, he ordered his general, the duke of Wirtemburg, to demoliſh Huſum, Frederickſtadt, and other places belonging to the duke of Holſtein, which he ſoon after effected. Not contented with razing ſuch new fortifications as had been erected, he inveſted Tonningen, in which General Bannier commanded with a garriſon of 5000 men. Upon this the princes guarantees gave the king of Denmark to underſtand, that ſince he had rejected all friendly propoſals, they ſhould no longer ſee the treaty of Altena broken, or ſuffer the duke of Holſtein to be diſpoſſeſſed of his country again, under the pretence of oppoſing the building of forts which were already demoliſhed. The duke of Holſtein alſo publiſhed a manifeſto, ſhewing the right he had, by the treaty of Altena, to build fortifications in his dominions, and the injuſtice of the Daniſh invaſion. Not only the German princes, but the Dutch now joined their forces with the Swedes, in order to bring the Dane to reaſon; and as they were marching towards Tonningen, the Daniſh general thought fit to raiſe the ſiege, without coming to a battle. The Engliſh and Dutch alſo ſent each of them a ſquadron into the Baltic, and, joining the Swediſh fleet, compelled the Danes to retire into the harbour of Copenhagen. In the mean time the young king of Sweden landed with 15,000 horſe and foot upon the iſland of Zealand, about three miles to the ſouthward of Elſineur, and was preparing to inveſt Copenhagen, when the Dane, finding himſelf overpowered, was glad to accept of ſuch terms as the princes guarantees, who at this time held their conferences at Travendale, were pleaſed to preſcribe.

By this treaty, which was concluded the 18th of Auguſt 1700, it was agreed, that the houſe of Holſtein ſhould continue independent ſovereigns in Holſtein and Sleſwic; and the crown of Denmark ſhould pay the duke of Holſtein 260,000 crowns for the damages they had done him. A miſunderſtanding, however, happened between the two courts the year following; one part of the chapter of Lubeck chuſing the brother of the duke of Holſtein coadjutor, and ſucceſſor to their biſhop, and the other chuſing the king of Denmark's ſon. The biſhop dying anno 1705, the king of Denmark determined to make good his ſon's election to that biſhopric by force, and took ſeveral places belonging to Lubeck; but the court of Great Britain interpoſing, the duke of Holſtein's brother was afterwards confirmed in the poſſeſſion of the biſhopric of Lubeck, in conſideration of a ſubſidy granted by Great Britain to Denmark, for a body of Daniſh troops to join the allies againſt France, which they could not have had, if the war had been revived at that time in the north; one article in this treaty being, that the duke of Holſtein ſhould permit that body of Danes to paſs through his territories, and join the confederates. The duke of Holſtein having been killed at the battle of Liſſau in Poland, anno 1702, and ſucceeded by his ſon Charles Frederick, an infant of two years old, the duke of Holſtein Eutin, brother to the late duke of Holſtein Gottorp, and afterwards biſhop of Lubeck, was conſtituted regent of Holſtein during his nephew's minority.

Charles XII. of Sweden, being defeated by the Ruſſians at Pultowa, anno 1709, Frederick, king of Denmark, immediately joined his former allies, the Czar, and Auguſtus, king of Poland, and recalled the Daniſh troops which were in the emperor's ſervice in Hungary, and quartered them in Holſtein. He tranſported 10,000 men from Norway to Denmark, levied new troops at Hamburg, and fitted out a ſtrong ſquadron of men of war. Having aſſembled an army of 18 or 20,000 men, the king of Denmark, on the 28th of November, 1709, publiſhed a manifeſto to juſtify this intended enterprize, ſetting forth, that the ambitious deſigns of the king of Sweden, who had, for a ſucceſſion of years, evinced the moſt hoſtile intentions againſt him and his ſubjects, as well as arrogated to himſelf titles derogatory to the crown of Denmark, had compelled him to declare war againſt all the territories of Sweden, except thoſe in Germany; and embarking 6000 horſe and dragoons, and 12,000 foot, he made a deſcent upon Schonen, landing at Helſinburg, the 12th of November, 1709: but it being winter time, he only took up his quarters in the country towns at firſt, and invited the people of Sweden to join him, waiting for a proper ſeaſon to enter upon action, which gave the Swedes time to put themſelves in a poſture to defend their country.

About the middle of January, through favour of a hard froſt, the Danes advanced towards Chriſtianſtadt, where a battalion of Saxons, which were in garriſon, laid down their arms, and went over to the Danes, ſo that the town fell into their hands. They afterwards made themſelves maſters of Carelſhaven, in the province of Bleking, and threatened Carelſcroon, where the Swediſh fleet and magazines were laid up. At the ſame time a ſtrong detachment extended themſelves towards Holland on the weſtern ſide of Schonen; and their forces receiving frequent ſupplies, their army was conſiderably increaſed, and became very formidable. But the Swediſh general, count Steinboch, having aſſembled 18,000 or 20,000 men, and marching towards Helſinburg, as if he intended to cut off the communication of the Danes with that place, they immediately abandoned all their conqueſts, quitting Carelſhaven and Chriſtianſtadt, and retreated to Helſinburg, near which place the armies came to an engagement, and the Danes were entirely defeated. A day or two after they quitted Helſinburg, tranſporting the remainder of their troops to Denmark in the night, which, after their

their ill ſucceſs, did not amount to above 6000 or 7000 men. Thus ingloriouſly ended the king of Denmark's expedition againſt Schonen.

The Danes having been diſappointed in their enterprize upon Schonen, the next year joined the troops of king Auguſtus and the Czar, and fell upon Swediſh Pomerania, laying waſte the whole country; and the Swediſh forces not being ſtrong enough to oppoſe theſe united powers, retired into Stralſund, the iſle of Rugen, and other places of ſecurity. The king of Denmark, while the Ruſſians and Saxons blocked up Stralſund, paſſed the Elbe, and entered the duchy of Bremen, where the Swediſh general not having a ſufficient body of troops to oppoſe him, the Dane took the town of Staden, and made himſelf maſter of the whole country. In their return the Danes inſulted the city of Hamburg, threatening them with a bombardment; to avoid which the burghers were compelled to raiſe them 230,000 rix-dollars. Count Steinboch, the Swediſh general, found means afterwards, on the 22d of December, 1712, to engage the Danes ſingly, when they were ſeparated from their allies near Wiſmar; and having given them a total defeat, purſued them into Holſtein, ſeized the magazines the Danes had laid up there, and put the Daniſh Holſtein under contribution. From hence he marched to Pinenburg, near Hamburg, where he determined to burn the Daniſh city of Altena; not ſo much by way of retaliation, or revenge for the many Swediſh cities deſtroyed by the Danes, and their allies the Ruſſians and Saxons, (as he declared in a memorial publiſhed on this occaſion,) as to deter them from committing the like barbarities for the future.

The Danes, Saxons, and Ruſſians, being now joined, to the number of 50,000 men, and marching towards count Steinboch, whoſe army did not conſiſt of above 14 or 15,000, he found himſelf under a neceſſity of retiring into the ducal Holſtein, whither the allies followed, and at their entering he threw himſelf into Tonnington, and by that means avoided them for that time. The Dane afterwards made a pretence for ſeizing the duke of Holſtein's dominions, alledging, that the governor of Tonningen admitted general Steinboch into the place by the direction of his maſter the duke of Holſtein, (who was not at that time above 12 years of age,) this occurrence happening in February, 1712-13. However that be, the confederates blocked up the city of Tonningen till May following; and the Swedes not being in a condition to ſend general Steinboch any reinforcements or ſupplies, he was obliged to ſurrender himſelf and his little army, conſiſting of 9000 men, priſoners of war, on condition of keeping their cloaths and baggage, and being exchanged or ranſomed the firſt opportunity; and thus, for a little time, the war ſeemed to be at an end in Germany. But the allies the next year inveſting Stetin, the king of Pruſſia ſo managed the matter, that, by the agreement of the Czar and the Swediſh governor, the town was ſequeſtered into the hands of his Pruſſian majeſty, and agreed to be garriſoned by an equal number of Pruſſians and Holſteiners, but was to be reſtored to the king of Sweden at the end of the war.

In the latter end of November, 1714, the king of Sweden returning out of Turkey, arrived at the city of Stralſund, and found a league was formed againſt him, in which the kings of Denmark, Pruſſia, and Poland, and the king of Great Britain, as elector of Hanover, were parties; the avowed deſign whereof was to preſerve the peace of Germany, which was propoſed to be done by ſecuring the ſequeſtration of Stetin to the king of Pruſſia, and the poſſeſſion of Bremen and Ferden, and whatever elſe the Dane had ſeized of the dominions of Sweden in Germany, to the Dane, and thoſe to whom he ſhould or had aſſigned his intereſt in thoſe conqueſts. The king of Sweden thought it highly unreaſonable that he ſhould not be permitted to recover thoſe territories again, which had been ſurprized in his abſence. The kings of Pruſſia and England inſiſted, that the reſtoring to the king of Sweden theſe territories, would embroil the north of Germany in a war, and joined in a confederacy againſt the king of Sweden, who had before powerful allies to contend with.

The king of Pruſſia, on the 28th of April, 1715, proclaimed war againſt Sweden, diſarmed the regiment of Holſtein, which was in Stetin, entering upon that city as a conqueſt from Sweden, and holding it no longer in ſequeſtration. The Danes and Pruſſians ſoon after aſſembled their forces to the number of 60,000 men, and appeared before Stralſund, under the walls of which city the king of Sweden found himſelf obliged to retire, his army not conſiſting of more than a fourth part of the enemy's number.

In the month of July a treaty was ſet on foot between the king of Denmark and the court of Hanover, by which the king of Denmark ſtipulated to convey and deliver up Bremen and Ferden, which he had taken from the king of Sweden, to the elector of Hanover, in conſideration of the elector's entering into the war againſt Sweden, and advancing a ſum of money to his Daniſh majeſty. The confederates before Stralſund being joined by 24,000 Ruſſians, and a body of Saxons, carried on the ſiege of that town with great vigour; but finding the place continually received freſh ſupplies and reinforcements from the iſland of Rugen, which lies over-againſt it, they landed a great body of troops on the iſland; and, after a ſharp diſpute, in which the king of Sweden was in perſon, made themſelves maſters of it on the 17th of November.

Still the king of Sweden determined to defend the town till the laſt extremity; and it was a terrible winter's ſiege, the centinels being frequently frozen to death at their poſts. The attacks were deſperate, and in one of them the confederates loſt near 1000 men: however, they prevailed by their numbers at length; and the king of Sweden, finding the town not tenable, retired in a light frigate, and arrived ſafely in Sweden, giving the governor orders to capitulate, which he did the latter end of December, upon very honourable terms; and both the town and the iſland of Rugen were put into the poſſeſſion of the king of Denmark; and all the inhabitants of the Swediſh Pomerania were obliged to take an oath of allegiance to him, except thoſe of the city and diſtrict of Stetin, the iſlands of Uſedom and Wollin, and the lands between the Oder and the river Pene, which were left in the hands of his Pruſſian majeſty.

The city of Wiſmar, in the duchy of Mecklenburg, the only town which the Swedes had left in Germany, was inveſted by the Danes, Pruſſians, Hanoverians, and Ruſſians, the next ſpring, and obliged to ſurrender, after which the king of Denmark was left in the poſſeſſion of it; and thus ended the war in Germany.

The Danes and Ruſſians then made mighty preparations for invading the king of Sweden's dominions in Schonen. The Czar went in perſon to Copenhagen for that purpoſe, whither his generals led an army of 30,000 horſe and foot. The Danes alſo aſſembled between 20 and 30,000 of their troops for this expedition, and had prepared 7 or 800 veſſels to tranſport them. But great part of the Daniſh fleet being employed in Norway during the ſummer, to oppoſe an enterprize of the Swedes on that ſide, all theſe preparations were ineffectual. Upon this the Czar upbraided the king of Denmark, that his fleet was not ready in time; and the Dane retorting on the Ruſſian monarch, that he would not make the deſcent in the latter end of the year, which the Czar obſerved was impracticable. This altercation produced animoſity between them, ſo that the Dane drew up his forces under the cannon of Copenhagen, as if he had ſome jealouſy of his old ally, and the Czar ſoon after returned with his troops to Germany.

The Daniſh monarch being now left almoſt alone to defend himſelf againſt the Swedes, was threatened in his

his return, with an invaſion of Zeland by his Swediſh majeſty, which had certainly been put into execution, had not the king of Great Britain been under ſome apprehenſions that thoſe preparations of the Swedes were intended againſt his Britiſh dominions, or rather for the recovery of Bremen and Ferden, and thereupon ſent a ſquadron of men of war to the aſſiſtance of his Daniſh majeſty, which put an end to the king of Sweden's intended enterprize againſt Zealand.

The following year, 1718, the Swedes marched two armies into Norway; one to the northward, as high as Drontheim; and the other, led by the king in perſon, towards Chriſtiana, laying the whole country under contribution, there being no army in Norway ſtrong enough to oppoſe them. But the Swediſh monarch, laying ſiege to Frederickſhall, was unfortunately ſhot in the trenches, and the Danes and Hanoverians thereby delivered from their fears: for had the Swedes made themſelves maſters of Frederickſhall, as it was computed they might have done in a fortnight more, all Norway had been irrecoverably loſt; and the Daniſh dominions reduced to a very narrow compaſs.

By the death of the king of Sweden the war between Denmark and that crown was in a manner brought to a concluſion; though the peace was not formally ſigned till the year 1720, when the Swedes, being invaded and diſtreſſed by the Ruſſians, were obliged to accept of ſuch conditions as the mediators and guarrantees of it, the kings of Great Britain and France, were pleaſed to preſcribe. By the fifth article of this treaty the king of Denmark obliged himſelf not to aſſiſt the Czar againſt Sweden, or permit the Ruſſian men of war to enter his ports. By the ſixth article the Swedes obliged themſelves not to oppoſe ſuch meaſures as ſhould be taken by the ſaid mediators in behalf of the king of Denmark, in relation to the dominions of the duke of Holſtein. By the ſeventh article the king of Denmark promiſed to deliver up to Sweden the city of Stralſund, and part of Pomerania, as far as the river Pene; to evacuate the fortreſs of Marſtrand, the iſle of Rugen, and all other Iſlands taken by the Danes in the late war; as alſo the town of Wiſmar in Mecklenburgh: in conſideration whereof the Swedes, by the ninth article, renounced the privilege of paſſing the Sound without paying toll, and agreed to pay the ſame toll as the Engliſh and Dutch. And by the tenth article the crown of Sweden engaged to pay to the king of Denmark 600,000 crowns before the aboveſaid places ſhould be delivered to the Swedes. By a ſeparate article it was agreed, that Wiſmar, the fortifications whereof were demoliſhed, ſhould never be fortified again. As to Bremen and Ferden, theſe provinces had been confirmed to his Britannic majeſty by another treaty. By the aboveſaid treaty his Daniſh majeſty obtained the guarantee of the French king for the poſſeſſion of the duchy of Sleſwic; and the king of Great Britain removed his guarantee of that duchy, which he had given by a former treaty.

The king of Denmark now reigning in peace, applied himſelf to promoting the trade of his kingdom; but had the misfortune to ſee his capital city of Copenhagen almoſt deſtroyed by a fire, which happened in the year 1728. His firſt queen was the princeſs Louiſa, daughter of Auguſtus Adolphus, duke of Mecklenburgh, by whom he had iſſue, prince Chriſtian, born December 10, 1699; and Charlotte Amelia, born October 6, 1706; and other children, who died in their infancy. His ſecond wife, the daughter of count Raventlau, his chancellor, he married within four days after the deceaſe of his firſt queen, and died the 1 th of October 1730, in the 61ſt year of his age.

Chriſtian VI. his ſon, married Sophia Magdalena of Brandenburgh-Culembach, by whom he had iſſue, Frederick V. born March 31, 1723, and the princeſs Louiſa born Oct. 19, 1726, and married Oct. 1, 1749, to the duke of Saxe Hilburghauſen. He began his reign with ſome popular acts, particularly in aboliſhing the monopolies for the ſole vending of wine, brandy, ſalt and tobacco, which were very grievous to the ſubject. In the year 1732 he acceded to the treaty between the courts of Vienna and Peterſburgh, whereby he obtained their guarantee for his own dominions, and guaranteed the dominions of thoſe powers, and the pragmatic ſanction: and by a ſeparate article in this treaty, king Chriſtian agreed to pay the duke of Holſtein 100,000 rix-dollars, on his renouncing his right to the duchy of Sleſwic; and, in purſuance of his treaty, anno 1734, he ſent 6000 men to the aſſiſtance of the emperor againſt the French. In 1736, he relinquiſhed his pretenſions to the city of Hamburg, on their paying him 500,000 marks of ſilver.

About the ſame time he erected a council of trade to examine all propoſals that ſhould be made for the advantage of it; and invited foreigners, ſkilled in manufactures, to reſort to Denmark, and eſtabliſhed them there, prohibiting the importation of foreign manufactures. He erected a bank alſo, in imitation of England and Holland, and concluded treaties of ſubſidy with foreign powers, particularly with England, which country was at the charge of raiſing, cloathing, and paying 6000 of his troops: and yet, when their ſervice was wanted, withdrew thoſe troops, and would take no part in the enſuing wars between the powers of Europe.

The Danes, about the year 1739, ſeizing on the lordſhip of Steinhurſt, which his Britiſh majeſty apprehended himſelf entitled to, as duke of Lawhenburg, a ſkirmiſh happened between the troops of Hanover and thoſe of Denmark, wherein ſeveral were killed on both ſides. The Hanoverians recovered the territory in diſpute. However, as the Danes ſeemed determined not to relinquiſh their claim, a treaty was ſet on foot between thoſe powers, and Britain agreed to pay a ſubſidy to the Danes for permitting the Hanoverians to enjoy Steinhurſt.

The Danes alſo had a quarrel with the Dutch for fiſhing upon the coaſt of Iceland. Their guard-ſhips ſeized on ſome of the Dutch fiſhing veſſels, and carried them to Copenhagen; but the Hollanders threatening to make reprizals, thoſe veſſels were releaſed.

Chriſtian having reigned 16 years, with great reputation, was ſucceeded by his ſon Frederick V. on the 26th of July, 1746. This prince trod in his father's foot-ſteps, encouraging the manufactures, extending the commerce, and improving the trade of his country. He was firſt married to the princeſs Louiſa, daughter to his Britannic majeſty. Upon the death of his queen, who was the mother of his preſent Daniſh majeſty, he again married a daughter of the duke of Brunſwic Wolfenbuttle, and died in 1766, being ſucceeded by his ſon.

Chriſtian VII. the preſent king of Denmark and Norway, L. L. D. and F. R. S. was born in 1749; married in 1766, to the princeſs Caroline Matilda; and has iſſue; Frederick, prince royal of Denmark, born January 28, 1768; and Louiſa Auguſta, princeſs royal, born July 7, 1771. The reign of this young monarch opened auſpiciouſly; but was afterwards darkened by a fatal event, which occaſioned much aſtoniſhment to all Europe, and of which we ſhall give the following account in the words of an intelligent gentleman, who made the moſt minute enquiries concerning it, of the moſt cool and diſpaſſionate Danes, and wrote this narrative in the metropolis of Denmark. "I have (ſays this gentleman) made it my endeavour, ſince my arrival here, to gain the moſt authentic and unprejudiced intelligence reſpecting the late celebrated and unhappy favourite count Struenſee, and the late extraordinary revolution which expelled a queen from her throne and kingdom, and brought the miniſters to the ſcaffold. Struenſee had not any noble blood in his veins; or, conſequently, any hereditary and preſcriptive title to the immediate guidance of the affairs of ſtate. Fortune, and a train of peculiar circumſtances, coinciding with his own talents and addreſs, ſeem to have

have drawn him from his native mediocrity of condition, and placed him in an elevated rank. He originally practiſed phyſic at Altena, on the Elbe, and afterwards attended the preſent king of Denmark, on his travels in England, in quality of phyſician. On his return he advanced, by rapid ſtrides, in the royal favour; and ſeems to have eminently poſſeſſed the powers of pleaſing, ſince he became equally the favourite of both king and queen. He was inveſted with the order of St. Matilda, inſtituted in honour of her majeſty, created a count, and poſſeſſed unlimited miniſterial power. His conduct, in this ſudden and uncommon eminence, marks a bold and daring mind; perhaps, I might add, an expanded and patriotic heart. Unawed by the precarious tenure of courtly greatneſs, and more peculiarly of his own, he began a general reform. The ſtate felt him through all her members: the finances, chancery, army, navy, nobles, peaſants, were all ſenſible of his influence. He not only dictated, but penned his replies to every important queſtion or diſpatch; and a petition or ſcheme of public import and utility, rarely waited two hours for an anſwer.

"The civil judicature of this capital was then veſted in 30 magiſtrates. Struenſee ſent a meſſage to this tribunal, demanding to know the annual ſalary or penſion annexed to each member. Rather alarmed at this enquiry, they ſent an anſwer, in which they diminiſhed their emoluments near two thirds, and eſtimated them at 1500, inſtead of 4000 rix-dollars. The count then informed them that his majeſty had no further occaſion for their ſervices; but, in his royal munificence and liberality, was graciouſly pleaſed to continue to them the third part of their avowed incomes, as a proof of his ſatisfaction with their conduct. He, at the ſame time, conſtituted another court, compoſed only of ſix perſons of integrity, to whom the ſame power was delegated. He proceeded to purge the chancery and other bodies of the law. Then entering on the military department, he, at one ſtroke, broke all the horſe-guards, and afterwards the regiment of Norwegian foot-guards, the fineſt corps in the ſervice, who were not diſbanded without a ſhort, but very dangerous ſedition.

"Still proceeding in this ſalutary, but moſt critical and perilous atchievement, he ultimately began to attempt a diminution of the nobles, and to ſet the farmers and peaſants at perfect liberty. No wonder that he fell a victim to ſuch meaſures, and that all parties joined in his deſtruction. Theſe were his real crimes, and not that he was too acceptable to the queen, which only formed a pretext. It was the miniſter, and not the man, who had become obnoxious. I do not pretend, in the latter capacity, either to excuſe or condemn him; but, as a politician, I rank him with the Clarendons and Mores, whom tyranny, or public buſineſs, and want of time, have brought, in almoſt every age, to an untimely and ignominious exit; but to whoſe memory impartial poſterity have done ample juſtice. Though Struenſee does not appear to have made a bad uſe, yet he certainly made a violent and imprudent one, of his extenſive power. He ſeems, if one may judge by his actions, to have been intoxicated with royal favour, and accumulated honours, and not to have adverted ſufficiently to the examples which hiſtory furniſhes of Wolſeys in former days, and of Chioſeuls in modern times, who moſt ſtrikingly evince the ſlippery foundation of political grandeur. When he was even preſſed, only a ſhort time before his ſeizure, to withdraw from court, and paſs the Belts, with the moſt ample ſecurity for his annual remitment of forty, fifty, or even an hundred thouſand dollars, an unhappy faſcination detained him, in defiance of every warning, and reſerved him for the priſon and the block. The queen-dowager, and prince Frederick, were the only feeble inſtruments to produce this cataſtrophe, as being, by their rank, immediately about the perſon of the ſovereign; though common report has talked loudly of the former's intrigue, and attributed it to her imaginary abilities. The only mark of capacity, or addreſs, they exhibited, was in preſerving a ſecrecy which deluded Struenſee, and the queen Matilda, till the time of their being arreſted. On the laſt levy-day preceding this event, the count was habited with uncommon magnificence, and never received greater homage, or court ſervility, from the crowd, than when on the verge of ruin. On the night fixed for his ſeizure there was a bal paré in the palace. The queen, after dancing, as uſual, one country dance with the king, gave her hand to Struenſee during the reſt of the evening. She retired about two in the morning, and was followed by him and count Crandt. The moment was now come; the queen-dowager, and her ſon prince Frederick, haſtened to the king's private chamber, where he was already in bed. They kneeled down beſide him, and implored him, with tears and expoſtulations, to ſave himſelf and Denmark from impending deſtruction, by arreſting thoſe whom they called the authors of it. It is ſaid the king was not eaſily induced to ſign the order, but did it with reluctance and heſitation. At length their intreaties prevailed, and he affixed his ſign manual to the paper. Colonel Koller Barmer inſtantly repaired to Struenſee's apartment, which, as well as Brandt's, was in the palace: they were both ſeized at nearly the ſame inſtant, and, as all defence was vain, hurried away immediately to the citadel. When count Struenſee ſtepped out of the coach, he ſaid, with a ſmile, to the commandant, "I believe you are not a little ſurprized at ſeeing me brought here as a priſoner." "No, and pleaſe your excellence, (replied the old officer bluntly) I am not at all ſurprized; but on the contrary, have long expected you." It was five o'clock in the morning when count Rantzaw came to the door of her majeſty's anti chamber, and knocked for admittance. One of the women about the queen's perſon was ordered to wake her, and give her information that ſhe was arreſted. They then put her into one of the king's coaches, drove her down to Elſeneur, and ſhut her up in the caſtle of Cronenburg. Mean while they dreaded an inſurrection in Copenhagen: every military precaution was taken to prevent it: the moſt infamous and ſilly reports were circulated among the populace to render the ſtate priſoners odious: that they had put poiſon into the king's coffee to deſtroy him; that they intended to declare him incapable of governing; to ſend the dowager-queen Juliana out of the kingdom, as well as her ſon prince Frederick; and to proclaim Matilda regent. To confirm theſe extraordinary and contradictory reports, the king himſelf, and his brother, appeared in a ſtate-coach, and paraded through the ſtreets of the city, to ſhew himſelf unhurt, and as if eſcaped from the moſt horrid conſpiracy. During theſe tranſactions Struenſee and Brandt were detained in the moſt rigorous impriſonment. They loaded the former with very heavy chains about his arms and legs, and he was at the ſame time fixed to the wall by an iron bar. The room is not above 10 or 12 feet ſquare, with a little bed in it, and a miſerable iron ſtove; yet here, in this abode of miſery, did he though chained, compleatly, with a pencil, give an account of his life, and conduct as miniſter, which is penned with uncommon genius!

"A tribunal was appointed for the trial of the queen and two counts, and a counſel aſſigned for each, to preſerve an appearance of juſtice and equity."

The reſult of this was, the counts were ſentenced to loſe their heads, and the queen to baniſhment. The two counts were executed April 28, 1772; and their ſkulls and bones expoſed on wheels, about a mile and a half out of the metropolis. Hence the precarioufneſs of favouritiſm may be ſeen; and that thoſe who riſe rapidly, generally fall with equivalent velocity.

He that in court ſecure will keep himſelf,
Muſt not be great, for there he's envy'd at.
The ſhrub is ſafe when as the cedar ſhakes;
For where the king doth love above compare,
Of others they as much more envy'd are.

Yet with what avidity are fleeting riches, imaginary pomp, temporal titles, and precarious power, ſought after, while ſolid happineſs is neglected! How univerſal is the wiſh to acquire wealth, dominion, and worldly honours! and yet when diſappointments, the natural concomitants of theſe objects, attend the purſuit, mankind blame not themſelves, but lay the fault on fate, whereas their own wiſhes alone are erroneous.

But why, alas! do mortal men in vain,
Of fortune, fate, or Providence complain?
God gives us what he knows our wants require,
And better things than thoſe which we deſire.
Some pray for riches, riches they obtain,
But, watch'd by robbers, for their wealth are ſlain.
Some pray from priſon to be freed, and come,
When guilty of their vows, to fall at home;
Murder'd by thoſe they truſted with their life,
A favour'd ſervant, or a boſom wife.
Such dear-bought bleſſings happen ev'ry day,
Becauſe we know not for what things to pray.
Like drunken ſots about the ſtreets we roam;
Well knows the ſot he has a certain home;
Yet knows not how to find th' uncertain place,
But blunders on, and ſtaggers ev'ry pace.
Thus all ſeek happineſs, but few can find,
For far the greater part of men are blind."

CHAP. V.

SWEDEN.

SECTION I.

Extent, Boundaries, Climate, various Productions, Lakes, Soil, Beaſts, Birds, Fiſh, Minerals, and Mines. Account of a Deſcent into one, and the Manner of manufacturing the Iron.

THIS kingdom extends from 55 deg. 20 min. to 69 deg. 30 min. north latitude, and from 12 to 32 deg. eaſt longitude, being near 800 miles in length, and 500 in breadth. It is bounded on the north by Lapland; on the ſouth by the Baltic, the Sound, and the Categate; on the eaſt by Ruſſia: and on the weſt by the ſtupendous mountains of Norway. The inhabited or cultivated parts of Sweden are very ſmall, when compared with the vaſt ſpace compriſed by extenſive lakes, gulphs, ſteril mountains, immenſe rocks, and barren heaths.

With reſpect to the climate of this country, it may be juſtly ſaid, that cold and heat prevail in the extreme. The ſun, at the higheſt, is above the horizon of Stockholm 18 hours and an half, and for ſome weeks makes a continual day. In winter the days are proportionably ſhort, the ſun being up five hours and an half; which defect is ſo well ſupplied, as to lights, by the moon, the whiteneſs of the ſnow, and the clearneſs of the ſky, that travelling by night is as uſual as by day; and journeys are begun in the evening as frequently as in the morning. The want of the ſun's heat is repaired by ſtoves within doors, and warm furs abroad; inſtead of which, the meaner people uſe ſheep-ſkins, and other ſuch defences, and are generally better provided with cloathing, befitting their condition, and the climate they live in, than the common people in moſt other parts of Europe; though, where any neglect or failure happens, it uſually proves fatal, and occaſions the loſs of noſes, or other members, and ſometimes of life, unleſs the uſual remedy to expel the froſt, when it has ſeized any part, be carefully applied, which is to remain in the cold, and rub the part affected with ſnow till the blood returns to it again.

The ſeaſons of the year, though regular in themſelves, do not altogether anſwer thoſe of other climates, as a French ambaſſador obſerved, who, in raillery, ſaid, there were in Sweden only nine months winter, and all the reſt was ſummer: for as winter commonly begins very ſoon, ſo ſummer immediately ſucceeds it, and leaves little or no ſpace to be called ſpring. The productions, therefore, of the earth ought to be, as they really are, more ſpeedy in their growth than in more ſouthern countries: the reaſon of which ſeems to be, that the oil and ſulphur in the earth (as appears by the trees and minerals it produces) being bound up all the winter, are then on a ſudden actuated by the heat of the ſun, which almoſt continually ſhines, and thereby makes amends for its ſhort ſtay, and brings to maturity the fruits proper to the climate. In the ſummer ſeaſon the fields are covered with a variety of flowers, and the whole country overſpread with ſtrawberries, raſpberries, currants, &c. which grow upon every rock. In their gardens melons are brought to good perfection in dry years; but apricots, peaches, and other wall-fruits, are almoſt as ſcarce as oranges. They have cherries of ſeveral ſorts, and ſome tolerably good, which cannot be ſaid of their apples, pears, and plumbs; for theſe are neither common, nor well-taſted. But all kinds of roots are in plenty, and contribute much to the nouriſhment of the poor people.

Their woods and vaſt foreſts overſpread much of the country, and are for the moſt part of pines, fir, beech, birch, alder, juniper, and ſome oak; eſpecially in the province of Bleking in ſouth Gothland; the trees growing in moſt places ſo cloſe together, and lying to rot where they fall, that the woods are ſcarcely paſſable. Theſe afford a plentiful and cheap firing; and being generally very ſtrait and tall, are eaſily convertible into timber fit for all uſes; ſo that the Dutch export, from hence, boards and maſts for their ſhipping; which prove as good as thoſe of Norway. In the parts near the mines the woods are much deſtroyed; but the want is ſo well ſupplied from diſtant places, by the convenience of rivers and water-carriages, that they have charcoal above ſix times as cheap as in England; though it is deemed not half ſo good.

The principal lakes in Sweden are the Vetter, Wemer, and Maeler.

Lake Vetter is in Oſtrogothia, or Eaſt Gothland, and is remarkable for its foretelling of ſtorms, by a continual thundering noiſe, the day before, in that quarter from whence they ariſe; as alſo for the ſudden breaking of the ice upon it, which ſometimes ſurpriſes travellers, and in half an hour becomes navigable. It is extremely deep, being in ſome places above 300 fathoms, tho' no part of the Baltic ſea exceeds 50. It ſupplies the river Motala, which runs through Norkoping, where it was a fall of above 30 feet; and in ſome winters is ſo choaked up with ice, that for many hours no water paſſes.

The ſecond is in Weſtrogothia, or Weſt Gothland, from which iſſues the river Elve, falling down a rock near 60 feet, and paſſes Gottenburg.

The third empties itſelf at Stockholm, and furniſhes one ſide of the town with freſh water, as the ſea does the other with ſalt. Theſe, and abundance of other lakes, whereof many, like ponds, have no vent, are well

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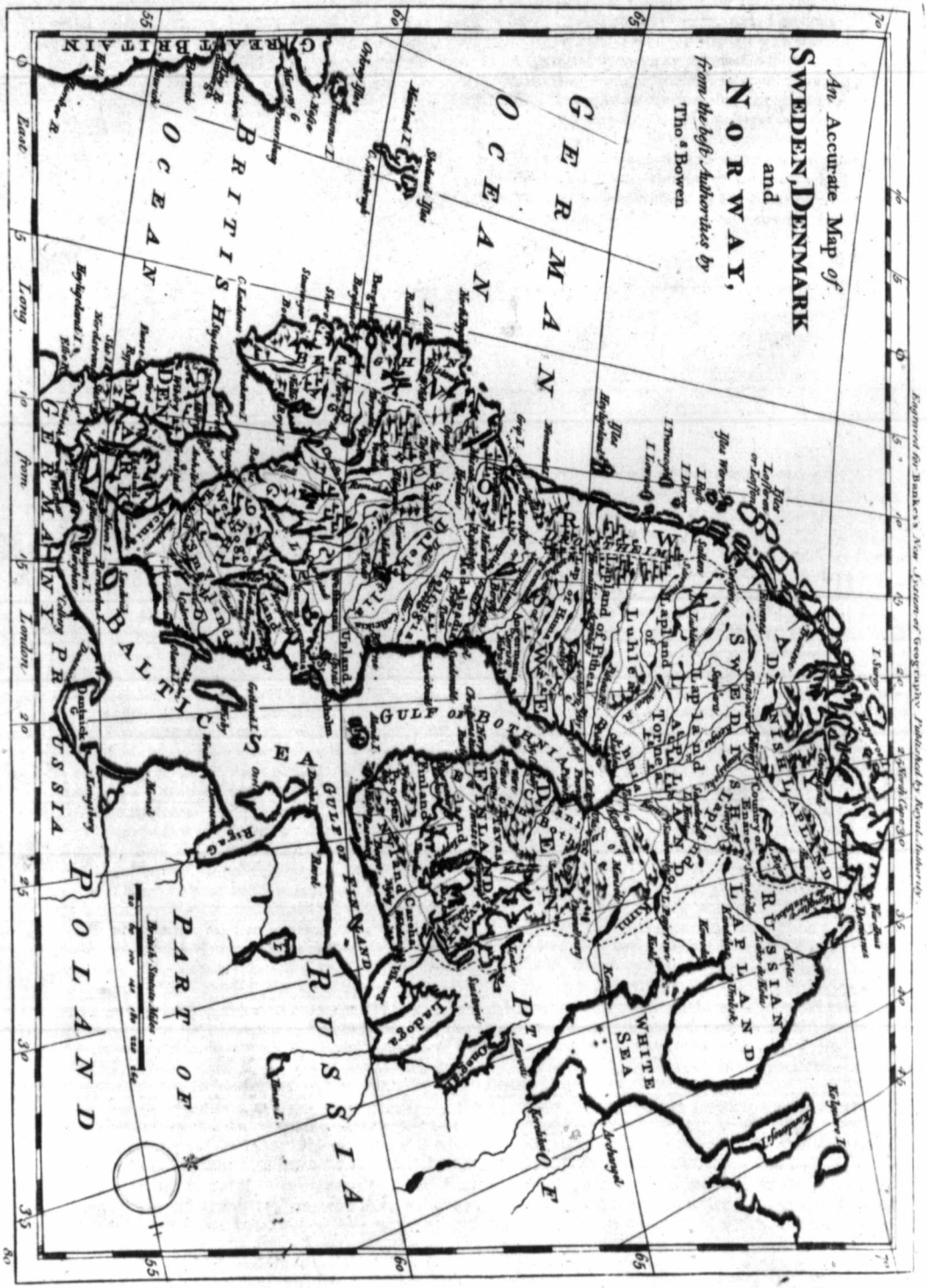

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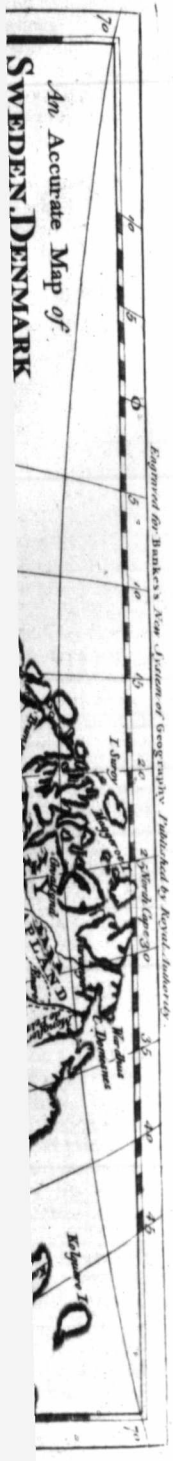

well ſtored with a variety of fiſh: as ſalmon, pike, perch, tench, trout, eels, and many other ſorts, unknown elſewhere; of which the moſt plentiful is the ſtreamling, a fiſh leſs than the pilchard, taken in great quantities, ſalted in barrels, and diſtributed all over the country.

The gulph of Finland, which ſeparates Sweden from that province, abounds with ſeals, of which a conſiderable quantity of train-oil is made and exported: and in the lakes of Finland are vaſt quantities of pike, which they ſalt, dry, and ſell at very cheap rates. Theſe lakes are of great uſe for the convenience of carriage; in ſummer by boats, and in winter by ſledges; and among them, on the ſea-coaſt, are almoſt innumerable little iſlands, ſome of which are inhabited, ſome uninhabited, but covered with wood, and others are merely barren rocks.

The rivers of Sweden will be mentioned when we come to enumerate the ſeveral provinces and diſtricts.

Concerning the ſoil of Sweden, an ingenious traveller ſays, "I think it may be very juſtly aſſerted, that not one twentieth part of this country is in a ſtate to be cultivated. I have travelled near 700 Engliſh miles in this kingdom, and, except in the province of Scania, and in ſome parts of Finland, did not ſee 20 acres of good land lying together.

The ſoil, however, in places capable of cultivation, is tolerably fruitful, though ſeldom above half a foot deep; and frequently the barren land, being enriched by the aſhes of the trees burnt on the places where they grow, and the ſeed raked among the aſhes, produces a plentiful crop, without further cultivation. This practice is ſo ancient, that their writers derive the name of Sweden from a word in their language that expreſſes it; but the danger of deſtroying the woods has, of late, occaſioned ſome law to limit that cuſtom. If the inhabitants were induſtrious above what neceſſity forces them to, they might, at leaſt have corn ſufficient of their own; but as things are managed they have not; nor can they ſubſiſt, without great importations of all ſorts of grain; and notwithſtanding theſe ſupplies, the poorer ſort, in many places remote from traffic, are obliged to grind the bark of birch-trees to mix with their corn, and make bread, of which they have not always plenty.

As in other northern countries the cattle are generally of a very ſmall ſize: neither can the breed be bettered by bringing in larger from abroad, which ſoon degenerate; becauſe in ſummer the graſs is much leſs nouriſhing than in the places from whence they came, and in winter they are uſually half ſtarved for want of fodder of all kinds, which often falls ſo very ſhort, that they are forced to unthatch their houſes to keep a part of their cattle alive. Their ſheep bear a very coarſe wool, only fit to make cloathing for the peaſants. Their horſes, eſpecially thoſe of Finland, are hardy, vigorous, ſtrong, ſure-footed, and nimble trotters, which is of great uſe to the people, becauſe of the length of their winter, and the fitneſs of theſe horſes for ſledges, which are their only carriages in that ſeaſon. In war their horſes are not only able to reſiſt, but even to break a body of the beſt German cavalry.

The farmers in ſome parts of Sweden, when the winters are uncommonly ſevere, and the cattle almoſt ſtarved, in order to nouriſh them, and cauſe the fodder to hold out during the ſeaſon, make *hay-tea*; that is, they boil about a handful of hay in three gallons of water, and the drink thus made is ſo extremely nutritive, that it nouriſhes the cattle aſtoniſhingly, repleniſhes the udders of the cows with a prodigious quantity of milk, and makes one truſs of fodder go as far as ten would otherwiſe do. If this was tried in England, upon ſimilar occaſions, it might prove a beneficial experiment.

Sweden produces elks, bears, wolves, deers, hares, foxes, wild cats, ſquirrels, &c. and theſe are hunted either for their fleſh, ſkins, or furs; the Swediſh huntſmen uſing guns, and being in general excellent markſmen.

The Swediſh ſquirrel is ſomewhat thicker than a weaſel, but not quite ſo long. He is of a reddiſh colour on the upper part of the head and back, but on the belly is white. The tail is long and buſhy, which being turned over his back, is ſufficient to ſhade it; whence the Latin name Sciurus, which ſignifies a ſhade.

This animal ſits upon his backſide when he feeds, laying hold of the proviſion with his fore feet, and putting it into his mouth. He lives upon nuts and acorns of all kinds, but is moſt fond of hazel nuts, which he gathers in the proper ſeaſon, and hoards up againſt winter. Squirrels are generally to be met with upon trees, where they build their neſts, and bring up their young. They can leap very readily from bough to bough, and ſometimes from tree to tree, at which time they uſe their tails inſtead of wings; for it is of great help in keeping them from ſinking.

Poultry of various kinds are reared in Sweden. Of game there is plenty, both of land and water-fowl; particularly partridges, and a bird called a yerper, which reſembles the partridge.

The orra is a fowl of the ſize of a hen, and the keder is very near as big as a turkey. In winter the Swediſh ſportſmen amuſe themſelves with killing blackbirds, thruſhes, and ſydenſwans; the latter being beautiful birds, ſumptuouſly arrayed in gorgeous plumes, which are finely tipped with ſcarlet: they are about the ſize of fieldfares, and their fleſh is of a moſt exquiſite flavour. Pigeons are ſcarce, on account of the great number of voracious birds which deſtroy them.

The eagle is the moſt remarkable bird of prey. This bird is of a large ſize, very ſtrong, and can never be tamed like the hawk in order to purſue game; and it is much more majeſtic in appearance than the vulture.

The eagle principally inhabits inacceſſible mountains, and rooſts on the loftieſt trees, being fond of ſuch places as are leaſt frequented by mankind. However, as birds, as well as other animals, are found in greater plenty round the habitations of men, the eagle is ſometimes induced to frequent thoſe places for the convenience of its prey. They live much on fiſh, crabs, tortoiſes, wild-ducks, poultry, pigeons, and the like. They have been known not to ſpare even their own ſpecies, when preſſed with hunger. They attack not only lambs and young goats, but ſometimes deer, ſheep, and even horned cattle. They build their neſts on the moſt inacceſſible parts of rocks, and the higheſt trees, ſome of which have been found near ſix feet in diameter. They are uſually lined with the hair of foxes, wool, or the fur of hares and rabbits, to keep the eggs warm, of which the female generally lays two, or ſometimes three at a time, and hatches them in thirty days, during which time the male ſupplies her with food. As ſoon as the young ones are produced, the old become remarkably miſchievous, and deſtroy lambs and poultry for ſeveral miles round them. They often bring hares and partridges alive to their young, to regale them with the reliſh of warm blood. The country folks ſometimes avail themſelves of theſe proviſions, by taking it from the eaglets in the abſence of the old ones, and carrying it home for their own uſe.

The vulture differs from the eagle in not having its beak turned immediately crooked from the root, it continuing ſtrait to the length of two inches. It is much more lazy than the eagle, and fond of carrion, which the eagle will not touch. However, they prey upon live birds, hares, kids, fawns, &c. if they can get them; and if not, eat any filth that comes in their way.

The hawk has wings ſo long as to reach to the end of the tail, which reſembles that of a ſparrow-hawk. The beak is partly blue and partly yellow; the feet are of a pale green; the toes are ſlender; the talons large, ſharp, and darkiſh; the breaſt, belly, and thighs, white, ſtreaked with black; the neck, back, wings, and head are brown, and the latter is flattiſh at the top: the tail

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is of a light brown, with black lines running acrofs it; and the legs and feet are of a yellow colour. Some years ago a hawk was killed in Finland, which had a plate of gold on one leg, and a plate of filver on the other. On the former was this French inſcription: Geſuis au Roi;" which, in Engliſh, implies, "I belong to the king;" and on the latter, were words theſe in the ſame language: "Le Duc de Chevreuſe me garde:" which may be thus tranſlated: "The duke of Chevreuſe keeps me."

The kite is diſtinguiſhable from all other rapacious birds by having a forked tail. It is uſually about 28 inches long, from the head to the tip of the tail, when the neck is ſtrait; but when the wings are extended, it meaſures, from extremity to extremity, 64 inches, or better. The head is of an aſh colour, the neck red, the back brown, and the wings are diverſified with red, black, and white. The beak is black, the tongue thick, the legs and feet yellow, and the talons of a ſable hue. It has always been famous for its rapacity, and is often mentioned by the ancients.

——"Thus the ſpeaking kite,
That ſmells the ſlaughter'd victim from on high,
Flies at a diſtance, if the prieſts are nigh,
And fails around, and keeps it in her eye."

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The ſeas of Sweden, as well as the rivers, abound with a great variety of fiſh, particularly ſalmon, perch, pike, ſtreamling, trout, tench, eels, ſeals, &c.

Pikes are ſo abundant that vaſt quantities are ſalted and dried for ſale; and great numbers of ſtreamlings (which is a delicious fiſh, ſmaller than a pilchar, or pilchard) are pickled and barrelled, both for home conſumption and exportation. The train oil, extracted from the ſeals, is a valuable article of traffic.

Sweden abounds with excellent mines. The principal of theſe is the great ſilver mine, into which workmen are let down in baſkets to the firſt floor, which is 105 fathoms under ground: the roof there is as high as a church, ſupported by vaſt arches of oak; thence the deſcent is, by ladders, or baſkets, to the loweſt mine, above 40 fathoms. They have no records ſo ancient as the firſt diſcovery either of this or the great copper mine, which muſt needs have been the work of many ages. The ore ſeldom yields above four per cent. and requires great pains to refine it. They are alſo at the charge of a water mill to drain the mines, and have the benefit of another to draw up the ore. This mine formerly produced between 20,000 and 30,000 of fine ſilver crowns, annually; and the king had an exemption in his favour, of being allowed to purchaſe whatever quantity he thought proper of it, and to pay one forth leſs than the intrinſic value. A late traveller informs us, that this mine is, at preſent, much diminiſhed in value, by having been ſo greatly exhauſted. However, it may not be improper, in this place, to deſcribe the metal called ſilver, and the nature of the various ores from which it is produced.

Silver is a noble and perfect metal, of a white ſhining colour, ſonorous and ductile, but not ſo perfect as gold. It is ſometimes found in ſmall maſſes of many different ſhapes, but moſt commonly like filaments and ſcales in ſeveral ſorts of ſtones and mould, and in many ſorts of land.

The Vitrean ſilver is of an irregular form, very weighty, and may be eaſily flatted with a hammer; for it is not much harder than lead, and is much of the ſame colour; for which reaſon it is often miſtaken for lead. It melts preſently, and ſoon grows red-hot. It conſiſts of ſulphur, and pure ſilver, and above three quarters of it is ſilver. The horny ſilver ore is half tranſparent, and of a deeper yellow or brown colour, according as it conſiſts of larger or ſmaller lumps. It looks like roſin, and is of an irregular ſhape. When carefully examined, it appears to conſiſt of very thin plates. It is not very weighty or hard, for it may be eaſily ground: and, when brought ſuddenly to the fire, it crackles, burſts, and exhales a ſulphurious ſmell, and ſometimes burſts lightly. This hard ſort contains two thirds of ſilver. The red ſilver ore is ſometimes of a lighter, and ſometimes of a deeper ſcarlet colour. The firſt caſe is tranſparent, like a garnet, and has been miſtaken for tranſparent cinnabar; and in the ſecond caſe it is of a deeper dye. It is heavier than the former horny ore, but burſts when brought near a candle or a mild fire, and the remaining part melts before it grows red-hot; then it emits a diſagreeable ſmell of arſenic, together with a thick ſmoke. It contains the ſame quantity of ſilver as the horny ore juſt mentioned.

The white ſilver ore is of a light grey colour, of an irregular figure, pretty weighty, and very brittle. It has not only copper in it, but ſometimes more of it than of ſilver; for it differs from the white copper ore in nothing but the quantity of ſilver it contains. Theſe are the principal ſilver ores hitherto known; though many others are looked upon by ſome as ſuch, becauſe they contain a conſiderable quantity of ſilver; but then there is always more of other metals along with them, therefore they cannot properly be called ſilver ores.

Silver may be eaſily extracted from lead, by melting it in channels, made with aſhes in the furnace, and then blowing up the fire till it turns into glaſs, ſinks into the channels, and leaves the pure ſilver behind.

Silver is harder than gold, but not ſo ductile, and is lighter than gold or lead, the weight, with regard to gold, being little leſs than five to nine. It will not ruſt, but will grow black by ſulphurous vapours, and will diſſolve in aqua fortis, but not in aqua regia. When it is mixed with common ſalt, and melted, it turns into a half tranſparent maſs like horn, which is hard to be brought back to ſilver again, becauſe it is volatile, and in a violent fire will all fly away. When ſilver is diſſolved in aqua fortis it may be chryſtalized; and the cryſtals are very corroſive, and of an exceeding bitter taſte. When applied to the ſkin, they leave an impreſſion like that of a burning coal, and make an eſcar of a black colour. The ſolution of ſilver will turn any thing black, and therefore, when properly diluted, is often uſed to colour the hair. Theſe cryſtals will melt in a very moderate heat before they grow red, and form a blackiſh maſs: it is then proper for the uſe of ſurgeons, and is called the ſilver cauſtic.

The great copper mine is about 80 fathoms deep, of great extent, but ſubject to damages by the falling-in of the roof; yet that is ſometimes recompenſed by the abundance of ore which the ruined pillars yield, though moſt commonly the loſs is very great. The occaſion of theſe falls is aſcribed to the throwing the earth and ſtones, brought out of the mine, upon the ground over it; by which the pillars become overcharged, and give way. The reaſon of this is ſaid to be, that the profit ariſing, to thoſe who are concerned, is ſo little, that they are not able to work it off as they ought, and to remove the rubbiſh to a greater diſtance: and unleſs the king abates a conſiderable part of the profit ariſing to the crown from this mine, it is believed it will, in a few years, be at a ſtand, eſpecially if the deſigns of making copper, which are on foot elſewhere, take any tolerable effect. The copper yearly made out of this mine amounts to the value of about 200,000l. of which the king has a fourth part, not by way of pre-emption, but in kind; beſides which, he has, upon the remainder, a cuſtom of 25 per cent. when it is exported unwrought. Many years ago a gentleman of Italy came into Sweden, with propoſals to make copper a ſhorter and cheaper way than had till then been practiſed, ſo as to make that in five days, which before required three weeks, and with one fifth part of the charcoal, and with fewer hands. The bargain was made, and his reward to be 100,000 crowns. The firſt eſſay he made ſucceeded to admiration; but

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when he came to work in earneſt, and had got his new ovens built to his mind, the miners, as he complained, picked out the very worſt ore, and were otherwiſe ſo envious and untractable, that he failed of ſucceſs, and loſt his reward: nor was it without difficulty that he obtained leave to buy ore, and practiſe his invention at his own charge.

This mine, travellers tell us, in the laſt century, ſupplied the greateſt part of Europe with copper; but at preſent it is worked ſo very deep, that it is become extremely expenſive; and though the ore is uncommonly rich, the produce is conſiderably diminiſhed.

Copper is a hard, ignoble metal, ſofter than iron, and, when poliſhed, of a ſhining reddiſh colour. It will melt in the fire, and is ſo ductile, that it may be beaten into exceeding thin leaves. It is more frequently found in its metallic form than iron, in various ſhapes; but its ore never diſtinguiſhes itſelf by any certain figure, for it is almoſt always irregular. But the fineſt colours of any kind, except the red and tranſparent, moſt commonly betray the preſence of copper; for this reaſon there is hardly any copper ore that is not mixed with iron, in a larger quantity than the ores of other metals commonly are. However, there is not ſo much in ſome as in others; and thoſe that contain the leaſt iron, are naturally more eaſily melted than the reſt. The vitrious copper ore is of a darkiſh violet ſky colour, like that of a piece of ſteel that has touched a red-hot iron. It is very heavy, and of a moderate hardneſs; but commonly variegated with ſpots, and grey veins. One hundred weight of this ore contains from 50 to 80 pounds of copper. The azure copper ore is of a moſt beautiful blue colour, not ſoft, but very heavy, and, when broken, ſhines like blue glaſs. This is moſt free from iron, arſenic, and ſulphur; and a great quantity of excellent copper may be extracted out of it with eaſe. The green copper ore is like green cryſtal, and ſometimes very prettily ſtreaked; but in other things it has the properties of the former. The light duſky-blue concretes, as well as the green, called by ſome copper okers, yield a great deal of very good copper when they are pure, which may be known from their colour and weight; but thoſe that are more light, are mixed with unmetallic earth, and thoſe that are yellow contain iron oker, on which account they are the more difficult to be met with, and yield leſs copper of an inferior ſort.

Iron mines and forges are in great numbers, eſpecially towards the mountainous parts, where they have the conveniency of water-falls to turn their mills. From theſe, beſides ſupplying the country, there is yearly exported iron to the value of near 300,000l. but of late years the number of theſe forges has been ſo much increaſed, that each endeavouring to underſell others, the price has been much lowered. Since the prohibition of foreign manufactures, in exchange for which iron was plentifully taken off, it is grown ſo cheap, that it is found neceſſary to leſſen the number of forges. Neither has that contrivance had the effect intended; but, on the contrary, many more are like to fall of themſeves, becauſe they cannot work but with loſs: in which caſe many thouſands of poor people, whoſe livelihood depend upon thoſe forges and mines, will be reduced to a ſtarving condition.

Iron is an ignoble metal, remarkable for its hardneſs. It is of a whitiſh livid colour when poliſhed, but before that it is blackiſh. When it is cleanſed it is called ſteel. The ore of common iron is of no certain form, but moſt commonly of a ruſty colour. There is alſo an ore which is very heavy, and of a red bluiſh colour when broken. It is very rich in the beſt kind of iron, and uſually yields, at the firſt melting, from 60 to 80 pounds out of an hundred weight. There is alſo a ſingular kind of iron ore, of a yelloviſh colour, though ſometimes grey, and ſometimes of a kind of ſemi-tranſparent white. It will yield, when melted, about thirty pounds of iron out of an hundred weight.

When iron is melted, it is formed into large maſſes which are long and thick, and commonly called pigs. Theſe are melted over again, and ſtirred with an iron rod, in order to render them malleable. While they are yet red hot, they are placed under hammers, and by that means the heterogenous particles are forced away by the repeated ſtrokes. One ſort of iron differs greatly from another; but that which is toughеſt is beſt; and that which is moſt brittle is worſt of all. However, all ſorts of iron are of the ſame nature; and they are only more or leſs tough, in proportion to the earthy, vitriolic, and ſulphurous particles mixed therewith. Iron being often melted and cleanſed, is turned into ſteel; though in ſome caſes, little labour is required for that purpoſe, and in others a great deal. When iron is very good, they melt it in a furnace, and throw in gradually a mixture of equal parts of an alkalous ſalt, and filings of lead, with the raſpings of oxes horns; then they ſtir the melted metal, and at length place it on the anvil, where they beat it into rods.

A late traveller gives the following intereſting deſcription of his deſcent into the mines of Danmora.

"We lay (ſays he) at a pretty village, called Oſtarby, and went about three miles the next morning to ſee the mines of Danmora. They are celebrated for producing the fineſt iron ore in Europe, the iron of which is exported into every country, and conſtitutes one of the moſt important ſources of the national wealth, and royal revenues of Sweden. The ore is not dug as in the mines of tin or coal, which we have in England, but is torn up by power. This operation is performed every day at noon, and is one of the moſt tremendous and awful it is poſſible to conceive. We arrived at the mouth of the great mine (which is near half an Engliſh mile in circumference) in time to be preſent at it. Soon after twelve the firſt exploſion began. I cannot compare it to any thing ſo aptly as ſubterraneous thunder, or rather vollies of artillery diſcharged underground. The ſtones are thrown up by the violence of the powder to a vaſt height above the ſurface of the earth; and the concuſſion is ſo great as to ſhake the ſurrounding earth, or rock, on every ſide. I felt a pleaſure mixed with terror, as I hung over this vaſt and giddy hollow, to the bottom of which the eye in vain attempts to penetrate. As ſoon as the exploſions were finiſhed, I determined, however, to deſcend into the mine. There is no way to do this but in a large deep bucket, capable of containing three perſons, and faſtened to chains by a rope. The inſpector, at whoſe houſe I had ſlept the preceding night, took no little pains to diſſuade me from the reſolution, and aſſured me that not only the rope, or chains, ſometimes broke, but that the ſnow and ice, which lodged on the ſides of the mines, frequently tumbled in, and deſtroyed the workmen; nor could he warrant my abſolute ſecurity from one or both of theſe accidents. Finding, however, that I was deaf to all his remonſtrances, he provided me a clean bucket, and put two men into it to accompany me. I wrapped myſelf, therefore, in my great coat, and ſtepped into the bucket. The two men followed, and we were let down. I am not aſhamed to own, that when I found myſelf thus ſuſpended between heaven and earth by a rope, and looked down into the deep and dark abyſs below me, to which I could ſee no termination, I ſhuddered with apprehenſion, and half repented my curioſity. This was, however, only a momentary ſenſation, as before I had deſcended an hundred feet, I looked round on the ſcene with very tolerable compoſure. I was near nine minutes before I reached the bottom, it being 80 fathoms, or 480 feet. The view of the mine, when I ſet my foot to the earth, was awful and ſublime in the higheſt degree. Whether terror or pleaſure formed the predominant feeling, as I looked at it, is hard to ſay. The light of the day was very faintly admitted into theſe ſubterraneous caverns. In many places it was abſolutely loſt, and flambeaux ſupplied its place. I ſaw

beams of wood acroſs ſome parts, from one ſide of the rock to the other, where the miners ſat employed, in boring holes for the admiſſion of powder, with as much unconcern as I could have felt in any ordinary, though the leaſt dizzineſs, or even a failure in preſerving their equilibrium, muſt have made them loſe their ſeat, and daſh them to pieces againſt the rugged ſurface of the rock beneath. The fragments torn up by the exploſion, previous to my deſcent, lay in vaſt heaps on all ſides; and the whole ſcene was calculated to inſpire a gloomy admiration in the beholder. A confinement for life, in theſe horrible iron dungeons, muſt ſurely of all puniſhment which human invention has deviſed, be one of the moſt terrible. I remained three quarters of an hour in theſe gloomy and frightful caverns, and traverſed every part of them which was acceſſible, conducted by my guides. The weather above was very warm, but here the ice covered the whole ſurface of the ground, and I found myſelf ſurrounded with the colds of the moſt rigorous winter, amid darkneſs and caves of iron. In one of theſe, which run a conſiderable way under the rock, were eight wretches warming themſelves round a charcoal fire, and eating the little ſcanty ſubſiſtence produced from their miſerable occupation. They roſe with ſurprize at ſeeing ſo unexpected a gueſt among them; and I was not a little pleaſed to dry my feet, which were wet with treading on the melted ice, at their fire. There are no leſs than 1300 of theſe men conſtantly employed in the mines, and their pay is only a common dollar, of three-pence Engliſh, a day. They were firſt opened about 1580, under the reign of John the Third, but have been conſtantly worked only ſince the time of Chriſtina. After having gratified my curioſity with a full view of theſe ſubterranean apartments, I made the ſignal for being drawn up, and can moſt ſeriouſly affirm, I felt ſo little terror while re-aſcending, compared with that of being let down, that I am convinced, in five or ſix times more, I ſhould have been perfectly indifferent to it, and could have ſolved a problem in mathematics, or compoſed a ſonnet to my miſtreſs, in the bucket, without any degree of fright or apprehenſion. So ſtrong is the effect of cuſtom on the human mind, and ſo contemptible does danger or horror become, when familiariſed by continual repetition!"

The ſame writer, in ſpeaking of the manner in which the peaſants manufacture the iron, ſays, "I have viſited ſix or ſeven forges on my journey, each of which conſtantly employs from four to fourteen hundred workmen, only in iron. Wherever there is a country ſeat, you may be certain to ſee one of theſe fabrics; and no Cyclops were ever more dextrous in working their materials. I have ſeen them ſtand cloſe to, and hammer, in their coarſe frocks of linen, a bar of ore, the heat and refulgence of which were almoſt inſupportable to me at 10 feet diſtance, and with the ſparks of which they are covered from head to foot. I had the pleaſure of viewing the whole proceſs uſed to reduce the ore into iron, and muſt own it is very curious.—They firſt roaſt it in the open air for a conſiderable time; after which it is thrown into a furnace, and, when reduced to fuſion, is poured into a mould of ſand about three yards in length. Theſe pigs, as they are then denominated, are next put into a forge heated to a prodigious degree. They break off a large piece with prickers, when red hot, and this is beat to a leſſer ſize with hammers. It is put again into the fire, and from thence entirely finiſhed by being laid under an immenſe engine reſembling a hammer, which is turned by water, and flattens the rude piece into a bar. Nothing can exceed the dexterity of the men who conduct this concluding part of the operation, as the eye is their ſole guide, and it requires an exquiſite nicety and preciſion. It is certainly a moſt happy circumſtance that Sweden abounds with theſe employments for her peaſants, as, from the ungrateful ſoil and inclement latitude, they muſt otherwiſe periſh by miſery and famine."

SECTION II.

Grand Diviſions, and particular Deſcription of the diſtinct Parts of the Kingdom of Sweden.

THIS kingdom has been generally conſidered as divided into ſeven provinces, viz. Sweden Proper, Gothland, Livonia, Ingria, Finland, Swediſh Lapland, and the Swediſh Iſlands in the Baltic; but it is to be obſerved, that two of theſe provinces, Livonia and Ingria, at preſent appertain to Ruſſia, having been conquered by Peter the Great, and ceded to the Ruſſians by ſubſequent treaties.

The five provinces which ſtill remain in the poſſeſſion of the Swedes are thus divided:

I. Sweden Proper, which contains Uplandia, Sudermania, Weſtmania, Nericia, Geſtricia, Helſingia, Delecarlia, Medolpadia, Angermania, Iniptia, and Weſt Bothnia.

II. Gothland, or Gothia, which contains Eaſt Gothland, Weſt Gothland, and South Gothland.

III. Finland, which contains Finland Proper, Nylandia, Carelia, Kenholm, Savolaxia, Tavaſtia, and Cajunia.

IV. Swediſh Lapland, which contains Augermanice Lapmark, Uma Lapmark, Pitha Lapmark, Lula Lapmark, Torno Lapmark, and Kima Lapmark.

V. The Swediſh Iſlands, which are Gothland, Ocland, Oeſel, Dago, Aland, Hagland, and Rugen.

We ſhall treat of each diviſion in their reſpective order, beginning with

SWEDEN PROPER.

SWEDEN, properly ſo called, is bounded on the noth by Lapland, on the ſouth by Gothland, on the eaſt by the gulph of Bothnia, and the mountains part it on the weſt from Norway; extending 710 miles from ſouth to north, and about 225 from eaſt to weſt, though in many places it is much narrower. The country is fruitful, though mountainous in ſome parts; abounds with rich mines of copper, and affords conveniency of water, and fuel for working them. It is divided, as we have already obſerved, into eleven parts, which are

Upland, ſurrounded on the north-eaſt and eaſt by the Baltic Sea; on the ſouth it has part of the ſame ſea, and part of Sundermania, from which it is ſeparated by the lake of Maeler; on the weſt it is bounded by Weſtmania; and on the eaſt by Geſtricia, from which the river Dala parts it. It extends about 75 miles from north to ſouth, and about 65 from eaſt to weſt. Here are many mines of iron and lead, and ſome of ſilver. The country is fruitful, and produces, amongſt other things, excellent wheat. The moſt conſiderable cities and towns here are as follow:

Stockholm, the capital of the whole kingdom, and the reſidence of the king, had its name from its ſituation, and the great quantity of timber uſed in building it; Stock ſignifying timber, and Holm an iſland. It is built upon piles in ſeveral little iſlands, which lie near one another. It takes up at preſent ſix of thoſe iſlands, together with the ſouthern and northern ſuburbs; the one in the peninſula of Toren, and the other in Athundria. It is commonly divided into four parts, which are South Malm and North-Malm, the two ſuburbs, between which the city ſtands in an iſland: the fourth part is called Garceland. The iſle, within which the greateſt part of Stockholm is encloſed, is ſurrounded by two arms of a river, which run with great force out of the lake Maeler. Over each of theſe arms there is a wooden bridge. There are ſome other iſlands ſeparated by the city but by ſmall canals. From the city there is a proſpect on one ſide over the lake, and on the other over the ſea, which here forms a gulph, that, running between ſeveral rocks, ſeems as if it were another lake. The water

is ſo little brackiſh before Stockholm, that it might be drank; which is owing to the great quantity of freſh water that runs into the ſea from the lake.

About 300 years ago this place was only a barren iſland, with two or three cottages for fiſhers; but upon the building of a caſtle there, to ſtop the inroads of the Ruſſians, and the tranſlation of the court thither, it grew, by degrees, to ſurpaſs the other more ancient cities, and is now ſuppoſed to be as populous as Briſtol. The caſtle, which is covered with copper, is a place of no ſtrength or beauty, but of great uſe; for it is a ſpacious building, where the court reſides; and alſo furniſhes apartments for moſt of the great officers, the national court of juſtice, the colleges of war, chancery, treaſury, reduction, liquidation, commerce, and execution. Here is alſo an armoury, chapel, library, the public records, &c. It contains very few of the inferior officers and ſervants of the court; they, together with the foot-guards, being quartered upon the burghers, at their landlord's charge for lodging, fire, and candle.

In this city are nine large churches, built with brick, and covered with copper; and three or four wooden chapels.

The palace of the nobility, which is the place of their aſſembly at the convention of the ſtates, and the depoſitory of their privileges, titles, and ſuch other records as concern their body, is a very ſtately pile, and one of the fineſt in the kingdom. It is but one large pavilion, adorned on the outſide with marble figures and columns, and within with pictures and ſculptures; eſpecially in two large halls, where the nobility meet. Next to this palace is that of the lord high chancellor; and a little farther are two other palaces belonging to noblemen. Theſe four palaces ſtand on the banks of the lake, are built after the ſame manner of architecture, and are all covered with copper. The bank, built at the city's charge, is alſo a noble edifice, and, together with ſeveral magnificent houſes of the nobility, all covered with copper, affords a handſome proſpect.

Moſt of the burghers houſes are built with brick, except in the ſuburbs, where they are of timber, and thereby ſubject to the danger of fire, which commonly, when it gets a head, deſtroys all before it in the quarter where it happens. To repair this misfortune, they ſometimes ſend the dimenſions of the houſe they intend to build, into Finland, where the walls, and ſeveral ſeparations, are built of pieces of timber laid one upon another, and joined at the corners; and afterwards marked, taken down, and ſent by water to Stockholm, there to be ſet up and finiſhed; and, when they are kept in good repair, they will laſt 30 or 40 years; and are warmer, cleanlier, and more healthful, than thoſe of either brick or ſtone. To prevent the danger of fire, the city is divided into 12 wards; and in each of theſe there is a maſter, and four aſſiſtants; who, upon notice of any fire, are immediately to repair to it: as alſo all porters and labourers, who moſtly range themſelves under the maſter of their reſpective ward. There is, beſides, a fire-watch by night, who walk about only for that purpoſe; and in each church ſteeple is kept a watchman, who tolls a bell upon the firſt appearance of fire.

The government of this city is in the hands of the great ſtadtholder, who is alſo a privy counſellor. He ſits once a week in the town-houſe, and preſides in the college of execution, aſſiſted by an under ſtadtholder, and a bailiff of the caſtle. Next to him are the four burgomaſters; one for juſtice, another for trade, the third for the polity of the city, and the fourth has the inſpection over all public and private buildings, and determines ſuch caſes as ariſe on that account. With them the counſellors of the city always ſit, and give their votes, the majority of which decides. Their number is uncertain, but uſually about 20, moſtly merchants and ſhop-keepers, or ſuch as have ſerved the king in ſome inferior employment. Beſides their ſalary, they have an immunity from ſuch impoſitions as are laid on the inhabitants to ſupport the government of the city; which pays all its officers and ſervants, maintains a guard of 300 men, and defrays the charge of all public buildings and repairs. To ſupport this expence, beſides a duty belonging to the city of goods imported and exported (which is about 4 per cent. of the cuſtoms paid to the king, and amounts to about 5000l. per ann.) the magiſtrates impoſe a yearly tax on the burghers, in which they are aſſiſted by a common-council of 48, which chuſes its own members, and meet every ſpring, to proportion the payments for the enſuing year. On the traders they uſually impoſe 40, 50, or 60 pounds ſterling; upon others of a meaner condition, as ſhoemakers, taylors, &c. five or ſix pounds; and on no houſekeeper leſs than 15 ſhillings; beſides quartering the guards, inferior officers, and ſervants of the court, with other leſſer charges; which, all together, would be thought a great burden, even in richer countries: neither is it otherwiſe eſteemed by the inhabitants of this city, who can ſcarce be kept in heart by the privileges they enjoy, as well in cuſtoms, as in the trade of the place, which muſt needs paſs through their hands: for the natives of other parts of the kingdom, as all foreigners are obliged to deal only with the burghers, (except thoſe of the gentry, who make iron,) have not the privilege to ſell it immediately to ſtrangers.

This city is, in a manner, the ſtaple of Sweden; to which moſt of the goods of their own growth, as iron, copper, wire, pitch, tar, maſts, deals, &c. are brought to be exported. The greateſt part of the commodities imported from abroad come to this port, where there is a haven capable to receive 1000 ſail of ſhips, and a bridge or key near an Engliſh mile long, to which the greateſt veſſels may lie with their broadſides. The only inconvenience is, that it is 10 miles from the ſea, the river very crooked, and no tides. It opens into the Baltic, but is of dangerous acceſs, by reaſon of the rocks. Within it is one of the moſt commodious harbours in Europe; for ſhips of the largeſt ſize lie cloſe to the key, where they are ſo ſecure from the wind, that they need neither anchors or cables to hold them. Its entrance is defended by two forts.

Upſal ſtands on the banks of the river Sal, or Sala, which fall into the lake of Ekolen, and is 42 miles diſtant from Stockholm towards the north-weſt. It is a very ancient city, formerly the capital of the north, and the ſeat of the king. It is divided into two parts by the river, which is here pretty large, and ſo hard frozen up in February, that a fair is yearly kept there upon the ice in that month. The town is large, but without any conſiderable fortifications. Here is to be ſeen the fineſt church in the whole kingdom, namely, the cathedral. It is covered with copper, and adorned with ſeveral tombs, eſpecially thoſe of the kings. In the chapel, behind the altar, ſtands the monument of king Guſtavus in marble, between the ſtatues of his two wives, who lie alſo buried here. In another chapel is the tomb of king John's wife, who was mother to Sigiſmund III. king of Poland: it is of white marble. Above the city, on a ſteep hill, there is a beautiful caſtle, which is fortified. It is very large, built after the Italian manner, and has a noble proſpect over the city, which it commands, and over the whole country.

Upſal was, at firſt, a biſhop's ſee, but afterwards rendered an archbiſhopric by pope Alexander III. at the requeſt of king Charles, ſucceſſor to St. Erick. Stephen, who died in the year 1158, was the firſt archbiſhop of this ſee; and John Magnus, who, at the reformation, refuſed to admit the Lutheran confeſſion, and removed to Rome, was the 56th. Since his time there have been only Proteſtant archbiſhops, who do not live with the ſame pomp and magnificence as the Roman Catholic prelates uſed to do; for the latter never appeared in public without a retinue of 4 or 500 people on horſeback.

The

The univerſity of Upſal conſiſts of a chancellor, who is always a great miniſter of ſtate; a vice-chancellor, always the archbiſhop; and a rector, choſen out of the profeſſors, of which there are about 20, that have each 120l. a year ſalary. The ordinary number of ſtudents is about 7 or 800, 50 of which are maintained by the king, and ſome few others were formerly by perſons of quality: the reſt, that cannot ſubſiſt of themſelves, ſpend the vacation in gathering the charities of the dioceſe they belong to, which is commonly given them in corn, butter dried fiſh, or fleſh, &c. upon which they ſubſiſt at the univerſity the reſt of the year. They do not live collegiately, but in private houſes; wear no gowns, nor obſerve any other diſcipline than their own neceſſity or diſpoſition leads them to.

The city of Upſal boaſts the reſidence of the celebrated Linnæus, who was the head of the univerſity, and whoſe fame in natural hiſtory is as great as that of Charles XII. for his victories. This great man, who was of a ſocial communicative diſpoſition, always received ſtrangers with the greateſt politeneſs, and was happy in ſolving any queſtions in the line of his botanical profeſſion, which they might propound. To him we are indebted for an account of the Swediſh turnip, a root of ineſtimable value in this country. He ſays the farmers had it originally from Lapland. It ſpread by degrees through the northern parts of the kingdom, and was found of more uſe than all other winter plants put together. The great property of it is reſiſting the ſharpeſt and moſt continual froſts known in the country. Beſides this, cattle are remarkably fond of them, and will thrive on them better than on any other winter plant. One of the greateſt advantages of the culture of this root, is its being as good a preparation for corn, as a fallow of mere ploughing, which is an object of infinite importance.

Engkoping is a place of conſiderable trade, on the lake Maeler, about 25 miles from Stockholm to the weſtward, and 24 from Upſal to the ſouth.

The next ſubdiviſion of Sweden Proper is Sudermania, which is ſeparated from Upland, on the north, by the lake Maeler; bounded on the ſouth, by Eaſt Gothland; on the weſt, by Nericia; and by the Baltic on the eaſt. It is a populous country, extending 60 miles in length, and 45 in breadth; fruitful in corn, wines, and timber, of which laſt many ſhips are built in this province. It is divided into Sudermania Proper, and the iſlaand of Foren, formed by the lake Maeler and Rekarne.

Nicoping, the capital of this province, ſtands on the ſhore of the Baltic, 48 miles to the ſouthward of Stockholm. It is a place of ſome trade, with a commodious harbour, and a caſtle, in which the dukes of Sudermania uſed to reſide.

Strengthnifs is a ſmall town on the ſouth ſide of the lake Maeler, the ſee of a biſhop, ſuffragan to the metropolitan of Upſal. Some Gothic inſcriptions in the Runic characters evince the antiquity of the place. Charles IX. lies buried in the cathedral, which is an ancient gothic edifice. Oppoſite to the town an annual fair is held upon the ice.

Troſa, or Treſen, is ſituated on the Baltic, about 40 miles from Stockholm, and has a very good harbour.

Telga, which is 20 miles diſtant from Stockholm towards the ſouth weſt, and Toriſilia, which is 18 miles to the weſt of Strengthnifs, contain nothing now worthy of obſervation; though Telga was formerly a place of ſome conſequence, and is thus mentioned by Monſieur Huet, the celebrated biſhop of Arranches, in his poetical account of his journey to Stockholm.

> Once fam'd, by ſubterranean fires
> Now waſted, Telga next aſpires;
> Each ſtable here rein-deer contains,
> The denizens of northern plains;
> Two curling horns their lofty brow
> Defend, like ſtags their bodies ſhew:
> O'er ice and ſnow, the lake and mead,
> They whirl the ſledge with Eurus ſpeed.

The province of Weſtmania, or Weſtmanland, is a very barren country, ſtretching about 90 miles in length, from ſouth-eaſt to north-weſt, about 60 miles in breadth, from ſouth to north. It had formerly ſome conſiderable ſilver mines, but now they are exhauſted.

Aroſon is the capital of Weſtmania, and is ſituated on the ſide of the lake Maeler, between Koping and Engkoping, about 35 miles from Stockholm. It is a biſhop's ſee, and well defended by a ſtrong caſtle. The hereditary convention was ſettled here in the year 1544, by which the ſucceſſion to the crown of Sweden was ſettled in the family of Guſtavus Vaſa.

Arbogen, Koping, Nora, and Lindeſzar, contains nothing worthy of notice.

The province or diſtrict of Nericia is bounded on the north by Weſtmania; on the eaſt by Sudermania; on the ſouth by Eaſt Gothland; on the weſt by part of Weſt Gothland, and the northern extremity of the lake Veter, or Vetter. It contains ſeveral lakes and rivers, of which the river Troſa ſeparates the country into two parts, from weſt to eaſt. Silver mines were formerly worked in this province; but at preſent it produces only iron, ſulphur, and alum. The chief places here are Arebro, Hillſmerberg, Aſkerſund, and Glanſhamme. But none of theſe are in any reſpect remarkable.

The province or diſtrict of Geſtricia is ſituated between Delecarlia, or Dalekarlia, the Bothnian Gulph, and the rivers Tynea and Dala. It contains three towns, Cavalia, Borna, and Coperberget. The two latter are inconſiderable; but the former being at the mouth of the river Haſunda, which forms a gulph that ſerves as a good harbour, carries on a conſiderable trade.

The province of Helſingi is very extenſive, being bound on the north by Jemptia and Medolpadia; on the weſt and ſouth weſt by Delecarlia; on the ſouth by Geſtricia; and on the eaſt by the Bothnian Gulph. The country is mountainous and woody, and the inhabitants employ themſelves principally in fiſhing and hunting.

Hudſwickſwald is the capital of this province, and is ſituated near the Bothnian Gulph: it carries on a conſiderable traffic in roſin, pitch, corn, timber, &c.

Sorderhamn has a good haven, formed by the mouth of the river Luiſpa.

The other towns, Hien Swegh, Korbole, Luſdal, and Alta, are of little importance.

The province of Delecarlia, or Dalekarlia, is bounded on the weſt and north by the mountains of Norway; on the eaſt by Helſingia and Geſtricia: and on the weſt by Weſtermania and Weſtmanland. It is 165 miles in length, and 100 in breadth. Its ſubdiviſion is into what are called Three Vallies; yet, though it is ſo extenſive, it contains only a few very inconſiderable villages. The mountains abound with iron and copper, and ſome of the mines are incredibly deep. It hath been an obſervation often made, that the greateſt number of the revolutions of Sweden have begun or originated in this province, on which account the inhabitants have been characterized as more courageous, bold, and ferocious, than any of the Swedes, as well as poſſeſſed of a more liberal ſpirit of independency. The principal villages are Idra, ſituated on the river Elfinain, one of the ſources of the Dala, which runs into the Silian lake; Lima, 36 miles more to the ſouthward, and Hedernora, about 40 miles from Upſal, and ſituated on the river Dala, near the confines of Weſtermania.

The province of Medolpadia hath the Bothnian Gulph on the eaſt, Angermania on the north, Jempterland on the north-weſt, and Helſingia on the ſouth-weſt. It is woody, mountainous, and watered by three ſmall rivers. The ſea-coaſt here is about 40 miles long, and full of rocks, to the ſouth of Sunſwald, the capital of this province, ſituated at the mouth of the middle river, with a pretty good harbour. There are ſeveral other ſea-port towns on this coaſt.

Angermania, or Angermanland is bounded on the north by Weſt Bothnia and Lapland; on the eaſt by the Gulph of Bothnia; on the ſouth by Medolpadia; and on the weſt by Jempterland. It is above 90 miles in length, and near as many in breadth. The river Angerman-Flodt runs through it; but it is a mountainous country, full of rocks and foreſts; ſo that there are very few villages, and but one town of any note, which is Hernoſand, on the Bothnic Gulph, where it has a pretty good harbour, which affords it ſome trade. It lies about 70 miles from Hudwickſwald to the north.

Iniptia, Jemptia, or Jempterland, has Lapland on the north; Angermania on the eaſt; Medolpadia, Helſingia, and Dalecarli on the ſouth; and the high mountains of Norway on the weſt. It is watered by two pretty conſiderable rivers. Here are no cities, only a few inconſiderable villages and hamlets.

Weſt Bothnia, thus called, to diſtinguiſh it from Cajunia, which lies on the other ſide of the gulph, and is ſometimes called Eaſt Bothnia, lies along the northern part of the gulph, thence called the Bothnic Gulph, which bounds it on the eaſt. It has Angermania on the ſouth, and is ſurrounded by Swediſh Lapland on the weſt and north. That part of this province which lies along the coaſt, is pretty well peopled, and has many villages, but few towns of any note. The country is well watered by ſeveral rivers, which ariſe from the lakes in Lapland. The chief towns here are Uma, Lula, and Torno. The latter has a good harbour, and is a place of ſome trade.

GOTHLAND.

The ſecond grand diviſion of Sweden, called Gothland, comprizes Eaſt-Gothland, Weſt-Gothland, and South-Gothland.

Eaſt-Gothland includes the country properly ſo called, Smaland, and the iſland of Ocland.

Eaſt Gothland Proper is bounded on the north by Sudermania; on the eaſt by the Baltic; on the weſt by the lake Vetter, or Veter; and on the ſouth by Smaland. It is a fertile, open, flat country, producing corn, cattle, fowl, veniſon, fiſh, &c.

The chief town, called Norkoping, (which term implies the Northern Market,) is populous, large, and hath conſiderable commerce. The biſhop of Avranches, in mentioning it ſays,

> At Norkoping, where copper-plates
> Are forg'd, the ſteeds our driver baits:
> Large coins are here impreſs'd, and threads
> Form'd of vaſt length from copper ſhreds:
> To diſtant lands theſe precious wares,
> In loaded ſhips, the merchant bears.

The place is likewiſe celebrated for a ſalmon fiſhery, which affords a maintenance to many people.

Suderkoping, a town of ſome trade, ſtands on a branch of the ſea, about 16 miles from the Baltic; is unfortified, but has been remarkable for ſome curious cryſtal ſtones which have been found in the neighbourhood.

Ten miles to the eaſtward of Sudercoping ſtands Stegeburg. It is a ſmall town, but has a tolerable harbour, and ſome commerce.

Weſtena, or Vandan, ſituated on the eaſtern bank of the lake Vetter, 25 miles diſtance from Norkoping, is only remarkable for the ruins of an ancient royal palace.

The biſhop of Avranches, in ſpeaking of Eaſt-Gothland in general terms, ſays,

> Now wild Eaſt-Gothland's bounds we gain,
> Where beaſts-ſkins clothe each livid ſwain:
> Froſt-bit their faces, coarſe their fare;
> Caps of warm freize the women wear,
> Well jolted with the rugged way,
> Each night in cottages we lay,
> Which upright trunks of trees compoſe;
> Graſs on the turfy covering grows;
> Where ſheep, as on a level mead,
> Undaunted, unmoleſted, feed.
> The roof has peep-holes—So, 'tis ſaid,
> Thy temple, Terminus, is made.

Smaland is ſituated between Eaſt-Gothland, the Baltic, Bleking, and Halland. It is 170 miles in length, and about 75 in breadth. It abounds in wood, cattle, copper, lead, iron, &c.

Calmer, the capital of this diſtrict, is a very conſiderable city. It is ſituated 160 miles to the ſouthward of Stockholm, and built upon a ſtrait of the Baltic, called Calmar Sund, which is ſituated oppoſite to the iſle of Ocland. It is divided into the Old and New Town. Old Calmer is famous by a deed executed there in the year 1393, by which the three northern crowns of Sweden, Norway, and Denmark, were ſettled on the head of queen Margaret. This is called in hiſtory, the union of Calmar. Erick, Margaret's ſucceſſor, founded 13 prebends here, and gave a decree, by which he put the church of Calmar among the collegiate ones. After the diviſion of the crowns, which the fatal union of Calmer had united, this city became a frontier town, with regard to the Danes, who were in poſſeſſion of Schonen. It was often taken, re-taken, and plundered; and, to complete its ruin, was burnt down to the ground in the year 1547; nothing eſcaping the fire but the church, and about threeſcore houſes. Soon after this misfortune, the new city was built at a muſquet ſhot's diſtance from the Old Town, in a little iſland called Owarnholm. This new city is large, the ſtreets are broad and ſtrait, and the houſes well built; but the town is not populous. The new fortifications conſiſt only of thick walls, built with large pebble ſtones taken out of the ſea, and a few ramparts built only with ſand, and therefore ſupported by another wall, which the ſea ſurrounds almoſt on all ſides, except the gate. The ſituation of this city renders it very ſtrong, all the avenues to it being full of marſhes, or cut off by water from the ſea, which abounds here with rocks, between which there are, as it were, ſo many abyſſes, that it is impoſſible to approach the place, either in boats, on horſeback, or on foot. On the ſea-ſide there is a long mole, built with ſtone, along which boats and ſhips ride ſecure. This mole is defended by a fortreſs, called Grimſkar, built at about 50 paces from it, on a rock ſurrounded by the ſea, and where a garriſon is conſtantly kept. Behind the Old Town ſtands the caſtle, which is of very difficult acceſs, having on one ſide the ſea, which is full of rocks; and on the other good ramparts, large baſtions, and ditches full of water. This city is, at preſent, the reſidence of a ſuperintendant for the government of the clergy, who is honoured with a place in the public conſiſtory of the kingdom. This is a town of good trade, and the paſſage from Sweden into Germany.

Wexio, a biſhops's ſee, where ſome of the firſt planters of Chriſtianity lie buried, ſtand on the banks of the lake Salem, and is 45 miles diſtant from Calmar, towards the north-weſt.

Weſterwick, Ekeſio, and Jonkioping, are places of ſome trade, and worthy of note on that account only. A late ingenious traveller has favoured us with the following curious account of his journey from Helſinburg (the firſt town in the Swediſh dominions, on the ſide of Denmark) to Jonkioping. It runs thus: "I croſſed the celebrated paſſage of the Sound, though it blew very freſh. We were over in a little more than half an hour. At Helſinburg, where I entered the Swediſh dominions, I had the pleaſure of viewing the beautiful landſcape reverſed, which I had ſeen the preceding evening, from the iſland of Zealand. Which of the two is actually the moſt charming, I leave connoiſſeurs to determine. I drove 20 miles in the afternoon, and was then obliged, by the approach

of night, and the want of horſes, to ſtop at a miſerable little inn, or rather cabin, where I could procure nothing beſides milk. I lay down five hours in my cloaths, and then got into the carriage at three o'clock in the morning. Had I underſtood properly the manner of travelling in this country, which is to ſend a peaſant forward from every poſt-houſe, to procure horſes in readineſs, I ſhould have doubtleſs made a conſiderable progreſs on my way; but as I neglected this neceſſary ſtep, I was obliged to wait at every ſtage an hour or two, while the horſes were brought from the neighbouring villages.

"I was forced to ſpend this night in a more deſolate and dirty hovel than the firſt, where I wrapped myſelf in my great coat, and ſlept upon a table. In the morning, when I continued my journey, the whole aſpect of nature was changed. The ſnow lay upon the ground two feet deep; and the winter ſeemed to have renewed its empire over theſe inhoſpitable plains, from whence the ſmiling month of May cannot baniſh him. In hopes of reaching Jonkioping at night, I ſet out, however, in defiance of the inclemency of the weather, which, from having been very warm, was become, in a few hours, as cold and piercing as our Decembers. The drivers ſeemed totally unaffected by this ſudden alteration, which did not produce any change in their dreſs or cloathing; and the peaſants, both men and women, were all barefooted as before. The ſnow, however, conſpiring with the want of horſes, prevented me from reaching Jonkioping, and I ſtaid all night at a houſe, which, for horror of ſituation, I never remember paralleled. It is quite detached from any village or hamlet, and the ſpot on which it ſtands is a bare rock, deſtitute of any covering or earth, and ſurrounded on every ſide by the deepeſt woods it is poſſible to conceive, and in which I had not ſeen one human creature for two leagues before my arrival. Yet, in this ſituation, fatigue made me ſleep very ſound, and my ſervant by me, till three in the morning, when, with the return of the day, I entered my carriage, and left this moſt melancholy and wretched habitation. Had I been in Spain or Portugal, I own my fears would have kept me awake, and I ſhould have recollected every diſmal recital of murders and aſſaſſinations, which nurſes or novels had informed me of; but here thoſe accidents rarely or never happen, and one may travel in perfect ſafety.

"I got to Jonkioping the next morning about ten o'clock, and gladly enjoyed a few hours of relaxation after ſo many unpleaſing occurrences. It is difficult to give a picture of the country through which I paſſed from Helſingburg, the colours of which you will not imagine are heightened by fancy or invention. The firſt twenty miles exhibited ſome few marks of cultivation and agriculture; and though there was not one collection of huts or houſes, which could be denominated a village, yet ſcattered cottages, and a little ploughed land, amidſt an immenſe waſte, informed the paſſenger that it was not totally unoccupied or unpeopled. But as I advanced farther into the province of Scania, and afterwards into that of Smaland, even theſe faint traces of human reſidence vaniſhed. Groves of fir or aſpin covered the country; and in the courſe of 60 miles, I can affirm, I ſaw not 100 people, and not 10 hamlets. Villages there are not any. I have drove from one ſtage to another, of 12 or 14 Engliſh miles, without meeting or ſeeing a ſingle perſon, though I caſt my eyes impatiently round on every ſide, in hopes to diſcern the countenance of man.

"In many places the firs, on either ſide the road, form avanues as noble as thoſe which are often planted at the entrance to palaces, or noblemens ſeats; and through the whole was ſpread a kind of rude and gloomy magnificence, which, ſuperadded to their ſilence and lonelineſs, very ſtrongly affected the mind. Even the birds ſeem to have abandoned theſe dreary foreſts. I heard or ſaw none, except woodpeckers, and now and then a cuckoo. I enquired if they did not afford refuge to wolves or bears, as theſe animals are commonly found in thoſe countries and places which want population; but the peaſants aſſured me, the former were only in ſmall numbers, and rarely ſeen: and as to bears, there are not any.

"The peaſants are civil and humble to obſequiouſneſs, grateful for the third part of a halfpenny, and infinitely leſs uncivilized and barbarous than one would be tempted to ſuppoſe from the appearance of every think around them. Had I not taken the precaution to carry wine and proviſions with me, I muſt have been almoſt ſtarved in my journey, through theſe miſerable provinces, where the peaſants are ſtrangers to every kind of aliment, except bread, and ſalt pork or fiſh. It is, indeed, a queſtion whether the former of theſe deſerves the name of bread, as it is a compound of rye and oats; among which they mingle, in times of dearth and famine, a kind of flour made of the internal bark of trees raſped: it is of a colour approaching to black, and of a taſte which you muſt be as hungry as I was to reliſh.

"My ſervant, who is a German, and has wandered over half Europe in various ſervices, was quite tired with four days of ſuch miſerable accommodation, and exclaimed in a rapture, at the ſight of this place, that it was *le paradis terreſtre*. It is, indeed, of itſelf, a very neat country town, and moſt delightfully ſituated on the lake Vetter. I looked down from the top of the church on it; and the ſurrounding meadows, which were all cultivated after the deſerts I had paſſed, were peculiarly grateful to the eye. The lake itſelf, which is near 200 Engliſh miles in length, extends, far beyond the view, to the north, and rather reſembles the ſea, than a piece of inland water."

The iſle of Orland will be deſcribed in thoſe iſlands which are contiguous to, and form a part of, the kingdom of Sweden.

Weſt-Gothland is a large province, having Smaland on the ſouth-eaſt, Halland on the ſouth weſt, the river Gothelba on the north-weſt, by which it is parted from the government of Bahuſe, and the province of Dalia; on the north it has the lake Wenner, and part of Vermeland; and on the eaſt it has part of Nericia, and the lake Vetter, which divides it from Eaſt-Gothland Proper. It is watered by many lakes and rivers, and abounds with excellent paſtures, where great quantities of cattle are bred, and the country is enriched by the ſale of them.

The moſt conſiderable towns are the following:

Gottenburgh, or Gothburg, which ſtands on the Schager-Rach, or Categate, on the ſourthern branch of the river Cothelba, which there falls into the ſea, and forms the harbour of this city, is 170 miles diſtant from Calmer towards the weſt, and 225 from Stockholm to the ſouth-weſt. It is not an ancient town, being built in the year 1607, under the reign of king Charles IX. His ſucceſſors have granted it great privileges, by which it is become a conſiderable mart. The Dutch drive a large trade here. In the war of 1644, the Danes exerted their utmoſt efforts to ruin this city, but to no purpoſe; and it has been ſo well fortified ſince, that it is now one of the ſtrongeſt maritime towns in the kingdom.

Gottenburg, from its ſituation, much exceeds any other ſea-port in Sweden for trade; yet the commerce carried on here is not ſo much as at Stockholm. Formerly Norkoping exceeded it; but the eſtabliſhment of the Swediſh Eaſt India company here has been of very great advantage to it, by bringing much other trade; ſo that now it is the ſecond port in Sweden. They have here large magazines and warehouſes, with an exceeding good dock for building, repairing, and careening their ſhips. There are alſo at Gottenburg ſeveral tolerable churches; and, among other buildings, the arſenal and town-houſe are pretty conſiderable. The commerce of this place is very thriving; and the number of ſhips belonging to it, have for theſe twenty years paſt, been much upon the increaſe. Indeed, trade

trade ſeems to be getting much more amongſt theſe northern nations than formerly.

The uniting of the Iſle of Man, however, to the crown of Great Britain, where the merchants of Gottenburg, as well as thoſe of Copenhagen, had conſiderable magazines of Eaſt India goods, was a terrible loſs to the Swediſh and Daniſh companies."

Skara, Skaren, or Skar, a biſhop's ſee, about 12 miles diſtant from the lake Wenner to the ſouth, and 84 from Gottenburg to the north-weſt, was the ſeat of the ancient kings of Sweden, and had a palace, one of the ſtatelieſt, not only in the north, but in all Europe, as may ſtill be judged by its ſituation, walls, and ſtructure. It is now a defenceleſs town, though formerly the metropolis of Weſt-Gothland. Near the lake Wenner, and the ancient palace juſt mentioned, ſtands the mountain called Kindakulle, which is very high, and produces all kinds of herbs and plants, except vines. Every thing grows there naturally; and this mountain, which may be deemed one of the moſt fruitful in the north, is alſo one of the moſt delightful, through the warbling of an infinite number of birds that meet here.

Linkoping, or Lidkoping, which implies the mart of Lida, ſtands on the lake Wenner, at the mouth of the river Lida, which there falls into the lake. It is 15 miles diſtant from Skara. Concerning this place the biſhop of Avranches ſays,

Wide branching pines, as on we paſt,
A welcome ſhade around us caſt:
The night o'ertook us at a town
Nam'd Linkoping, to fame well known,
Where firſt their breath the Magni drew,
Johannes and Olaus too.

The Magni above alluded to were the two celebrated brothers, viz. Johannes Magnus, archbiſhop of Upſal, the author of the Swediſh hiſtory, and Olaus his brother, who ſucceeded him in the archbiſhopric, and wrote a treatiſe on the manners, cuſtoms, and wars of the northern nations.

There are in this province two other cities, Talcoping, and Marieſtadt, but neither is conſiderable.

Vermeland, or Wermeland, has Delecarlia on the north, Weſtermania and Nericia on the eaſt, the lake Wenner on the ſouth, and Norway, with part of Dalia, on the weſt. Its greateſt extent, from eaſt to weſt, is about 97 miles; and from north to ſouth, about 144. It has many lakes and marſhes, is but indifferently cultivated, and thinly peopled. Here are ſome mines of iron, and one of copper.

The chief towns are Carloſtad, or Carlſtad, built by Charles IX. king of Sweden, Phillipſtad, and Ruſcoy.

Dalia, which the Swedes ſpell Daal, one of the ſmalleſt provinces in the kingdom, is, in extent, from north to ſouth about 84 miles; and from eaſt to weſt, not above 24. It is full of mountains, lakes, and rivers, which fall into the lake Wenner, and has pretty good paſtures for cattle, which are of larger ſize than ordinary; but otherwiſe the country is barren. Daleleburg is the chief place in this province.

South Gothland has Eaſt and Weſt-Gothland on the north, and is ſurrounded every where elſe by the ſea. It is divided into three provinces, Halland, Schonen, and Bleking.

Halland has the ſea of Denmark, or Categate, on the ſouth-weſt, Schonen on the ſouth, and part of Eaſt-Gothland, and Weſt-Gothland, on the north-eaſt and north. Its extent, along the ſea-coaſt, is about 75 miles; but its greateſt breadth is not above 22 miles. This is a pleaſant and fruitful country, which belonged formerly to Denmark, but was, in 1645, engaged to the Swedes, as a ſecurity for a free paſſage of the Sound; and was afterwards yielded to them for ever by the treaty of Roſchild.

The chief towns here are the following: Halmſtad, the capital of this province, has a good harbour, and is a place of trade. It was fortified by Chriſtian IV. king of Denmark, but yielded to Sweden by the treaty of Bromſbro in 1645.

Laholm has a citadel, and good harbour.

Falkenberg is a ſea-port, defended by a caſtle.

Warberg is a ſmall town with a ſtrong caſtle, and a large harbour.

Schonon is a peninſula, ſeparated from Zealand by the Sound, which waſhes its coaſt on the weſt. It is bounded on the north, partly by Halland, and partly by Smaland: on the eaſt it has part of Bleking, and the Baltic ſea, which waters it alſo on the ſouth. It is about 80 miles from north to ſouth, and about 60 from eaſt to weſt. As it is the moſt ſouthern, it is alſo the moſt fruitful province, abounding with corn, cattle, fowl, and all conveniences of life. It has alſo mines of ſilver, lead, and iron. This province belonged formerly to the Danes, but was yielded to the Swedes in 1660. The Danes again ſeized the greateſt part of it in 1676 and 1677, but were obliged to reſtore it to the Swedes by the treaty concluded at Fontainbleau in France, September 16, 1679. This province is ſubject to be the theatre of war, whenever any breaks out between Sweden and Denmark, becauſe of the proximity of theſe two kingdoms.

Notwithſtanding the fruitfulneſs of this province, the biſhop of Avranches ſpeaks of it in the following words:

Spite of the wind's tempeſtuous roar,
We croſs'd the Sound to Schonen's ſhore,
Our hoſt there cook'd a ſtrange repaſt,
Delicious to a Gothland taſte.
He kindly urg'd us firſt to eat,
Sprinkled with ſaffron, ſalted meat:
Then on board at once appear
Raw mutton-ſtakes, dry'd currants, beer,
Sweet-ſcented herbs, rice pounded, wine,
Cloves, and quick pepper, ſifted fine.
The table laſt full many a pound
Of ginger, butter, ſugar, crown'd;
With muſtard, honey, fennel, oil,
And coriander. All the toil
And ſkill of Hecaté could ne'er,
In Stygian ſhades, ſuch cates prepare;
Nor worſe the drugs, if fame be true,
Which unrelenting ſtep-dames brew.
Each diſh untouch'd, we haſte away,
Reſolv'd to travel night and day.
Thro' fir-tree foreſts, large and brown,
We paſs to Gothlanders well known.
Our thirſt with proffer'd mead we ſlak'd;
They then brought biſcuits, which, well bak'd,
With ſalt and cin'mon they prepare,
And harden in the ſmoke and air:
Your knife can no impreſſion make;
Then, in its ſtead, a hammer take.

Luden, the capital of this province, was formerly the ſee of an archbiſhop; but in 1658, when the Swedes took the city, that dignity was removed to Copenhagen; and it is now only an epiſcopal ſee. It was adorned with an univerſity, erected by Charles IX. in 1668, which has produced eminent men; and particularly the celebrated Samuel Puffendorff: but this univerſity has been ſuppreſſed.

Luden was formerly a very conſiderable city, in which were 22 churches, whereof the cathedral of St. Lawrence is a magnificent ſtructure, having a very high ſpire, which is a land-mark for ſailors; and a clock of the moſt ingenious contrivance, ſaid to be the work of Caſper Bartholinus. It not only ſhews the hour, day, month, and year, together with all the feſtivals; but the movements, are ſo artificially contrived, that at the hour two horſemen come forth, and encounter each other, giving ſo many blows as the hammer is to ſtrike upon the bell: then a door opens, diſcovering the Virgin Mary ſitting on a throne, with our Saviour in her

arms

arms, and the wiſe men paying their homage to him, while two trumpeters ſound a note of triumph. In the neighbourhood of this city is the hill on which the kings of Sweden were formerly elected.

Melmoe, Landſkroon, and Elſinburg, are places now greatly on the decline.

The province or diſtrict of Bleking is ſituated between Smaland, Schonen, and the Baltic, ſtretches above 80 miles in length, from eaſt to weſt; and is about 50 from north to ſouth, at the broadeſt part. The coaſts are rocky, and the interior parts mountainous, woody, and barren. The principal towns are theſe:

Chriſtianſtadt, which has been ſeveral times taken and retaken in the courſe of the wars with Denmark.

Chriſtianople, which was once the capital of this province, and had formerly a good harbour, which Charles XI. took a great deal of pains to ruin and render uſeleſs.

Ahuys, which is ſituated on the Baltic, at the mouth of the river Hellea, has a ſafe, capacious, and much-frequented harbour. And Carlſcroon, which has an excellent harbour, and is well fortified.

FINLAND.

THIS grand diviſion of Sweden is about 386 miles in length, from north to ſouth, and 215 from eaſt to weſt. It is bounded by the Bothnian Gulph, part of Ruſſia, and part of Lapland. It abounds in grain, cattle, fiſh, &c. of which exports are made to other parts of the kingdom. It likewiſe furniſhes other provinces with butter, cheeſe, &c. The inhabitants, in general, are Lutherans; and they ſpeak a very peculiar dialect, ſo as to be ſcarcely intelligible to the Swedes of other provinces.

The Finlanders had kings of their own till about the middle of the 13th century, when they were ſubdued by Erick, king of Sweden. However, part of the province of Savolaxia, all that of Kenholm, a portion of Carlia, and the fortreſs of Nyſlot, were by the treaty of Abo, in 1743, ceded for ever to Ruſſia.

Finland is divided into ſeven provinces, Finland Proper, Nylandia, Carelia, Kenholm, Savolaxia, Tavaſtia, and Cajunia.

The towns in general, of Finland Proper, are inconſiderable. At Abo, the capital, is an univerſity, which was founded and endowed by the celebrated queen Chriſtina; and the town is the ſee of a biſhop. The houſes are almoſt all of wood; and the epiſcopal palace is compoſed of no better materials, except that it is painted red. The town, however, derives ſome trade from its harbour, in the neighbourhood of which is a rock ſurrounded by the water. It is ſingular that, when any ſhip paſſes this rock, the needle no longer points towards the north; from whence a vulgar conjecture hath ariſen, that the rock contains a load-ſtone mine.

The province of Nylandia contains the following towns:

Helſingfors, the capital of this province, is a ſmall town, ſituated on a gulph of the ſame name, at the mouth of the river Winda. It has a pretty good harbour, and an immenſe fortreſs, lately built, which is garriſoned by 8000 men.

Burgo, Raſeburg, and Ekenes, we paſs over as unworthy of notice.

The province of Carelia is very fruitful, and extends, from eaſt to weſt, about 150 miles. The principal town is Wyburg, a biſhop's ſee, which has conſiderable trade, is well fortified, commanded by a caſtle, and greatly benefited by having a good harbour.

The province of Kenholm is extenſive, but unfertile, as it contains many large lakes and barren mountains. It contains but one place of any note, viz. Kenholm, from which the province has its name. It is a ſmall city, defended by a very ſtrong citadel, and was formerly, with the whole province, ſubject to the Ruſſians, till about the beginning of the laſt century, when the Czar promiſed Charles IX. king of Sweden, to ſurrender the town and province to him, if he would aſſiſt him againſt the Poles, by whom he was then cloſely beſet; but, being freed from the danger, he refuſed to perform his promiſe; which cauſed the Swedes to invade his dominions, and oblige him to yield up by treaty, in the year 1616, not only this town and country, but alſo the moſt conſiderable place in Ingria. But the Ruſſians have retaken all of them.

Savolaxia an inland province is a barren and deſert country, covered with foreſts, and abounding with lakes, which afford its few inhabitants plenty of fiſh. There is not a place in the whole province that merits deſcription.

Tavaſtia, or Tavaſtland, is a marſhy country, neither much cultivated, or populous. There are, however, iron mines, which afford a pretty conſiderable profit.

Tavaſtus, the capital of the province, is ſtrong by its ſituation in a marſhy ground, which renders it of very difficult acceſs.

Martin Zeiller aſſerts, that Birger Jari, a Swediſh general, fortified this city in 1250, in order to keep the inhabitants in awe, whom he had obliged to embrace the Chriſtian religion.

There are ſeveral other towns in this province, but they are all ſmall, and of no importance.

The province of Cajunia abounds with rivers, which empty themſelves into the Gulph of Bothnia. The northern and eaſtern parts are bound with mountains, but the reſt of the country is fruitful.

Cajaneburg, the chief place of this province, from which it borrows its name, is defended by a good citadel.

The other towns are Ula, Ulaburg, Carelby, Jacobſtadt, Lochto, Waſa, and Chriſtianſtadt. Of theſe the only remark worthy of notice is, that Waſa is the native place of the celebrated Guſtavus Vaſa, whoſe glorious reign is perpetuated in the annals of hiſtory.

SWEDISH LAPLAND.

HAVING already given a minute deſcription of Lapland in general, both with reſpect to the country and inhabitants, we have only to ſpecify thoſe parts of it, which being under the dominion of Sweden, are particularized by the appellation of Swediſh Lapland. Theſe are Augermanice-Lapmark, Uma-Lapmark, Pitha-Lapmark, Lula-Lapmark, Torno-Lapmark, and Kima-Lapmark. As the towns of theſe provinces in general, contain not one article of real information or entertainment, we omit the inſertion of their reſpective names, as tedious and unintereſting to the reader, conveying only mere ſounds.

The following iſlands, immediately appertaining to the crown of Sweden, are, therefore, here introduced in their proper order, viz.

GOTHLAND.

GOTHLAND, or Gothia Inſola, is ſituated in the Baltic ſea, over-againſt the coaſt of Eaſt Gothland, in Sweden, from which it is about two miles diſtant to the Eaſt. It lies between 57 and 58 deg. of north lat. and between 18 deg. 30 min. and 20 deg. of eaſt long. Its greateſt length, from the ſouth-weſt to the north-eaſt, is about 56 miles; but its breadth is not above 18 miles, from eaſt to weſt. Olaus Magnus ſays, it was called Gothland, that is to ſay, Good Land, becauſe it is fruitful, abounding with all the neceſſaries of life; and ſo well provided with the bleſſings of nature, that it may be ranked among the beſt iſlands in the north. It is, ſays he, in another place, a good land, in ſeveral reſpects: the inhabitants are a good ſort of people; there are good harbours all round the coaſt; the ſoil is good: it abounds in paſtures, cattle, wild-fowl, fiſh,

good

good water, woods, and beautiful marble. This iſland belonged formerly to the Pruſſian knights, who reſigned it to the Danes in 1408, for 9000 crowns. The Swedes got it in 1645; but it was retaken by the Danes in 1677, and reſtored to the Swedes by the treaty of Fontainbleau in 1679. There is here but one conſiderable city, which is

Wiſby, or Wiſburg, the chief place of this iſland, on the weſtern coaſt of it. It is built on the declivity of a rock near the ſea-ſhore, ſurrounded with a ſtrong wall, and defended by a pretty ſtrong caſtle, erected near the harbour, where the governor of the iſland uſually reſides. Olearius relates, that the ruins of 14 churches, and of ſeveral houſes, gates, and walls, of free-ſtone and marble, which he ſaw there in 1635, made him judge that this was formerly a conſiderable city: but it is now very much decayed. It began to be important towards the end of the 8th century, ſince which time it became ſo populous, that it contained 10,000 inhabitants, moſt of them merchants, without reckoning the Danes, Swedes, Vandals, Saxons, Ruſſians, Jews, Greeks, Pruſſians, Polanders, and Livonians, who traded there. Theſe foreigners were ſo numerous, that they could make head againſt the inhabitants; and, in the year 1288, there aroſe a quarrel amongſt them, and a battle was fought, in which great numbers were killed on both ſides. However, the inhabitants gained the victory; and Magnus, king of Sweden, reconciled them with the foreigners.

The inhabitants of Wiſby are ſaid to be the firſt who made hydrographical tables and ſea-charts. They alſo pretend to the glory of being the firſt that made laws for regulating trade and navigation. But Monſieur La Martiniere, a French writer obſerves, that they have rather admitted, than invented them. He ſays, that, being grown rich by navigation, they introduced among themſelves the famous laws of Oleron, an iſland in France, in order to decide by them the diſputes that might ariſe amongſt merchants. They tranſlated thoſe laws into their own language, and made ſome additions to them; by which means they were not only looked upon as the authors of them, but acquired alſo the reputation of being the moſt famous traders in Europe. In 1597 the Hans Towns ſent deputies to Lubeck, in order to draw up laws concerning navigation, which laws are ſtill obſerved throughout the whole Baltic; but they, properly ſpeaking, are the very laws of Wiſby, with ſome additions and improvements: and what ſhews that theſe laws are more modern than thoſe of Oleron, is, that thoſe of Lubeck are fuller than thoſe of Wiſby, as the latter are more compleat than thoſe of Oleron.

OCLAND.

IS a narrow ſlip of land over-againſt the continent of South-Gothland, from which it is ſeparated by a ſtrait, which is not above nine or ten miles broad, and is called Calmarſundt, or the Strait of Calmar. This iſland, the name of which ſignifies the Land of Hay, is about 70 miles long, from ſouth to north; but its greateſt breadth is not above 12 miles. The ſoil affords good paſture, and many herds of oxen, horſes, and fallow-deer, feed upon it.

The weſtern coaſt is not very populous, containing only two villages, named Alebeck and Smedeby, with the city of Borkolm, the capital of this iſland. It lies under 56 deg. 57 min. north latitude, and 18 degrees, 80 min. eaſt longitude. It is about 15 miles diſtant from Calmar towards the north-eaſt, and is defended by a caſtle. The eaſtern coaſt, on the contrary, is very well peopled, and contains, going from north to ſouth, the towns of Boda, Keningſgard, Hogaby, Kilda, Stapeling, Genſtala, Remaſten, Mokleby, Stenaſa, with the villages of Hulderſtad and Ottenby. There are many forts and caſtles to defend this iſland, that have been often attacked. In 1530 it was taken by the Danes, ſoon after which the Swedes recovered it; but, being loſt again, Guſtavus Adolphus finally retook it in 1613, ſince which time it has been conſtantly poſſeſſed by the crown of Sweden.

DAGO.

IS of a triangular form, the ſides being from 20 to 25 miles in length. On the weſtern cape there is a high tower, which was built by the ſenate of Revel, as a light-houſe and land-mark. The northern and north-eaſt parts are mountainous; and between here and the continent of Eſtonia, are ſome ſand-banks, ſmall iſlands, rocks, &c.

HAGLAND.

HAGLAND, in the gulph of Finland, is about nine miles in length. The whole is but a cluſter of rocks, interſperſed or covered with fir-trees, brambles, &c. and haunted by a few hares, that grow white in the winter.

ALAND.

ALAND is ſituated in the Baltic, between 40 and 50 miles from the ſouth-weſt part of Finland. The circumference is near 180 miles; and the inhabitants near 6000 in number. Theſe live in ſmall hamlets, as there is no regular town in the iſland; for indeed, the peaſants have almoſt remonſtrated againſt the founding any, which the Swediſh government have been deſirous of effecting. The unhappy king Erick XIV. was confined in a caſtle in this iſland, which goes under the name of Caſtleholm. An ingenious traveller mentions the following curious particulars concerning it: "I arrived (ſays he) in half an hour, at the caſtle, and alighted under the walls. It ſtands in a beautiful ſituation, on the banks of a river, and commands an extenſive view on every ſide. It was not till after a quarter of an hour's ſearch, that the peaſant who drove the carriage, and who had known the caſtle 40 years, could diſcover the paſſage which led to the chamber where the king had been impriſoned, and it was with ſtill greater difficulty I could enter it when found. I crawled upon my hands and knees under an arch, the ſtones of which having fallen down in a courſe of years, had almoſt filled up the way; and after paſſing this narrow entrance I had two ladders to mount, which did not appear capable of bearing too much preſſure. I followed, however, where my guide led the way, and entered the apartment through a trap-door. I muſt own that I was ſtruck with compaſſion and horror, to think that a ſovereign had been the tenant of ſuch a dungeon, which is too miſerable for the worſt malefactor. It is compoſed of ſtone, and vaulted over head. I meaſured it by my paces: it was about 23 feet long, and 12 broad. The light is admitted by a narrow window through a wall five feet in thickneſs. In one corner is a little fire place, and in the other a cupboard, hollowed in the wall. The flooring is of brick; and, as the peaſant pretended to ſhew me, is worn away in thoſe places where the king was uſed to walk."

This iſland abounds in cattle, and ſome wild beaſts, and is plentifully ſupplied with fiſh. It is ſurrounded by many ſand-banks, rocks, and ſmall iſlands; ſome of the latter being inhabited, and others uninhabited.

Of theſe little iſlands the moſt remarkable are Ekero, (which is ſix miles long, and ſeparated from Aland only by a river of three miles over,) Flys, Landſweden, Rodan Nyan, and Lappo.

RUGEN.

RUGEN, which is ſituated in the Baltic, oppoſite to Stralſund, is 23 miles in length, and 15 in breadth, with the title of a principality. It abounds with corn and cattle; contains a town called Bergen, is ſtrong by nature, and well fortified by art.

The ſame ingenious traveller, whom we have before quoted, in ſpeaking of his departure from Finland, and concerning the adjacent iſlands, ſays, "It was my intention to have gone on to Finland by the poſt route, through ſeveral ſmall iſlands or rocks, from one to another, for which there are conſtantly boats provided to convey travellers. Juſt as I was on the point of carrying this deſign into execution, four or five of the country people came and propoſed to convey me from thence ſtrait to Abo. I did not heſitate long, but complied with the offer, and left Aland about midnight on Saturday. I ſlept, as I had done the preceding night, in my conveyance, and at ſeven in the morning, found myſelf in a narrow paſſage, ſurrounded by high rocks, and the people employed in rowing. I made no queſtion but we were already in the river of Abo; but was not a little chagrined to find, on enquiry, that the wind had fallen away, that we were hardly 30 miles from the place we had quitted, and that I muſt not flatter myſelf with landing in Finland that day. They added, that the whole way was through ſuch channels as I was then in; and ſeveral Iſlands, by which I ſailed, were inhabited; and that, if I pleaſed, they would land me on one of them, where I might procure ſome refreſhment. To this I gladly conſented; and about nine o'clock I went on ſhore, on one callad Lappo. I walked to a little hamlet at a mile diſtance from the ſhore. The poor peaſants very chearfully brought me ſome cream, and aſſiſted in boiling my coffee. Nothing could exceed their poverty; a little black bread, fiſh, pork, and a ſort of mixture they called beer, conſtituting all their ſuſtenance. After having made a very comfortable breakfaſt on this unknown and ſequeſtered iſland, I returned again to the boat. During the whole day we purſued our voyage through a labyrinth of ſmall rocks and iſles; many of them covered with firs and aſpins; ſome few green and beautiful, but far the greater number barren and rugged. I could have fancied myſelf among the Cyclades, ſo famous in ancient ſtory; but here were no temples ſacred to Apollo or Juno, nor had genius and poetry conſpired to render every cliff and promontory immortal. Many of the proſpects were, however, wonderfully pictureſque and romantic; and I frequently ſtopped the boatmen for a minute, to gaze upon the extraordinary ſcenes around me. Sometimes we went through channels of only 20 or 30 feet in breadth. Sometimes the water opened into a conſiderable expanſe, and often there appeared to be no avenue on any ſide, I was aſtoniſhed how they ſo exactly knew their track in this intricate and perplexing maze, through which nothing beſides long experience could have conducted them.

SECTION III.

Deſcription of the Perſons, Dreſs, Diſpoſitions, Manner of Living, different Ranks, Employments, Diverſions, Marriages, Funerals, Language, Religion, Learning, &c. of the Inhabitants of Sweden.

THE natives of this country are, in general, of good ſtature and robuſt conſtitution, capable of enduring hardſhips. Their hair, like that of other northern nations, is inclined to yellow. The women are of juſt proportion, have good features, and thoſe who are employed at home, are moſtly fair, but the peaſants compel their families to undergo an equal ſhare in all laborious employments.

The cloathing of the Swedes is ſuitable to the climate. The dreſs of the rich, in winter, is lined with furs; that of the poor with ſheep ſkins, with the wool on. In faſhion, the Swedes reſemble the Germans, and other European nations. They wear, in ſummer, ſuch ſtuffs as their circumſtances enable them to procure; the great adorning themſelves with lace and embroidery. The common people are, in general, dull of apprehenſion, and little troubled with the ſpirit of enquiry. However, it muſt be obſerved, to the credit of the country, that, by induſtry, experience, and travelling, ſome of thoſe of ſuperior rank, arrive at ſuch a mature and ſolid judgment as to make a conſiderable figure in life, and to merit the title of great and able men. The nation has produced many excellent ſtateſmen, and ſome learned men; among the latter of whom ſtand the celebrated Puffendorf, hiſtorian, civilian, and philoſopher; and, of our time, the famous botaniſt Linnæus, one of the beſt naturaliſts in Europe.

The inhabitants of Sweden compoſe the four following claſſes: the nobility and gentry; the clergy, the citizens and merchants; and the ſoldiers, ſeamen, and peaſants.

The nobility and gentry chiefly apply themſelves to a military life. They are naturally courageous and hoſpitable, fond of glory, and ſcrupluouſly obſervant of the functions of honour; but, at the ſame time, too generally proud, oſtentatious, jealous, and vindictive. Thoſe who are employed in the adminiſtration of civil affairs, though they are laborious and indefatigable, ſeldom raiſe their ſpeculations above what the neceſſity of their employments require, their abilities proceeding not ſo much from ſtudy, as experience in the track of buſineſs. They preſerve a graceful deportment, and make the beſt appearance they poſſibly can, in order to gain the reſpect of thoſe beneath them. They never deſcend to any employment in the church, the practice of law or phyſic, or the exerciſe of any trade: nor will they ever accept the command of a merchant's ſhip, though, to gain experience in maritime affairs, they will ſubmit to the loweſt offices in foreign countries.

The young nobility of Sweden go very much into the French military ſervice, both by ſea and land; and, through a principle of policy in that nation, they receive rank before all others, becauſe, by the laws of Sweden, when they return into their own country, they receive the ſame rank in their own military ſervice that they held abroad, whereby they are not only advanced much faſter than they could poſſibly be, had they not been abroad, but become firm friends to the French intereſt, when any particular relative to it comes to be debated before the diet.

The clergy of Sweden, who are very numerous, affect great gravity, are eſteemed hoſpitable, and preſerve a diſtinguiſhed authority over the lower order of people.

The citizens and merchants plod on in a beaten track, without ingenuity to diſcover, or ſpirit to purſue, new branches of commerce, notwithſtanding all the care and encouragement beſtowed by the legiſlature.

The common ſoldiers endure cold, hunger, long marches, and hard labour, to admiration; but they learn their duty very ſlowly, and are ſerviceable more by their obedience to command, and ſtanding their ground, than by any great forwardneſs to attack the enemy, or activity in executing their orders.

The ſeamen are very bold and active, and well inſtructed in their buſineſs. They have juſt ſentiments of morality and honeſty, and pay ſuch attention to religious duties, that the captains of merchant ſhips have always prayers twice a day, whether the ſhips are in harbour, or at ſea.

The peaſants, when ſober, are obſequious and reſpectful; but, when intoxicated with ſtrong liquors, furious and ungovernable. They live in great poverty, and rudely practiſe ſeveral mechanical arts, which neceſſity teaches them to exerciſe, ſuch as making their own ſhoes, clothes, tools, and inſtruments of huſbandry. They are very obliging, courteous, and remarkably hoſpitable to ſtrangers

An Engliſh traveller, who lately made a tour through Sweden, as a proof of this diſpoſition, remarks, that nothing can exceed the generous hoſpitality he found every where. He ſays, it would even be reſented, if a ſtranger

ſtranger viſited a forge without paying his compliments to the owner who expects that mark of his attention and reſpect. This cuſtom plainly ſhews how few perſons travel in thoſe parts of Europe: if they were numerous, it would, in all probability, be quickly laid aſide. or at leaſt reſtrained within narrow limits.

With reſpect to their manner of living, the richer ſort have a profuſion of diſhes at their entertainments, but no taſte in the arrangement or diſpoſition of them. The table groans beneath a number of covers, which are all brought in at once, and then left to cool during a ceremonious meal of at leaſt two hours. But the prologue to this ſcene is even worſe. Before they ſit down to dinner, the company take bread and butter, which they waſh down with a glaſs of brandy; and this faſhion prevails not only among perſons of condition, but extends even to the ladies as well all the men.

The way of dividing the reſidence of winter and ſummer, as practiſed in England, takes place here only in part. Many of the nobility and richeſt of the gentry, live entirely at Stockholm, ſcarcely ever ſeeing their eſtates. Others live entirely in the country, never ſeeing the capital, at leaſt but very ſeldom. Some, however, have houſes at Stockholm for the winter ſeaſon, but live in ſummer on their eſtates, having very good houſes, which they ornament with gardens and plantations.

As the nobility and gentry of Sweden are chiefly engaged in military employments, it is therefore little to be wondered at that they ſhould be fond of martial entertainments, which are here frequently appointed by the king for their amuſements, his majeſty himſelf generally attending in perſon. Of one of theſe entertainments we preſent the following particular account, given by a gentleman, in a letter to his friend in England.

"A ſpectacle of a ſingular kind detained me at Stockholm. The ſcene lay in a large park, about an Engliſh mile without the gate of the city, where the camp has been pitched ſome weeks, and which is finely adapted for a martial entertainment, from the nature of the ground, which is irregular and full of declivities. The riſing parts of it were covered with ſmall woods of fir, and it is divided by a branch of the Maeler lake, over which is a floating bridge.

"The king of Sweden commanded about two regiments, moſtly infantry. His younger brother, prince Frederick, had under him near 1000 troops, horſe and foot. They were entirely ignorant of each others motions, his majeſty only endeavouring to ſurround the inferior army, and the prince exerting his endeavours to effect a ſecure retreat. The queen-dowager, with her daughter the princeſs of Sweden, were preſent in a little open chaiſe, which permitted them to follow the ſoldiers over the field, and be preſent every where. The king, dreſſed in his uniform, was mounted on a cream-coloured horſe, and appeared as much animated and intereſted in this eſſay of arms, as he could have been on a day of action. It was about five in the evening. I cannot pretend to purſue the two generals through the different manœuvres of their conduct, which paſſed in two rapid a ſucceſſion, and were of two intricate and uncertain a nature, to admit of a minute deſcription. The reſult, however, was favourable to the king. His brother having neglected to ſeize on a poſt which might have commanded a retreat in caſe of emergency, found his error too late; and when he would have availed himſelf of this paſſage, diſcovered that his rival's troops were already in poſſeſſion of it, having croſſed the river in boats for that purpoſe. After having in vain endeavoured to force them from this poſt, he formed his infantry into a hollow ſquare, and maintained a briſk fire on all ſides for a conſiderable time; but finding himſelf environed by a much ſuperior body of forces, and no poſſibility of eſcaping, he delivered up his ſword to the king, and his ſoldiers remained priſoners of war. His cavalry had, however, ſeized on a ſmall, but moſt advantageous ſpot, and, unterrified by the fate of their companions, refuſed to ſurrender, and demanded permiſſion to march off the ground with all military honours. Their fate was not yet decided when I quitted the place at eleven o'clock at night. It was a very elegant and gallant diverſion, finely deſigned to cultivate and practiſe the operations of a campaign, and keep alive the knowledge of war even amidſt the moſt profound peace."

There is a theatre at Stockholm, on which, during a part of the year, are repreſented French comedies and ſometimes concerts and orotorios; but the times of acting are very irregular; not meeting always with encouragement enough to keep it open even in the winter; ſo that it has been known to be ſhut up for two years together.

The marriages of the Swedes are generally governed by the will of the parents, and founded ſo much upon intereſt, that the inclination of the parties is little regarded, nor the nation much troubled with the extravagancies of lovers. Stealing of matches is hardly heard of in an age; nor can the church give licenſe to marry, without publication of the banns.

Perſons of quality of both ſexes, commonly remain unmarried till thirty, or above; becauſe their fortunes, on both ſides, being in their parents hands while they live, they are not in a condition to maintain a family, till the death of relations, or advancement to office, furniſhes them with the means of ſubſiſting.

The women, in general, are more diſtinguiſhed for their chaſtity before marriage, than for their fidelity after. They are very fruitful; and ſeldom fail of a numerous iſſue. As before hinted, they are no where greater drudges than here; the meaner ſort being, beſides the ordinary offices of their ſex, put to plow and threſh, to row in boats, and bear burdens.

Domeſtic quarrels happen ſeldom, and more rarely become public. Divorces ſcarce ever happen. Couſin-germans may not marry without the the king's diſpenſation, which is more frequently granted than refuſed.

The Swedes generally, in nuptial ceremonies, have affected pomp and ſuperfluity, beyond the proportion of their abilities; for, by the exceſs of one day, oftentimes many of them involve themſelves in ſuch inconveniencies, that they cannot remove them for ſeveral years.

The ſame is obſervable in their funeral ſolemnities, which are uſually accompanied with great jollity and feaſting; and to gain time to make their preparations, they commonly tranſport their dead to vaults within, or adjoining to the churches, where they remain unburied ſome months. But of late theſe, and other unneceſſary expences, have been much laid aſide.

The Swediſh language is formed of the ancient Gothic, or Tutonic, and bears a near affinity to that of Denmark. This language is a dialect of the Mæſo-Gothic, ſpoken anciently by the inhabitants of Mæſian Tartary, from whence the northern parts of Europe are ſuppoſed to have been peopled. The only ſpecimen of the language then ſpoken by the Scythian Goths in Mæſia, is preſerved in a book at Upſal, being a tranſlation of the four goſpels, by Uphilas, biſhop of the Goths, ſeated upon the Palus Mæotis. The pureſt dialect of this ancient tongue is now found among the Dalecarlians, or Highlanders of Sweden, and in the iſland of Iceland, in which places it appears to have a ſurpriſing conformity to the Engliſh, both in language and pronunciation.

The religion of Luther was eſtabliſhed in Sweden ſoon after it began to prevail in the Proteſtant parts of Germany. Guſtavus Vaſa was the prince who firſt introduced the tenets of that Theologiſt. He aſcended the throne in the year 1523, and not only rendered the regal dignity hereditary in his own family, but eſtabliſhed the reformed religion in Sweden, where it has ever ſince continued to flouriſh. This is partly owing to the laws, which prohibit all noiſy ſects; and partly

to

to the care, aſſiduity, and regular lives of the clergy, by which they acquire a ſurpriſing influence over the minds of their audience. An attempt was once made to re-eſtabliſh the Roman Catholic religion in Sweden, and the peace of the country was not a little diſturbed; but the ſcheme proved abortive; and now the government is ſo much upon its guard againſt any future effort of the like kind, that no popiſh prieſt can enter the kingdom without running the riſque of caſtration.

The Swediſh church is governed by one archbiſhop and thirteen ſuffragans, who confine themſelves entirely to the occupation of their own function. They are, indeed, preſent at the aſſembly of the ſtates; but are never called to council; nor do they ever intermeddle in the adminiſtration of ſtate affairs. Their revenues are very moderate, that of the metropolitan not exceeding 400l. ſterling; and thoſe of the biſhops are proportionably ſmaller. Under theſe are ſeven or eight ſuperintendants, veſted with the power, though not the name of biſhops; and a provoſt, or rural dean, preſides over each 10 churches, to ſuperintend the conduct of the inferior clergy; the number of whom, including chaplains and curates, may amount to 4000, the churches in Finland and Sweden being little leſs than half that number.

The metropolitan ſee of Sweden is Upſal. The inferior dioceſes are thoſe of Linkoping, Skara, Strengniſs, Weſteros, Wegſio, Abo, Lund, Borgo, Gottenburg, Calmar, Carlſtad, Hernoſand, and Wiſby. In the election of the archbiſhop, all the conſiſtories, or chapters of the kingdom, give their votes; but the ſuffragans are choſen in the following manner: three perſons are preſented by the chapter to the king, who confers the dioceſe on one of them, with the advice of the ſenate. Simple benefices are beſtowed in Sweden, as in England, by right of preſentation; which is ſometimes veſted in the crown, and ſometimes in the nobility.

The inferior clergy are generally of the lower claſs of people, ſons of peaſants or poor citizens; ſo that they live the more contented with their ſmall income, which ariſes from certain inconſiderable dues, glebelands, and one third of the tythes. The other two thirds are veſted in the crown, to be employed in pious and charitable uſes. Notwithſtanding their poverty, the Swediſh prieſts are extremely hoſpitable, and their houſes are always open for the refreſhment of ſtrangers and travellers.

The Swediſh churches are, in general, handſome and ſpacious buildings, and well ornamented. They are kept neat and clean, in good repair, and furniſhed with rich altar-cloths and veſtments.

The church is governed according to a body of eccleſiaſtical laws and canons, reviſed by a committee choſen from the different ſtates that compoſe the diet, and approved by the king. By theſe canons it is, among other things, ordained:

1. That if any Swediſh ſubject changes his religion, he ſhall be baniſhed the kingdom, and loſe all right of inheritance for himſelf and his deſcendants.

2. That if any perſon continues excommunicated above a year, he ſhall be impriſoned a month, during which he ſhall be fed with bread and water only, and then baniſhed.

3. If any perſon ſhall introduce into Sweden teachers of another religion, he ſhall be fined and baniſhed.

4 Foreign miniſters ſhall enjoy the free exerciſe of their religion only for themſelves and family.

4. Strangers ſhall not be allowed to exerciſe a different religion publicly; and their children ſhall be baptized by Lutheran miniſters, and educated in their communion, otherwiſe they ſhall not enjoy the privileges of Swediſh ſubjects.

By theſe laws the laity are obliged to pay a ſtrict attendance to the duties of religion; and, indeed, the civil magiſtrate is empowered to puniſh with impriſonment, all thoſe who abſent themſelves from divine ſervice without a proper excuſe. But the clergy are not entruſted with the execution of their own laws; nor can they tranſact matters of any importance without the concurrence of the civil power. Many cauſes, formerly cognizable in the eccleſiaſtical courts, are now tried in ſecular tribunals. The clergy are not even permitted to pronounce the ſentence of excommunication without the king's permiſſion, becauſe in that caſe, it would be conſidered that the ſtate had been deprived of a ſubject.

Among the better ſort of people, and the higher ranks, there is a conſiderable degree of learning. A good education in Sweden fits a man to ſhine in any country in Europe. In their ſchools they learn Greek, Latin, French, Engliſh, and German; ſo that there are very few inſtances of a young man's underſtanding the dead languages, and not at the ſame time being maſter of two or three very uſeful living ones.

They have ſeveral univerſities, which are provided with able profeſſors. In theſe ſeminaries the favourite knowledge is natural hiſtory and the mathematics; and therein they ſhew their good ſenſe as much as any nation in Europe, for there are no other parts of knowledge that deſerve ſo much attention, the reſt being for ornament alone; but theſe are uſeful in every branch of life. Many of their own mathematicians are in general eſteem, as they are very rarely without ſeveral whoſe works are known to all Europe. In natural hiſtory they are unrivalled, but they do not owe their fame in this branch merely to Linnæus; for, before he was born, this ſtudy was the favourite one in their univerſities; and they have produced many men that gained them great reputation for their works; but they have ſince been eclipſed by Linnæus, and his numerous diſciples.

The Swedes are moſt deficient in the polite arts. You look amongſt them in vain for a painter, a poet, a ſtatuary, or a muſician. If the Abbé du Bois's ſyſtem is a juſt one, this is the fault alone of their climate; but without attributing it to phyſical cauſes, we may find a reaſon in the moral ones. The fine arts never make a great progreſs in any country till it becomes immenſely rich, and very luxurious. The arts are the children of luxury. Without a great flow of expence running through every claſs of the people, we may pronounce that a nation is not rich enough for the fine arts to ſettle among them. The artiſts that excel muſt always be ſure of ſomething more than a competency; they muſt have affluence. They are generally men of warm imaginations, and lovers of pleaſure. They muſt indulge their inclinations, and not be cramp in poverty, while they are attempting to produce works that ſhall be the admiration of ſucceeding ages. Hence all the famous ages in which the arts have riſen to a great degree of eminence, from many very famous men being cotemporaries, have univerſally been the richeſt and moſt luxurious ages in the world: not that wealth is alone ſufficient without luxury.

The Swedes have no poets: ſome attempt that ſort of compoſition, but it is always in Latin, and conſequently of no merit. Their painters never riſe higher than very bad portrait ones: the ſame faſhion obtaining in Sweden as formerly in England, when we had nothing but portrait painters, becauſe no others met with any encouragement. You hear very good muſic at Stockholm, but it is all by German muſicians. This is not, therefore, a kingdom to which any perſon would reſort to be entertained by the fine arts.

SECTION IV.

Commerce, Revenues, Armaments, Military and Naval Laws, Judicature, &c. of the Kingdom of Sweden.

WITH reſpect to commerce in general, there is no country in which inland navigations would be attended with better conſequences than in Sweden; for all their products are very bulky, and muſt have water-

water-carriage, or they cannot be got to market. Many of the rivers are navigable: but there are many tracks, covered with the fineſt woods, which yield ſcarcely any profit, for want of water-carriage, at the ſame time that conſiderable rivers run through them, which might, at a very ſmall expence, be made navigable only by removing local obſtructions, and not by a general deepening or widening.

Few countries are better ſupplied with harbours, many of which are extremely ſpacious and ſafe; and the number is ſo conſiderable, that their trade will never ſtand ſtill for want of them in any part of the kingdom.

The Swediſh manufactures are not conſiderable. They have ſome linen fabricks, in which are wrought very good ſorts both of hemp and flax; but they are not near conſiderable enough to ſupply their home conſumption. Of glaſs and paper they import very little. Hardware is a conſiderable article among them, not in the ſtile of our Birmingham manufactures, but principally in the foundery way. They caſt great numbers of cannon, which they export to all Europe; alſo bells in great number, and many other articles. Indeed, they are unrivalled in their iron and copper mines, which are far more conſiderable then thoſe of any other country in Europe; ſo that they apply copper to moſt of the purpoſes that we do lead in England, ſuch as coverings to their churches, public buildings, great private edifices, &c.

Commerce flouriſhes more in Sweden than it did ſome years ago. To what this is owing is matter of doubt; for their products are not greater in proportion to the increaſe of their ſhipping; and though ſeveral very judicious laws have been made for its encouragement, it cannot be ſuppoſed the effect would have been anſwerable to what appears, unleſs other reaſons had conſpired at the ſame time. However, the fact is, that their ſhipping is much increaſed. Their ſhips they build of a greater burthen, and they engage in more trading voyages than formerly. This is a point of very great importance; for if they are able to export the principal part of their iron, timber, pitch, tar, hemp, and copper, in their own bottoms, it will add more than any thing elſe to the wealth of the kingdom; at the ſame time that their naval force will be increaſed greatly, which is the beſt and moſt uſeful force they can cheriſh. Increaſing their ſhipping, is improving and accelerating the markets for all their products, and cannot but increaſe them in a very high degree. The building and fitting out the ſhips is the moſt advantageous manufacture in the kingdom, and that which more, than any other, brings wealth into the country. The branches of commerce, which they have more particularly increaſed of late years, are the Eaſt-India trade, the trade to Portugal, Spain, and the Mediterranean.

The exports of Sweden are iron, wood, tar, pipe-ſtaves, dried-cod, copper, braſs-wire, pitch, herrings, and train-oil. The imports conſiſt of grain, various kinds of proviſions, coffee, flax, manufacturing materials, ſugar, hemp, &c.

It is ſingular, that about one half of the bar iron which is made in this country, is exported either to Great Britain or Ireland.

The trade to Portugal and Spain, for ſalt, fruits, and wines, is in favour of the Swedes, as they barter for thoſe commodities their iron, fiſh, and copper. But the trade to France is deſtructive, as it takes off but few of their commodities, except iron and a little braſs wire, yet runs away with a great deal of their ſpecie, and returns them hardly any thing but luxuries. The payments in this country are uſually made in copper, that being the principal, but, at the ſame time, a very inconvenient medium of trade, as ſome of the copper coins are as large as a tile, and when a perſon receives a ſum of this money, it muſt be carried home in a cart, wheelbarrow, or ſack. But here are ſome gold ducats, value 9s. 3d. each; eight mark pieces of ſilver, valued at 5s. 2d. and four-mark pieces of ſilver, half the value of the latter. A dollar ſilver-mint, as it is termed, is worth about an Engliſh ſhilling; and three dollars copper-mint make one dollar ſilver-mint.

The eſtabliſhed revenues of Sweden ariſe from a capitation tax, crown lands, exciſes, cuſtoms, certain tythes, ſilver mines, copper mines, law proceedings, and a few leſs conſiderable particulars.

A third part of the revenues are appropriated to the uſe of the royal family, and the reſt to ſupport the civil and military eſtabliſhments. The revenues of the king of Sweden were anciently ſo ſmall, that they could hardly maintain him; as they aroſe only from ſome duties on merchandizes imported or exported, either by ſea or land. It was conſiderably increaſed by the diſcovery of the mines; but chiefly by the introduction of the reformation: for Guſtavus I. having propoſed to the nobility to ſhare with him the church lands, which made up above one-third of the kingdom, ſeized the greateſt part of them; and united, alſo, with the crown, the right of forfeitures, which belonged to the biſhops almoſt throughout all Sweden: and the reſumption of lands, granted away from the crown by preceding kings, to the nobility and gentry, have raiſed the king's revenues to a very high degree. This was done by king Charles XI. in the year 1680: and though it was much oppoſed by the aſſembly of the ſtates, eſpecially by the nobility, yet the lower order conſenting, the nobility were forced to comply. Beſides theſe branches, the king has a third part of all fines, when they do not exceed forty marks of ſilver; and, when they do, he takes it all. He has alſo all forfeitures upon the account of high treaſon; and the eſtates of ſtrangers, if their heirs do not appear within a year after their death.

The Swediſh forces conſiſt chiefly of an eſtabliſhed national militia, the regulations of which were either formed or improved by Charles XI. and thence continued to be the baſis of the preſent eſtabliſhment. The nobility and gentry were obliged to furniſh the cavalry; and a nobleman, after having furniſhed a man, could not put either him or his horſe to any other employment. The infantry are raiſed from among the farms, and the king's commiſſion diſtributes them through the various provinces, in proportion to the number of farms, each of which, to the value of above 60l. per annum, not being occupied by the officers, or appropriated to their peculiar ſervices, are charged with one foot ſoldier, who receives, from the farmer, lodging, diet, cloaths, and a trifling annual allowance of money: or otherwiſe a wooden houſe is built for him at the farmer's charge, who muſt alſo furniſh him with as much hay as will keep a cow in winter, and paſturage in ſummer, and plough and ſow for him ſuch a parcel of ground as will afford him bread. Thoſe that are married (as many of them are) generally accept this latter condition. The unmarried ſoldiers uſually abide with the farmer, but are not obliged to do him any ſervice without wages. When they have once taken the peaſants money, and are liſted into the king's ſervice, they can never quit it as long as they are able to ſerve; and, if they deſert, they are puniſhed with death. The firſt inſtitution of this method was very burdenſome to the peaſants, who were at great charge to hire their men, who coſt them 10l. and ſometimes 20l. a piece; and the ſame they muſt do whenever their ſoldier dies. This, in peaceable times, is not ſo chargeable as in times of war, when men are unwilling to ſerve, and recruits more frequently wanted.

As all the common ſoldiers are thus provided for at the country's charge, ſo all officers, both of horſe and foot, are maintained by the king, who has appropriated for that purpoſe ſome of the lands re-united, or formerly belonging, to the crown: ſo that every officer has a convenient houſe, and a competent portion of land to live upon, ſituated in that part of the country where the regiment he belongs to is quartered; as alſo the rent of as many other farms as make up his pay; which, though it be ſomewhat leſs than formerly, yet, being punctually paid, either in money, corn, or other

commodities, they find it more profitable than when they were to ſolicit for it at the treaſury. A colonel of foot has, of theſe lands, the yearly rent of about 300l. and the reſt proportionably, which amounts to about 2500l. a year for the officers, both upper and under, of one foot regiment; and there being in Sweden, Finland, and Livonia, 28 regiments of foot under this eſtabliſhment, the maintenance of all the officers belonging to them coſt the the king about 70,000l. a year. What charge the cloathing of the common ſoldiers, once in two or three years, their arms, and ſuch other neceſſaries, may amount to, cannot ſo eaſily be computed. The officers of horſe are provided for after the ſame manner, with ſuch large allowance as is requiſite. There are 15 regiments of horſe thus eſtabliſhed, and the maintenance of their officers is computed to be about 80,000l. a year; all which ariſes from the rents of crown lands; as do alſo the wages of civil officers in the country, who have farms annexed to their employments, in the ſame manner as the militia.

The laws enacted for maintaining this conſtitution are very particular, and provide, with great caution, that neither the peaſants ſhall be oppreſſed, nor the lands or houſes ruined: to which end all ſuch lands are yearly viſited, and the poſſeſſor compelled to make ſuch repairs as are found needful; and as every officer, upon his firſt coming to ſuch an eſtate, ſubſcribes an inventory of it, ſo, upon advancement, he cannot take poſſeſſion of another charge till he has put that eſtate into as good a condition as he found it; and in caſe of his death, his heir cannot inherit it till that is done.

In times of peace, all treſpaſſes and crimes, committed by the ſoldiers, fall ordinarily under the cognizance of a civil magiſtrate, who has the ſame authority over them as over the reſt of the king's ſubjects, except when they are encamped or in garriſon, or any ways under flying colours: in all which caſes, as alſo in matters that relate ſolely to their profeſſion, their officers have juriſdiction over them, without whoſe leave a private ſoldier is not permitted to lodge out of his quarters, nor be abſent a day from the pariſh he belongs to. The inferior officers cannot be abſent from their charge but by their colonel's permiſſion; nor captains, and thoſe above them, without the king's leave. Above the ordinary eſtabliſhment, the king annexed to each regiment 20 ſupernumerary farms, to anſwer any extraordinary accident of fire, &c. and to furniſh a ſubſiſtence for ſuch officers as are paſt ſervice. For common ſoldiers, whom age and wounds have rendered unfit for war, there is one general hoſpital, which has a good revenue; and beſides that, every officer who is advanced, pays to it a ſum of money proportionable to the degree he is raiſed to; a colonel paying 100 crowns, and others in proportion.

The naval force of Sweden conſiſts of ſhips of the line, from the firſt to the ſixth rate, carrying from 100 to 40 guns; of frigates, carrying from 36 to 20 guns; of brigantines, carrying from 8 to 6 guns; with ſeveral bomb-ketches, armed gallies, &c.

The ſeamen of Sweden, as well as thoſe of Denmark, are of two claſſes, viz. one order, which is always actually ready either to man the fleet, or work in the dock-yards; and another order, which is but nominally ready, as the individuals are only regiſtered, and muſt appear, upon occaſion, as recruits.

In Sweden there are five great officers of the crown, who preſide each in a tribunal compoſed of ſome ſenators; and when any of their places become vacant, the king gives it generally to the moſt ancient ſenator of the tribunal where the vacancy happens: though he may beſtow it in whoſe favour he pleaſes. Theſe officers are, 1. The droſter, or chief juſtice, who is the firſt officer in the nation, and was formerly a kind of viceroy: he has the honour of putting the crown on the king's head at the coronation; and preſides in the ſupreme court of juſtice, to which there is an appeal from all other courts. 2. The conſtable: he preſides in the council of war; has the inſpection of the diſcipline, and all that relates to war; and enjoys many great and honourable privileges. 3. The admiral, whoſe power is alſo very great: he has the command of the fleet, and appoints all the officers who ſerve by ſea and gives them their commiſſions; and juſtice, in all that relates to the admiralty, is adminiſtered in his name. He has alſo many other privileges. 4. The chancellor: he is the chief of the police; rectifies abuſes, and gives the neceſſary order for the good of the public. He is the keeper of the ſeals of the crown, diſpatches all ſtate affairs, and lays the king's orders and demands before the ſtates general. 5. The lord high treaſurer: he has the adminiſtration of the treaſury, and of all the king's revenue; and audits the accounts of all the ſeveral receivers; ſigns all orders for payments; manages the public funds, and pays all the officers of the kingdom. He alſo preſides in the chamber of accompts, where the impoſts on the people are aſſeſſed, and where all officers belonging to the exchequer reſort.

The laws of Sweden were anciently as various as the provinces were numerous, each of which had ſtatutes and cuſtoms peculiar to itſelf, enacted as occaſion required, by the laghman, or governor of the province, who was choſen by the people, and inveſted with great authority, eſpecially when the kingdom was elective, his ſuffrage concluding the province he governed. This variety was neceſſarily attended with great confuſion; for remedy whereof, near 200 years ago, a body of laws was compiled for the direction of the whole kingdom: yet this collection is but an imperfect piece; and the laws are ſo few, and conceived in ſuch general terms, that in moſt caſes they need the aſſiſtance of the civil law; and, after all, the final determination depends much upon the inclination of the bench, which, in a poor country, where ſalaries are ſmall, is often filled with ſuch men as are of weak parts, and ſubject to corruption upon very ſlight temptations. The effects of this would be more viſible, if each ſuperior court did not keep a check upon the lower, and the king's court of reverſion over-awe them all, to which all civil cauſes, amounting to the ſum of 70l. are appealable; and very few end before they have been brought thither. In this ſupreme court the king frequently ſits in perſon, and determines cauſes himſelf. Here the preſident of the chancery, and two or three privy-counſellors, alſo ſit; as does the chancellor of the court, (an officer next in degree to a privy-counſellor,) who is preſident of the under-reverſion, where he, and two ſecretaries, prepare the buſineſs in a proper manner to be brought before the king.

The courts of juſtice, inferor to this, are of three degrees. Of the loweſt degree, or firſt inſtance, there is one in each corporation, (beſides Stockholm, where there are three,) as alſo in each diſtrict or territory, whereof every province contains ſeveral, ſome above twenty. In the former, namely in cities, an alderman or counſellor preſides, and has ſome of his brethren for aſſiſtants: in the latter the governor of the territory preſides, with a ſtanding jury under him; his court being ambulatory, and uſually kept near or upon the place where the fact or treſpaſs was committed. In theſe courts examinations are taken, and matters not exceeding forty ſhillings determined. The reſt are tranſmitted to the next ſuperior court, of which, in every corporation, there is one, where the burgomaſter is preſident, and the alderman aſſiſtants: and ſo in every province there is one or more of theſe courts, the preſident whereof retains the name of laghman, without any other authority than that of a judge. From theſe all cauſes of blood muſt be tranſmitted to the reſpective national courts, where they are determined without farther appeal; and thither alſo all civil actions, not exceeding 20l. may be appealed. Of theſe national courts there are three: one for the kingdom of Sweden, held at Stockholm; another for the king-

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dom of Gothia, or Gothland, kept at Jonkioping; and a third for the dukedom of Finland, at Abo. In each of these a privy counsellor is president, and above half the assessors must be gentlemen.

All these courts sit continually, or, at most, have but short vacations; and not being pestered with too much formality, give causes a speedy dispatch, unless retarded by some underhand engagements.

Actions relating to the sea are tried in the ordinary courts, according to the sea-laws, founded upon those ancient ones of Wisby, in the isle of Gothland, which have formerly been as famous in the Baltic sea, as the laws of Rhodes and Oleron in other places. The court of admiralty has not any peculiar jurisdiction in the administration of these laws, but only in such matters as directly concern the king's fleet, and in some places that belong immediately to the admiralty.

For ecclesiastical causes there is a consistory in each diocese, of which the respective bishop is president, where causes of bastardy, contracts of marriage, and other matters of that nature are tried, and church censures of penance, divorce, &c. inflicted. These courts have no power to administer an oath, or to inflict any corporal punishment. From them there lies an appeal to the respective national courts, and, in some cases, to the king, as in all other matters.

For matters relating to the mines, besides inferior courts and officers settled in the respective parts of the country, a general court, called the college of the mines, sits at Stockholm, of which most commonly the president of the treasury is the chief, with a vice-president, and other assessors. The laws in this respect are more particular than in other matters; and, for the most part, justice is very carefully administered.

The power of executing all judicial sentences is lodged in the governors of the provinces, the stadtholders of Stockholm, and other places; and from them derived to inferior officers, who are accountable to the national courts, whither they may be summoned, and punished, upon plain proof of default: but the proof being difficult, and ministers of justice apt to favour each other, they take great liberty to delay execution, or to arbitrate and put their own sense upon sentences; so that this part of justice is administered the worst of all others, and has an influence not only at home, but lessens the credit of the Swedish subjects abroad; against whom justice cannot be obtained without great difficulty.

The ordinary charges of law-suits are no where more moderate than in Sweden, the greatest burden arising from a late constitution, that all declarations, acts, and sentences, must be written upon sealed paper of different prices, from two-pence to seven shillings a sheet, according to the quality of the cause; the benefit of which accrues to the king, and is computed to bring about three thousand pounds a year. Other charges are very few, every man being permitted, and, in criminal actions, compelled, to plead his own cause. Accordingly the practice of the law is below a gentleman, and rather the resource than the choice of meaner persons, who are very few in number, and for the most part very poor.

The custom of a jury of 12 men is so ancient in Sweden, that their writers pretend it had its original among them, and was thence derived to other nations: but at present it is diffused every where, except only in the lower courts in the country; and there the jurymen are for life, and have salaries. They have this peculiar to themselves, that among them there must be an unanimous consent to determine a cause, which, in their other courts, is done by a majority of voices.

Titles to estates are rendered more secure, and less subject to contests, by the registers that are kept of all sales and alienations, as well as of other engagements of them; the purchaser running the hazard of having an after-bargain take place, if he omits the recording his transaction in the proper court.

In criminal matters, where the fact is not very evident, or where the judges are very favourable, the defendant is admitted to purge himself by oath; to which are added the oaths of six or twelve other men, who are all vouchers of his innocence. Treason, murder, burning of houses, witchcraft, and the like heinous crimes, are punished with death; which is executed by hanging of men and beheading of women; to which burning alive or dead, quartering, and hanging in chains, is sometimes added, according to the nature of the crime. Criminals of rank are usually shot to death. The punishment for stealing is several years since, instead of death, changed into a kind of perpetual slavery; the guilty party being condemned to work all his life for the king, in making fortifications or other drudgery; and has always an iron collar about his neck, with a bow coming over his head, to which is fastened a bell, that rings as he goes along.

Duels (if the one party be killed) are punished with the survivor's death, and a note of infamy upon the memory of both. If neither be killed, they are both condemned to a prison, with bread and water, for two years: to which is added a fine of a thousand crowns; or one year's imprisonment, and two thousand crowns. Reparation of honour, in case of affront, is referred to the respective national court, where recantation, and public begging of pardon, is usually inflicted.

Estates, as well acquired as inherited, descend to the children in equal portions; of which a son has two, and a daughter one: nor is it in the power of the parents to alter this proportion without the intervention of a judicial sentence, in case of their children's disobedience; only they may bequeath a tenth of their acquired possessions to such child or other as they are disposed to favour. Where an estate descends incumbered with debts, the heir usually takes two or three months time, as the law allows, to search into the condition of the deceased's estate; and then either accepts the inheritance, or leaves it to the law, which, in that case, administers.

The distinct orders of knighthood in Sweden, are the following. The order of the North, or Polar Star, instituted by Frederick I. in 1748. The order of the Sword, instituted by Gustavus Vasa in 1525. It soon declined, and lay dormant till revived as a military order by Frederick I. in 1748. The order of the Seraphim, or of Jesus, instituted by Magnus II. in 1344, set aside at the reformation, but revived by Frederick I. also, in 1748. The order of Vasa, instituted by the reigning king in 1772.

SECTION V.

HISTORY OF SWEDEN.

THE first material and, indeed, duly authenticated event, respecting the history of Sweden, was the introduction of the Christian religion, by Ansgarius, bishop of Bremen, who was sent thither for that important purpose, by the emperor Lewis the Pious, in the year 829.

From that period, for a succession of years, the history is replete with civil dissentions, or war with their neighbours of Denmark and Norway; by the latter of whom they were frequently subjected through their own domestic broils.

The first king of Sweden, who appears to have been guided by maxims of sound policy, was Magnus Ladulus, who ascended the throne in 1276. This prince formed such measures as conduced to the support of his royal dignity, and the promotion of the real interests of his people. His grand objects were the augmentation of the revenues of the crown, and the diminution of the power of the nobles; by which means he reconciled his subjects, in general, to his government, and aggrandized his kingdom.

His successors were inactive and pusillanimous; so that disorder and confusion prevailed in the state for more than a century following. In the year 1387 Margaret,

Margaret, daughter of Waldemar, king of Denmark, and widow of Hugin, king of Norway, held the regal government of theſe kingdoms, and being a princeſs of an aſpiring and enterprizing genius, found means, in 1396, of becoming at once queen of Denmark, Norway, and Sweden, having reduced the latter under her power.

A plan was concerted, and carried into execution, by queen Margaret, for uniting the three kingdoms under one ſovereign. It was called the Union of Calmar, and was efficient for a conſiderable ſeries of time.

A ſcheme was adopted by Chriſtian II. king of Denmark, who, by virtue of the union before mentioned, was alſo king of Sweden, to render himſelf abſolutely deſpotic. This barbarous deſign, which was no leſs than the maſſacre of all the principal nobility, was actually accompliſhed in the year 1520. The only perſon remaining in Sweden, who dared to oppoſe the arbitrary meaſures of Chriſtian, was Guſtavus Vaſa, a young prince deſcended from the ancient kings of Sweden, but reduced ſo low, at this time, as to be obliged to work in the copper mines of Dalecarlia for his ſubſiſtence, and to conceal himſelf from that tyrannical monarch. Repreſenting the miſerable ſtate of their country to the miners, and the neighbouring peaſants, he prevailed on them to join with him in an attempt to ſhake off the Daniſh yoke; to which end having aſſembled a numerous body of theſe brave ruſtics, he boldly iſſued out of thoſe ſubterraneous territories, and ſurprizing the ſeveral poſts the Danes poſſeſſed, drove them entirely out of the kingdom; for which ſervice the Swedes elected him their king. As the popiſh clergy had appeared his greateſt enemies he introduced the Lutheran doctrines, and ſeized the revenues of the church, moſt of which he appropriated to the ſervice of the ſtate, and was enabled thereby to eaſe the people of their taxes, which rendered him popular. He was crowned at Upſal in the year 1528; but his reign was frequently diſturbed by conſpiracies and inſurrections, incited by the clergy: and when theſe were quelled, the Danes invaded the kingdom, endeavouring to recover the dominion of Sweden. Guſtavus, however, proved ſucceſsful, both againſt foreign and domeſtic enemies; and marrying the princeſs Katherine, daughter of Manus, duke of Sax Lawenburg, his eldeſt ſon by this marriage, Erick Auguſtus, was declared his ſucceſſor, and the crown made hereditary by the ſtates, anno 1544. At the ſame time the Catholic religion was aboliſhed, and the Lutheran eſtabliſhed, for the maintaining whereof, future ſovereigns were always ſworn. After this Guſtavus reigned in peace, except that the Ruſſians made an incurſion into Finland, and were repulſed.

Though the king and ſtates had ſettled the ſucceſſion upon Erick, his eldeſt ſon, he gave ſome part of his territories, as an appendage to his younger ſons, John, Magnus, and Charles, and died in the year 1559, when his eldeſt ſon was preparing to embark for England, in order to marry queen Elizabeth. Having ſome apprehenſion that the government would be diſturbed in his abſence by his brothers, he declined the voyage.

Erick, who was but a weak prince, and actuated by an ill grounded jealouſy, treated his brothers with the moſt rigorous ſeverity, inſomuch that the people took up arms in behalf of thoſe princes, made Erick a priſoner, and he died in priſon, ſuppoſed to have been poiſoned. He was ſucceeded by his brother John, who, endeavouring to reſtore the Roman Catholic religion, met with great oppoſition; but dying in the year 1592, he was ſucceeded by his ſon Sigiſmund, who likewiſe attempted to reſtore the Roman Catholic religion; in conſequence of which, he, with his poſterity, were excluded from the crown, which was conferred upon prince Charles in 1604. The reign of Charles was greatly interrupted by powerful opponents both in Sweden and Ruſſia; which afforded the Danes an opportunity of invading his territories in Sweden, Their progreſs, however, was checked by the extraordinary efforts of the celebrated Guſtavus Adolphus, his ſon, though then a minor, who afterwards totally defeated the Danes, and reſtored the independence of Sweden. Charles dying the next year (1611) was ſucceeded by his ſon Guſtavus Adolphus, then 18 years of age; when, by the conſent of the ſtates, he took upon him the adminiſtration of the government.

Guſtavus, ſoon after his acceſſion to the throne of Sweden, found himſelf involved in a war with the Danes and Ruſſians; but he ſurmounted all its attendant difficulties with ſkill and reſolution. This prince atchieved aſtoniſhing feats of valour. He obtained ſeveral victories over the Ruſſians. He invaded the Poliſh dominions in Livonia, took Riga, and made himſelf maſter of the whole province.

In 1630 he advanced into Pomerania, drove the Germans out of Mecklenburg, defeated Tilly, the famous Auſtrian general, and purſued his rout through Franconia, where he made divers conqueſts.

In the beginning of the year 1632 he marched into Swabia, in purſuit of count Tilly, who, in an attack from his army, was mortally wounded by a cannon ball, and ſoon after expired.

He then took Munich, the capital of Bavaria, and laid that duchy under contribution. In the mean time the Imperialiſts, having driven the Saxons out of Bohemia, and entered Saxony, the elector entreated the king to come to his aſſiſtance. He left Bavaria, therefore, and joined the Saxons. Soon after which a general battle was fought in the plains of Lutzen, near Leipſick; and the Swedes made themſelves maſters of the cannon of the Imperialiſts; but their horſe being ſtopped by a ſmall river, Guſtavus, to encourage his men to attempt the paſſing it, advancing at the head of the cavalry, was ſoon after found dead on the other ſide of the river, having been ſhot through the back, which was generally thought to have been done by ſome pretended friend. But, notwithſtanding the loſs of their great leader, the Swediſh generals behaved ſo well, that they obtained a complete victory; and the war continued many years afterwards, in which the Swedes were generally victorious, notwithſtanding the Saxons, and ſome other German princes, changed ſides, and adhered to the Auſtrians. But the aſſiſtance the Swedes received from the French, was more than an equivalent for the defertion of the German princes.

Guſtavus Adolphus left only one daughter, the princeſs Chriſtina, who was proclaimed queen of Sweden on the death of her father, being then but ſix years of age; whereupon the diet of Sweden determined, that the regency ſhould be committed to the great officers, who behaved with that conduct and fidelity, that the kingdom appeared in a flouriſhing condition during her minority, notwithſtanding they were engaged in a war with ſuch potent enemies; and, at length, concluded a peace upon honourable terms, anno 1648, uſually called, "the treaty of Weſtphalia." Queen Chriſtina, one of the greateſt geniuſſes of the age, one of the moſt learned of her ſex, courted by all the princes of Europe, and in the higheſt reputation for her equitable adminiſtration, having reigned till the year 1654, reſigned the crown in favour of her nephew Charles Guſtavus (that is Charles X.) who proſecuted the war againſt the Poles with ſuch ſucceſs, that he drove their king, John Caſimir, into Sileſia, and received from them an oath of allegiance, which they ſoon perfidiouſly broke.

He then marched with his army againſt the Danes, who had declared war, paſſed over the ice into Holſtein, (the Baltic being frozen over at that time,) and compelled the Danes to enter into a treaty, and yield up to the Swedes the provinces of Schonen, Haliand, and Bleking, with the iſland of Bornholm. This was called the peace of Roſchild, at which place plenipotentiaries met, anno 1658; and the Danes have ever ſince been expelled from the continent of Sweden. The Imperialiſts, Brandenburghers, and Poles, alſo entered

entered into a confederacy againſt Sweden, and obtained a victory over the Swedes at Nieuburg; and while king Charles was levying another army to oppoſe them, he was taken ill of a fever, and died on the 23d of February, 1660, leaving only one ſon, named Charles, then about five years of age. During the minority of Charles XI. the adminiſtration of the government was committed to his mother the queen-dowager, and five great officers of the crown, who, finding it neceſſary to be at peace with their neighbours, concluded a treaty, in May 1660, with the Poles, at the abbey of Oliva, near Dantzick, whereby the Poles relinquiſhed their claim to Livonia, and left the Swedes in the entire poſſeſſion of that province: and in the ſame month they concluded a peace with Denmark, on the ſame conditions they had agreed on at Roſchild; only the Swedes ceded to the Danes the iſland of Bornholm, and the city and territory of Drontheim in Norway.

The Swedes afterwards entered into a treaty with England and Holland, againſt France, called the Triple Alliance; but, on the commencement of the war, anno 1674, they entered into an alliance with France, againſt the houſe of Auſtria, and invaded Brandenburg; but their forces were defeated by the elector, who made himſelf maſter of moſt of their territories in Pomerania, while the duke of Zell reduced Bremen and Verden, and the Danes recovered ſeveral towns in Schonen. The Danes, however, being afterwards defeated in ſeveral battles, were compelled to make a ſeparate peace with Sweden, at St. Germains, which was ſucceeded by the treaty of Nimeguen, anno 1678, whereby all the territories the Swedes had loſt in this war were reſtored them; and king Charles married the princeſs Ulrica Eleonora, ſiſter to the king of Denmark. After theſe tranſactions, the young king, being at peace with all the neighbouring ſtates, ſeems to have applied the power veſted in him to the oppreſſion of his ſubjects; whom he enſlaved and impoveriſhed to render himſelf deſpotic, and his army formidable; ſo that the government of Sweden was in every reſpect monarchical. His power, at length, became ſo very conſiderable, that conferences for a general peace were opened at Ryſwick in 1697, under his mediation.

Charles XI. the ſame year paid the debt of nature, and was ſucceeded by his ſon, the celebrated Charles XII. whoſe atchievements are well known in the annals of hiſtory. This enterpriſing genius was declared major by the ſenate, though he had not attained to the age of ſixteen years, and, in November, 1697, ſaw the peace of Ryſwick concluded under his mediation, which had been begun by his father. Soon after his acceſſion, he had to contend with the united powers of Denmark, Poland, and Ruſſia. The firſt of theſe had encroached on the territories of the duke of Holſtein, who had eſpouſed his ſiſter. He, however, boldly withſtood them all, laid ſiege to Copenhagen, and compelled the Danes to conclude a peace with him at Travendal, by which the duke of Holſtein was reeſtabliſhed in his dominions. In the mean time the Czar Peter entered the province of Ingria, and had beſieged Narva. The army of Charles did not exceed 20,000 men, whereas that of the Czar amounted to 80,000. Such, however, was the progreſs of the Swediſh hero, that he advanced at the head of 8000, routed the main body of the Ruſſians, and raiſed the ſiege.

This victorious hero then advanced with his arms into Saxony, where he atchieved feats of valour almoſt unrivalled in the annals of hiſtory. He defeated the duke of Courland, a moſt accompliſhed general, and marched to Warſaw, which opened her gates to him, Auguſtus, king of Poland, and his friends, being fled towards Cracow. In a word, by the exertion of military talents, a fortitude hardly to be equalled, and a courage almoſt invincible, which appears from exploits, as hazardous in their nature as extraordinary in their ſucceſs, he reduced Auguſtus, king of Poland, to the neceſſity of abandoning his kingdom twice; and, at length, ſhutting himſelf up in Dreſden, the capital of his German dominions, gave an opportunity to Staniſlaus to reſort to Warſaw again, where he was ſolemnly crowned on the 4th of October, 1705.

In the mean time the Czar, having ſent a great reinforcement of troops into Poland, to the aſſiſtance of his friend and ally, king Auguſtus, and Schulemburg, the Saxon general, having raiſed another army in Saxony, with which he joined the Ruſſians, a battle was fought at Fravenſtad, on the 12th of February, 1706, wherein the Saxons and Ruſſians were again defeated by the Swedes. The Ruſſians threw down their arms and begged for mercy; but the Swediſh general, Renchild, ordered them all to be put to death in cold blood, to revenge the barbarities the Czar had commited in Livonia; for the Czar, taking advantage of the king of Sweden's abſence from that province, had reduced moſt part of it, taken the chief towns, maſſacred great numbers of the inhabitants, and ſent the reſt in chains to the remoteſt part of his dominions.

The king of Sweden, having driven both the Ruſſians and Saxons out of Poland, bent his march towards the river Oder, in order to enter Saxony, which induced the diet of the empire to declare him their enemy, in caſe he paſſed the Oder. The king, however, continuing his march, and entering the frontiers of Saxony, the inhabitants immediately fled from their houſes, till his Swediſh majeſty publiſhed a proclamation, to inform them, that all who returned to their houſes, and paid the contributions he required, ſhould be treated as his ſubjects; but to the reſt he ſhould give no quarter; and the people thereupon returned to their houſes. The army being encamped at Alranſtad, near Leipſick, Charles ſummoned the ſtates of Saxony to meet him there, and bring with them an account of the revenues of the electorate, which he having peruſed, impoſed on them a tax, or contribution, of 625,000 rix-dollars (crowns) a month; beſides which, he obliged them to ſupply every one of his ſoldiers with two pounds of meat, two pounds of bread, two pots of beer, and four-pence a day, with forage for their horſes. He then ordered every houſe, in which any of his ſoldiers were quartered, to ſend him certificates of the ſoldiers behaviour every month, without which the ſoldier was not to receive his pay. He aſſigned inſpectors alſo to viſit every houſe, and enquire if his ſoldiers had committed any irregularities, and puniſh them as they deſerved: and under ſuch exact diſcipline were his ſoldiers, that when a town was taken by ſtorm, the troops dared not ſeize upon the plunder without leave: and ſo well ſatisfied were the people with their ſecurity, while the Swediſh forces remained in Saxony, that the great annual fairs were held at Leipſick as uſual, without interruption.

King Auguſtus ſending to the conqueror to beg a peace on his own terms, he immediately ſent him the following articles.

1. That Auguſtus ſhould for ever renounce the crown of Poland, and acknowledge Staniſlaus lawful king; and promiſe never to remount the throne, even after the death of Staniſlaus.

2. That he renounce all other alliances, eſpecially that of Ruſſia.

3. That he releaſe the princes Sobieſki, and all his other priſoners.

4. That he deliver up all deſerters, particularly John Patkul; and that all who have deſerted his ſervice, and been entertained in the Swediſh ſervice, ſhall not be liable to any proſecution.

During this treaty Menzikoff, general of the Ruſſians, entered Poland at the head of 30,000 men, and joined Auguſtus, who had ſtill a body of 6000 Saxons with him. They attacked the Swediſh general, Maderfield, who commanded 10,000 men, near Caliſh, and obtained a compleat victory, for which Auguſtus ſung Te Deum at Warſaw: but, in the midſt of theſe rejoicings, Auguſtus received advice that his plenipo-

tentiaries in Saxony had agreed to the terms abovementioned, which he found himſelf obliged to ratify, or ſee his German dominions ruined, as well as Poland. Auguſtus had ſeveral conferences afterwards with Charles, and endeavoured to procure better terms; but Charles was ſo incenſed at the defeat of his forces under Maderfield, that he made them ſtill worſe. He obliged Auguſtus to ſend Staniſlaus the following letter, viz.

"SIR and BROTHER,

"AS I ought to regard the directions of the king of Sweden, I cannot avoid congratulating your majeſty upon your acceſſion to the crown; though, perhaps, the advantageous treaty the king of Sweden has lately concluded for your majeſty, might have excuſed me from this correſpondence. However, I congratulate your majeſty, beſeeching God that your ſubjects may be more faithful to you than they have been to me.

Leipſick,
April 8, 1707. AUGUSTUS, king.

Auguſtus was alſo obliged to order his Saxon ſubjects not to addreſs him as a king for the future.

The character of Charles XII. has undergone ſome ignominy for condemning Patkul, a gallant officer, to the ſentence of the wheel. But it ſhould be candidly conſidered, that Patkul had not only been guilty of deſertion to the Ruſſians, but remarkably active in exciting ſeveral princes to rebel againſt their ſovereign.

The dethroning of Auguſtus, the raiſing of Staniſlaus to the throne of Poland, and a ſucceſſion of feats aſtoniſhing to all Europe, ſo enhanced the fame of the enterprizing king of Sweden, that he was courted by ambaſſadors from moſt of the powers; and, among others, by the duke of Marlborough, in the name of queen Anne, amidſt the full career of a ſucceſsful war againſt France.

He ſeems, however, in ſome inſtances, to have indulged a ſtubborn and implacable diſpoſition to a very cenſurable degree. He faulted in his grand deſign of invading Ruſſia, and loſt the battle of Pultowa, where the Czar obtained a victory ſo deciſive, as obliged him to take refuge among the Turks at Bender.

It was near two years before the Porte could be perſuaded by Charles to enter into a war againſt the Ruſſians, in which they met with great ſucceſs; for the Czar entering into Moldavia before he had erected magazines for the ſervice of his army, one half of them periſhed by famine; and the hardſhips the reſt underwent, being ſurrounded by the Turks on the banks of the river Pruth, compelled the Czar to beg a peace, reſtore Azoph, and all the places he was poſſeſſed of on the Black Sea, and exclude himſelf from navigating it, before he could obtain leave to retire.

Peace being concluded between the Porte and Ruſſia, Charles was deſired to leave the Turkiſh dominions, which that prince refuſing to do, the Turks attacked him in his quarters, in order to force him out of their territories; and he defended himſelf with the few people he had about him, till he was made priſoner, and carried away to a village near Adrianople, where the Grand Seignior let him know that he expected he ſhould quit his dominions again; but if he choſe to reſide where he was, he would allow him and his people a ſubſiſtence during their ſtay. The king having remained here about another year, was conducted to the frontiers, from whence he rode through Hungary and Germany, incognito, attended only by one gentleman, and arrived at Stralſund, in Pomerania, the only town almoſt that held out for him in Germany. Here being ſoon after beſieged by the Danes, and Pruſſians he defended the town four months; and then finding it no longer tenable, ſailed over to Sweden. Such was the military ardour of this prince, that, on his return to his own dominions, he renewed the war againſt the Danes; hoping to have made himſelf ſome amends for Bremen and Verden, which the Danes had wreſted from him during his abſence in Turky; but, to the great joy of his adverſaries, who ſtill dreaded his power, he was killed before Frederickſhall, a Daniſh city on the frontiers of Norway, on the 11th day of December, 1718, in the 36th year of his age.

The character of the celebrated Charles XII. king of Sweden, has been variouſly repreſented by writers, accordingly as mankind are actuated by their different principles and prejudices. The great traits of his character are ſtrongly depicted by a French author of the firſt eminence, in the following terms.

"No dangers, however ſudden or imminent, occaſioned in him the leaſt diſmay. He ſeems, in ſhort, to have been a man diveſted of the ſmalleſt particle of fear; and the manner in which he endured cold and hunger, ſhews him to be a prodigy of ſtrength as well as courage. His rapid ſucceſſes againſt the combined forces of Denmark, Poland, and Ruſſia, prove him to have been no ordinary man; but, although they aſtoniſhed all Europe, yet, in their conſequences, they were fatal to the kingdom which he governed. A ſtrong reſentment againſt the unprovoked attacks made upon him, led him to meditate enterprizes againſt his enemies, extravagant and impracticable in their nature; and the cool and undiſmayed perſeverance of his great adverſary, the Czar Peter, at length prevailed over his ill directed ardour."

Upon the demiſe of Charles XII. his ſiſter, Ulrica Leonora, conſort of the prince of Heſſe, aſcended the throne by the free election of the ſtates, having previouſly reſigned all pretenſions to arbitrary power. In 1720 the government was transferred to her huſband, prince Frederick.

In order to ſet bounds to the royal prerogative, which had been too far extended, a capitulation was drawn up by an appointed committee, and ſigned by Frederick and the queen, before they entered upon the exerciſe of government. By the articles of this capitulation the royal power was greatly reduced; for the king of Sweden could ſcarcely be called by that name, being limited in every branch of government. The diet of the ſtates might be ſaid to rule; and their collective body had greater powers than the parliament of Great Britain, becauſe the king's prerogative was more bounded.

The war ſtill continued with Ruſſia; and the Czar would probably have made a conqueſt of their country, if the Swedes had not prevailed on the Engliſh to ſend a fleet into the Baltic. What the Engliſh received for this important ſervice does not appear. However, their fleet could not prevent the Ruſſian gallies from plundering the coaſts of Sweden, which lie on the Bothnic Gulph, and deſtroying ſeveral of their copper and iron-works; this gulph not being deep enough for large ſhips to enter. The alliance between Great Britain and Sweden, at length prevented the Ruſſians making any farther conqueſts in that kingdom: and, by the treaty of peace between Sweden and Denmark, his Daniſh majeſty promited not to aſſiſt the Ruſſians in that war: for both theſe kingdoms began now to be apprehenſive of the growing power of the Czar, and perceived that it was their mutual intereſt not to contribute to make him ſtill greater. The Danes alſo agreed to reſtore to Sweden all their territories they had poſſeſſed themſelves of in the late war (except Bremen and Verden) in conſideration of a ſum of money; but the ſhips of Sweden were, by this treaty, obliged to pay toll to the Danes on paſſing the Sound, as well as the ſhips of other nations.

By a treaty of peace concluded with Ruſſia, at Newſtadt, anno 1721, the Swedes ceded to Ruſſia the provinces of Livonia, Ingria, part of Carelia, and the diſtricts of Wiburg and Kenholm, in Finland; as alſo the iſlands of Dago, Oeſel, and all the iſlands in the gulph of Finland.

In the year 1728 an ambaſſador arrived in Sweden from Turkey, to ſettle an account of the money that had been advanced to the late king Charles, which being honourably diſcharged, the Porte and Sweden entered into an alliance, which gave great umbrage to the courts of Peterſburg and Vienna.

About the year 1738, through the machinations of the French, the people of Sweden were divided into two great political pariſhes, diſtinguiſhed by the names of Hats and Caps. The former eſpouſed the intereſt of the court, the latter the country, or patriotic party. Theſe parties not only broke the internal quiet of the kingdom, but led it into a ruinous war with Ruſſia.

The queen of Sweden dying without iſſue, anno 1741, the diet took into their conſideration the nominating a ſucceſſor, for which honour there appeared four candidates. The firſt was the young duke of Holſtein-Gottorp, ſupported by many of the nobility, and by a ſtrong party among the burgeſſes, as well as by the whole order of peaſants; the ſecond prince Frederick of Heſſe-Caſſel, nephew to the king, for whom all the clergy declared; the third the prince of Denmark, who had a very conſiderable party; and the fourth, the duke of Deuxponts, who was alſo of the royal family of Sweden, and had but a ſmall party. After very warm debates, the duke of Holſtein was declared ſucceſſor, in the month of October, 1742, by a majority of two votes only; and deputies were named, to offer him, on certain conditions, the reverſion of the crown, in hopes he might induce the Czarina to reſtore the grand duchy of Finland. But before they arrived at Peterſburg, he had embraced the Greek religion, with a view to the ſucceſſion of Ruſſia, to which alſo he had a claim of hereditary right. This ſcheme having failed of producing its deſired effect, was followed by conſequences that were equally unavoidable and unexpected: for the peaſants, that had expreſſed ſuch unanimous affection for the houſe of Holſtein, began with the ſame zeal and unanimity to eſpouſe the intereſt of the prince of Denmark, to whom the clergy were attached. They likewiſe inſiſted on calling to a ſevere account, the generals that had commanded the forces in the two laſt campaigns; and thoſe very perſons that had ſhewn the greateſt warmth in promoting the war with Ruſſia, were equally warm in demanding the puniſhment of all ſuch as were the managers of that war, to whom they imputed its want of ſucceſs. Yet, in the midſt of theſe domeſtic diſputes, a peace appeared as precarious as ever; and the diet ſeemed equally unable to bear the thoughts of loſing Finland entirely, or falling upon any expedient for recovering it, except receiving it as an equivalent from the hands of the Czarina. His Britannic majeſty having offered his mediation, the conferences were continued at Abo. Theſe, at laſt, ended in a treaty, by which Ruſſia conſented to reſtore all that had been taken in this war from Sweden, except a ſmall diſtrict in Finland; and to renew the peace between the two nations, in caſe the ſtates of Sweden ſhould elect prince Adolphus Frederick, adminiſtrator of Holſtein, and biſhop of Lubeck, ſucceſſor to the crown; and, in this caſe, the young duke of Holſtein, whom they had already elected, and who was now become hereditary prince of Ruſſia, offered to make a ſolemn reſignation of all his claim and right to the Swediſh diadem.

When this treaty came to be conſidered in the diet of Stockholm, there aroſe very high debates; but at laſt the conſideration of thoſe immediate advantages, which were to ariſe from the election of the biſhop of Lubeck, and the proſpect of continual diſputes, in caſe they elected any other ſucceſſor, brought over all the orders of the ſtates to this propoſition; and duke Adolphus was accordingly choſen hereditary prince and ſucceſſor of Sweden, on the 23d of June, 1743.

But while the diet was thus providing for their preſent peace and future ſafety, the Dalecarlians took up arms, and marched directly to the city of Stockholm, under pretence of ſupporting the intereſt of the prince of Denmark, in which they perſiſted, notwithſtanding the king took all poſſible methods to reduce them by fair means to their duty. At laſt the malecontents attempted to overturn all to which the king and the ſtates of Sweden had conſented. This obliged his majeſty, much againſt his will, to employ force even in his capital city, where, after a ſharp engagement, in which one of the ſenators, at the head of the king's troops, was mortally wounded, the rebels were totally defeated, obliged to lay down their arms, and ſubmit to the king's mercy, which was extended to them in the moſt ample degree. But this extraordinary inſtance of royal clemency did not ſoften the reſentment of the peaſants againſt two unfortunate noblemen, Count Lewenhaup, and Baron Buddenbrook, who, to ſatisfy them, had been condemned for want of ſucceſs in the two laſt campaigns, and whoſe execution was demanded with ſuch heat, that the king could not refuſe it. Lieutenant-general Baron Buddenbrook ſuffered firſt, on the 16th of July in the ſame year; but field marſhal Lewenhaup made his eſcape, yet was ſoon after retaken; and, notwithſtanding the nobility and clergy were inclined to ſpare his life, the peaſants remained ſtill inflexible; and to ſatisfy them, he was, according to his ſentence, beheaded. The king retired to his country palace till theſe melancholy ſcenes were over; and the peaſants, gratified in their revenge, conſented to the election, which being ſignified to duke Adolphus, he went ſoon after to Stockholm, where he was received with univerſal acclamations. The late king of Denmark, having many motives to diſlike this ſudden and extraordinary elevation of the houſe of Holſtein, and, beſides, not a little mortified on the ſcore of his ſon's being ſet aſide to make way for the biſhop of Lubeck, began to make ſuch vaſt military preparations as ſeemed to beſpeak a deſign of invading Sweden, which, for ſome months, not only amuſed the north, but all Europe: yet the Czarina found means to lay this ſtorm, by declaring roundly to the courts of Stockholm and Copenhagen, that ſhe would maintain the election ſhe had promoted with the whole force of her empire. To eſtabliſh the peace of the kingdom more effectually, it was thought highly requiſite that the new prince ſucceſſor ſhould marry, and accordingly he eſpouſed the princeſs Louiſa Ulrica, ſiſter to the king of Pruſſia.

Adolphus ſucceeded to the crown of Sweden on the death of the late king Frederick, anno 1751.

He was a prince of a mild and gentle temper, and harraſſed by contending factions. The intrigues of the ſenators forced Adolphus to take part in the war againſt Pruſſia; but as that war was diſagreeable, not only to the people, but alſo to the king of Sweden, the nation never made ſo mean an appearance; and, upon Ruſſia's making a peace with Pruſſia, the Swedes conciliated matters as well as they could. After a reign of tumult, commotion, and trouble, this monarch died of chagrin, in the year 1771, and was ſucceeded by his ſon, Guſtavus, who was born in 1746, and married to the princeſs royal of Denmark in 1766. In the commencement of the reign of Guſtavus a very remarkable revolution happened in Sweden, of which a late learned and ingenious traveller gives the following elegant account.

"Adolphus, the late ſovereign, was a weak man, and under him the democratical authority attained its utmoſt height. The royal revenue was very inadequate to his dignity, and his weight in the ſcale of government inconſiderable and deſpiſed.

"In this ſituation Guſtavus III. ſucceeded to the crown. He poſſeſſed the ſame advantage over his two immediate predeceſſors, which his preſent majeſty, George III. of England did over his, on his acceſſion; that is, he was born in the country over which he reigned, and ſpoke the language perfectly. The Swedes, who, ſince the year 1720, had ſeen only foreigners on the throne, were charmed to have, once more,

more, a king from among themſelves, inſomuch, that ſeveral ſilver medals were ſtruck to commemorate this happy æra; on the reverſe of which is this inſcription, *Fadern's land et*; It is my native land.

"If one may credit the accounts given of the late procedures of government, while veſted in the ſenate, it was high time to redreſs the injuries they did the ſtate, which ſuffered greater evils from the irreſolutions, the delays, and the diviſions of a large aſſembly, than it could even undergo from an abſolute monarch. Time had matured theſe ſeeds of diſſatisfaction, and a young prince, beloved by his ſubjects, was ready to take advantage of them.

"On the 19th of Auguſt, 1772, this extraordinary event was produced, which again reſtored to the crown thoſe prerogatives which ſhe had loſt for more than half a century. The king's ſecrecy, addreſs, and oratory, in ſo dangerous and critical a juncture, far ſurpaſſed what might have been expected from his age. It is ſaid only five perſons in the kingdom were intruſted with the deſign, which was carried into execution with as much vigour, as it had been planned with ſagacity and judgment. The ſoldiery and people were ſucceſſively gained by the eloquence with which the young king addreſſed them, who plainly evinced the vaſt importance of this quality in popular commotions and public affairs. Very few perſons were impriſoned, and that only for a ſhort time; nor have any of them experienced, in the ſmalleſt degree, any diminution of the royal favour, on account of their oppoſition. The ſenate took a new oath of allegiance to the prince, and tranquility was reſtored throughout the kingdom.

Hence we may perceive the great force of elocution, and the power which an orator has over the human mind.

Where'er he ſpeaks, heav'n, how the liſt'ning throng
Dwell on the melting muſic of his tongue!
His arg'ments are th' emblems of his mien;
Mild, but not faint; and forcing, tho' ſerene:
And when the pow'r of eloquence he'd try,
Here light'nings ſtrike you, there ſoft breezes ſigh.

CHAP. VI.

GREAT RUSSIA.

SECTION I.

Extent, Situation, Boundaries, Origin of Names, Mountains, Rivers, Lakes, Climate, Soil; Productions, Vegetable, Animal, Mineral. &c.

THE Ruſſian empire is admitted, by geographers in general, to be of greater extent than all the reſt of Europe, or than the Roman empire in the zenith of its power.

The immenſe dominions now under conſideration, are ſituated beteen 47 and 72 degrees of north latitude, and between 23 and 65 degrees of eaſt longitude, being about 1500 miles in length, and about 1100 in breadth.

Ruſſia is bounded on the north by the Frozen Ocean; on the eaſt by the empire of China; on the ſouth by Perſia, the Caſpian and Black Seas, and Turkey; and on the weſt by Sweden.

This empire is known by the appellations of Ruſſia and Muſcovy; the former of which is moſt probably derived from the ancient inhabitants, the Ruſſi, or Boruſſi; and the latter from the river Moſco, upon which Moſcow, the ancient metropolis, was built. It is, at preſent, diſtinguiſhed by the name of Great Ruſſia.

This vaſt country is, in general, flat and level, except towards the north, where lie the Zinnopoias mountains, ſuppoſed to be the *Montes Ripbæi* of the ancients, now called the Girdle of the Earth.

The moſt conſiderable rivers of Ruſſia are the Wolga, or Volga, which traverſes the far greater part of Ruſſia, and, after a long winding courſe of upwards of 2000 Engliſh miles, falls into the Caſpian Sea. In its courſe, which is moſtly from eaſt to weſt, it receives near 40 rivers (among which are the Occa and Kama,) ſome of them very large, waters the walls of near double that number of towns, fertilizes all the lands on each ſide, and ſupplies them with prodigious quantities of fiſh, particularly ſturgeon, ſalmon, pike, &c. of a large ſize and exquiſite taſte. There grows likewiſe along its banks the fineſt truffles, and a kind of large aſparagus, of a delicious taſte and flavour; and the fineſt oaks that Muſcovy produces, are to be found along its bank. The misfortune is, that a great track of that fruitful land along this noble river, is ſo expoſed to the incurſions of the Cuban Tartars, that it lies altogether uncultivated, and almoſt unpeopled. To remedy this, the Czar Peter I. cauſed an intrenchment to be made from that river, a little on this ſide the city of Zaritza, quite to the river Don, near the city of Twia, by which means he hath ſecured all that part of the country which lies within the trench; but the reſt, reaching above 80 leagues in length and breadth, is ſtill expoſed to thoſe free-booters, and lies neglected. The Volga, towards the latter end of its courſe, takes a winding towards the ſouth, and falls into the Caſpian Sea, about 36 miles below Aſtracan, in lat. 45 deg. 40 min. long. 50 deg. 30 min. eaſt.

Thus in meanders to the diſtant main,
The liquid ſerpent draws his ſilver train.

The Don, or Tanais of the ancients, is the next conſiderable river in this country, and divides it, in its moſt eaſtern parts, from Aſia. It hath its ſpring in the province of Rezan, on the north-eaſt of the lake Jwanow-Oſero; and, in its courſe towards the eaſt, comes ſo near the Volga, that the late Czar had undertaken to have cut a communication between them by means of a canal. But this deſign, grand and uſeful as it would have proved, was defeated by the irruptions of the Tartars. This river, excluſive of its turnings and windings, diſcharges itſelf into the Palus Mæotis, at the famed fortreſs of Aſſof, or Azoph. The whole length of its courſe is very conſiderable.

The Dwina, or Dowina, hath no ſpring-head of its own, but is formed from thoſe called Succana, and Juga, or Jugh. Its name ſignifies double, as it is compoſed of thoſe two rivers; and its courſe bends northward, in which it receives the Vitſogda, and ſeveral other rivers; and, having paſſed through Archangel, empties itſelf at two mouths, parted by a ſmall iſland, into the White Sea.

The Dnieper, or ancient Boriſthenes, which is one of the largeſt rivers in Europe, after running a prodigious courſe, falls into the Euxine, or Black Sea. It has thirteen cataracts within a ſmall diſtance.

The lakes of this country are numerous; but the following only deſerve notice. The lake Ladoga, between the gulph of Finland and the lake Onega, is computed to be above 40 leagues long, and about 35 in breadth, where wideſt. It extends, in length, from 60 to 61 deg. 50 min. of lat. The Czar Peter I.

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honey, wax, &c.
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Longitude East from London

60 70 80 90 100 110 120 130 140 150

NORTHERN OCEAN

FROZEN OCEAN OR ICY SEA

N. AMERICA

EUROPEAN RUSSIA

ASIATIC RUSSIA

SWEDEN

POLAND

TARTARY

WESTERN TARTARY

CHINESE TARTARY

GREAT DESART OR SANDY DESART

CHINA

JAPAN

COREA

GULF OF COREA

SEA OF KAMTSCHATKA

SEA OF OCHOZK

KURILE ISLES

I. OF JESO

PERSIA

CASPIAN SEA

BLACK SEA

GEORGIA

Kalatha Horda Tartars and Karacalpacks Tributaries to the Russians

ELUTHS

THE KOBI

Bothnia Gulf

Gothland I.

North Cape

Waigatz Str.

Nova Zembla

Behrings Str.

Arctic Circle

Yuraks Samoiedes

Tungusi

Podkamenie Tungusi

Yakutzk

Jakutzkoi

Lena R.

Olenneck R.

Irkutsk

Kornie Tunguli

Selenginsk

Caylung

Yuenchow

Kiang R.

Yellow R.

Amur R.

Sagalien or Black River I.

Kamtschatka

Behrings I.

Kyska I.

Copper I.

Attu

Saraigani

St Peter & St Paul

Avatscha Bay

Three Sisters

Matmoy

Kiko

Kunashir I.

Iturup I.

Kikuy I.

Urup

Matuway

Nanbon

Sangaar Str.

Sangaar

Sado

Gotoma

Oki

Tsuco I.

Ximo

Firando

Nagasaki

Meaco

Yedo

Cape Noss

Cape Patience

Cape Romania

Cape Lopatka

Cape Shelagskoi

Cape Serdze Kamen

Cape Navarchin

Cape Barrow

Cape Prince of Wales

Cape Thaddeus

Cape Lisburne

Cape Krusenstern

Cape Espenberg

Cape Rodney

Cape Stephens

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Cape Elizabeth

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Cape Fox

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not finding the ſouth part of it ſo navigable as he wiſhed, cauſed a canal to be dug, by which he hath opened a communication with Peterſburg. This lake produces great quantities and variety of fiſh; ſuch as ſalmon, ſturgeon, and a peculiar kind of fiſh, called ladog, of the ſize of a herring, but of a finer taſte; from which the lake is ſuppoſed to have had its name.

That of Onega lies about 50 miles eaſtward of the lake of Ladoga. It is about 40 leagues in length, and 18 in breadth: though it has freſh water, ſeals are often ſeen in it.

The lake of Peipus, in Livonia, is nearly 24 leagues in length, and upwards of 12 in breadth. It abounds with fiſh, and runs into the gulph of Finland.

From the amazing extent of this vaſt country, it may naturally be concluded, that there is a proportionable diverſity of climate and ſoil. In the ſouthern parts, the longeſt day does not exceed fifteen hours and an half; whereas, in the moſt northern, the ſun is ſeen in ſummer two months above the horizon. This being the caſe, the extremes, both of climate and ſoil, muſt be ſeen and felt in this extenſive empire.

To enable the reader to form an idea of the rigour of the cold ſeaſon, we cite the following relation of a late ingenious and learned writer, who reſided in this country ſeveral years. "It is almoſt difficult for an inhabitant of our temperate climate (meaning that of England) to have any idea of a cold ſo great. It may, perhaps, help to give ſome notion of it to relate, that when a perſon walks out in that ſevere weather, the cold makes the eyes water, and that water freezing, hangs in little icicles on the eye-laſhes. As the common peaſants uſually wear their beards, you may ſee them hanging at the chin like a ſolid lump of ice; yet, by the way, the advantage of the beard, even in that ſtate, to protect the glands of the throat, is worth obſervation; for the ſoldiers who do not wear their beards, are obliged to tie a handkerchief under their chin to ſupply their place. From this account it may be eaſily imagined, that the parts of the face which are expoſed are very liable to be frozen; and it may ſeem ſtrange, though a certain fact, that the party himſelf does not know when the freezing begins, but is commonly told of it firſt by ſomebody who meets him, and calls out to him to rub his face with ſnow, the uſual way to thaw it. It is alſo remarkable, that the part which has once been frozen, is ever after moſt liable to be frozen again.

"In ſome ſevere winters I have ſeen ſparrows, tho' a hardy bird, quite numbed by the intenſe cold, and unable to fly: and I have heard that the drivers, who ſit on their loaded carriages, have ſometimes been found frozen to death in that poſture. The ſeaſons, however, are ſeldom ſo ſevere, and that ſeverity laſts but a few days: though it is not unfrequent, in the courſe of a winter, that ſome poor wretches, getting drunk with ſpirituous liquors, fall down by the road ſide, and periſh by the cold before any one finds them.

"When the thermometer has ſtood at 25 deg. below 0, boiling water, thrown up into the air by an engine, ſo as to ſpread, falls down perfectly dry, formed into ice. I have made an experiment nearly like this, by throwing the water out of a window, two pair of ſtairs high. A pint bottle of common water I have found frozen into a ſolid piece of ice in an hour and a quarter. During the operation, I have obſerved the *ſpicula* flying towards the exterior part of the water, full an inch, or an inch and a half long, where they form the chryſtallization. The great length of theſe ſpicula is remarkable, and ſeems to be cauſed by the intenſeneſs of the cold. A bottle of ſtrong ale has been frozen in an hour and a half; but in this ſubſtance there is always about a tea-cup full in the middle unfrozen, which is as ſtrong and inflammable as brandy, or ſpirits of wine. I never ſaw good brandy or rum freeze to ſolid ice, though I have ſeen ice very thin in both, when put into a ſmall flat phial. The phials I made uſe of for the experiment, were the common bottles, in which there had been lavender water.

"It may not be foreign to theſe inſtances to mention an experiment made by prince Orloff, maſter of the ordnance to her Imperial Majeſty, which I had from him, though I was not a witneſs of it myſelf. He filled a bomb-ſhell with water, and then ſtopped the hole very cloſely with a plug; and as ſoon as the congelation began, the contents of the ſhell ſwelling, iſſued out by the ſide of the plug like a ſmall fountain. He then made a ſcrew to faſten up the hole of the bomb-ſhell after it was filled with water, and in 20 minutes the froſt burſt the ſhell with ſome degree of violence, ſo that ſome of the pieces flew to the diſtance of four or five yards.

"Tho' the cold is thus intenſe for ſo great a part of the year, the ſmall ſummer is very hot; and, indeed, about ſix weeks of it is uſually intolerable."

The writer laſt quoted obſerves, that, to balance the long abſence of the ſun in the winter ſeaſon, they enjoy here a large ſhare of his influence in the ſummer, which cauſes vegetation to be exceedingly quick; otherwiſe the ſhortneſs of the ſeaſon would not ſuffice for the neceſſary buſineſs of ſowing the land, for the growth of the corn, and for gathering it in.

Some perſons deem the light nights in ſummer an agreeable circumſtance, and theſe are very remarkable even in the latitude of Peterſburg, which is in 60 degrees. This ariſes not only from the ſun's being ſo ſhort a time under the horizon, but from the ſtrong reflection of the atmoſphere, which cauſes ſo great a brightneſs, one may ſee to read and write at midnight, unleſs it be cloudy, for full two months.

The ſoil of Ruſſia is rather more various than the climate. The ſouthern provinces produce wheat, barley, rye, oats, peas, and herbs, with various kinds of fruit; and all theſe with a vegetation ſo uncommonly expeditious, that corn is commonly reaped in two months after it begins to appear above the ſurface of the ground. This is attributed to the ſnow, which not only enriches and mellows the land, but cheriſhes and ſhelters the product of it, and makes it take deeper root.

——When high Jove his ſharp artill'ry forms,
And opes his cloudy magazine of ſtorms,
In winter's bleak uncomfortable reign,
A ſnowy inundation hides the plain:
He ſtills the winds, and bids the ſkies to ſleep,
Then pours the ſilent tempeſt thick and deep;
And, firſt, the mountain tops are cover'd o'er,
Then the green fields, and then the ſandy ſhore;
Bent with the weight the nodding woods are ſeen,
And one bright waſte hides all the works of men:
The circling ſeas alone, abſorbing all,
Drink the diſſolving fleeces as they fall.

The ſowing time, in many parts, muſt follow the harveſt immediately; becauſe the ſummer not laſting above three months, there can be no ſowing after the froſt is begun. But in more moderate climes they do not ſow till April or May, and then their reaping time comes in Auguſt and ſometimes in July. As for manure, they have no need of any, the ſnow ſupplying that in every reſpect. Beſides grain and fruits of various ſorts the country produces plenty of rhubarb, flax, hemp, good paſture for cattle, honey, wax, &c.

The aſtoniſhing quantity of muſhrooms produced ſpontaneouſly in Ruſſia, are a great bleſſing and relief to the poor; while, at the ſame time, they are deemed delicacies at the tables of the rich and luxurious. It has been known, that above a thouſand waggon loads of muſhrooms have been annually ſold at Moſcow.

Agriculture was but little underſtood in this country till the time of Peter the Great, who brought his ſubjects in ſome meaſure better acquainted with it. The principal articles in a Ruſſian farm are wax and honey, which ſometimes produce to the peaſant a competency,

as he ſells the wax, and ſome of the honey, and makes a domeſtic drink of the reſt. This drink is a kind of metheglin, extremely ſtrong, and very palatable. The Ruſſian method of forming bee-hives is as follows: the peaſant cuts down a tree, ſaws the trunk into many parts; hollows the pieces, then ſtops up the extremities, and bores ſmall holes into the body for the admittance of the bees; then the bee-hive is made, and the honey ſecured from all the attacks of the bear, who is exceedingly fond of it, and tries a variety of experiments, and ſtratagems, to make himſelf maſter of the ſweet treaſure.

The rye here ſerves not only for bread, but a ſtrong ſpirituous liquor is extracted from it, which the Ruſſians prefer to brandy.

The wild beaſts in this country are much the ſame as thoſe in Lapland, Norway, Sweden, &c. ſuch as rein-deer, foxes, martins, hares, bears, ermines, ſables, and ſquirrels. In the ſouthern provinces are bred black cattle, camels, ſmall horſes, goats, ſheep, &c.

The whole empire abounds with poultry, wild-fowl, game, birds of prey, &c.

The different parts of this vaſt country are plentifully ſupplied with various kinds of fiſh, by means of the ſeveral ſeas contiguous to them, as well as innumerable lakes, rivers, rivulets, &c. Theſe produce immenſe quantities of ſalmon, trout, pike, ſturgeon, and belugo, which latter is a large fiſh, of whoſe row the beſt caviare is made.

The ſummer's heat hatches innumerable inſects in the ſands, moraſſes, foreſts, &c. and they are, indeed, very troubleſome throughout the whole empire. Some are in common with thoſe in the northern countries of Europe; and others are ſo imperfect as not to have received a name, or at leaſt to have been aſſigned to any particular ſpecies; for, in the ſummer months, we may ſay with Ovid,

> The fat manure with heav'nly fire is warm'd,
> And cruſted creatures as in wombs are form'd;
> There, when they turn the glebe, the peaſants find
> Some rude, and yet unfiniſh'd, in their kind;
> Short of their limbs, a lame imperfect birth,
> One half alive, and one of lifeleſs earth.

Ruſſia abounds with very rich mines of ſilver, iron, and lead. The two former metals have been already deſcribed; but the latter not having been particularized, we ſhall here mention it.

Lead is of the leaſt value of all metals, it being heavy, livid, and fouls the hand with a blackiſh colour. It yields little or no ſound, and melts quickly in the fire before it turns red. Pure lead is ſeldom found in the mines, but is extracted from ores of different kinds; for it is ſometimes black, blue, yellow, or of an aſh colour. It is full of ſhining minute particles; and ſometimes again it is like a ſtone of a leaden ſhining colour, conſiſting of ſquares like dice, that lie in a white or reddiſh ſtone. The ore of lead almoſt always contains a ſmall quantity of ſilver.

When flints, and the like, are mixed with an aſh or black colour, or are only marked here and there with veins and ſpots of the ſame, it is a ſign that they contain either iron or lead. The green lead ore is very rare; but when it is found, it is variegated with a yellowiſh green colour, and ſemi-tranſparent. It is likewiſe heavy, but not hard; and one hundred weight of it yields from 70 to 80 pounds of lead. There is alſo white and aſh coloured lead ore, but it is uncommon.

SECTION II.

Particular Deſcription of the ſeveral Parts of the Ruſſian Empire in Europe.

FOR the ſake of order, we ſhall treat of the ſeveral parts of this empire under the following grand diviſions, viz. Livonia and Ingria; Moſcovy Proper, or Weſtern Ruſſia; Eaſtern Moſcovy, or Ruſſia; Ruſſian Lapland and Nova Zembla.

LIVONIA.

THAT part of Ruſſia called Livonia, is bounded on the north by the gulph of Finland, on the ſouth by the duchy of Courland and Lithuania, on the weſt by the gulph of Riga, and on the eaſt by Ingria.

This province is admirably ſituated for commerce, having the ſea on the north and weſt, the great lake Peipus on the eaſt, and the river Dwina on the ſouth. Three other internal lakes, and many ſmall rivers, likewiſe greatly contribute to the advantage of this province, by facilitating the inland navigation. Livonia, from north to ſouth, is 150 miles in length; and from eaſt to weſt, where broadeſt, about 110 miles.

Livonia, though extremely marſhy in ſome places, is, in general, very beautiful, plentifully producing honey, corn, cattle, paſture grounds, &c.

The Livonians, about the twelfth century, were involved in Pagan ſuperſtitions; and with reſpect to their manners, were ferocious and ſavage to a great degree.

They were brought to embrace Chriſtianity by their neighbours the Germans.

This fine country hath alternately been ravaged by the Germans, Ruſſians, Poles, and Swedes. In 1660, by the treaty of Oliva, it was entirely ceded to the Swedes, who kept poſſeſſion of it till the beginning of the preſent century, when, during the wars of Charles XII. the Ruſſians ſubdued the whole dutchy of Livonia, as well as Ingria; and they were afterwards confirmed to Ruſſia by the treaty of Nyſtadt.

The native peaſants of Livonia are of ſtrong conſtitutions, and fit to undergo hardſhips; but even at this time retain great part of their ferocity. As ſome of their ceremonies, ſuperſtitions, and peculiarities, are remarkable, we ſhall relate them.

When a country fellow marries a girl out of another village, he goes on horſeback to fetch her, ſets her behind him, and makes her embrace him with the right hand. He hath in his hand a ſtick cleft at the top, where he puts a piece of braſs money, which he gives to him who opens the wicket through which he is to paſs. Before him rides a man that plays upon the bagpipe, as alſo two of his friends, who, having naked ſwords in their hands, give two ſtrokes acroſs the door of the houſe where the marriage is to be conſummated, and then they thruſt the point of one of the ſwords into a beam over the bridegroom's head, which is done to prevent charms, which, they ſay, are common in that country. It is to the ſame end that the bride ſcatters little pieces of cloth, or red ſerge, by the way, eſpecially where croſs-ways meet, near croſſes, and upon the graves of little children, dead without baptiſm, whom they bury in the high-ways. She hath a veil over her face while ſhe is at the table, which is not long; for as ſoon almoſt as the gueſts are ſet down, the married couple riſe and retire. About two hours after they get up, and are brought to ſit down at the table. Having drank and danced till ſuch time as they are able to ſtand no longer, they lay down on the floor, and ſleep all together like ſo many ſwine.

They believe there is another life after this, but their imaginations of it are very vague. A Livonian woman being preſent at her huſband's burial, puts a needle and thread into the grave, giving this reaſon for it, that her huſband being to meet, in the other world, with perſons of rank, ſhe was aſhamed he ſhould be ſeen with his clothes rent.

They are, in general, infatuated with notions of ſorcery, which lead them to the belief and practice of the greateſt abſurdities.

As they are ſtubborn in their ſuperſtitions, ſo are they no leſs exact in the obſervation of their cuſtoms; applicable to which we have a very pleaſant ſtory concerning an old country fellow. Being condemned, for faults enormous enough, to cauſe ſentence to be pronounced for him to lie along upon the ground to receive his puniſhment, and a lady of the higheſt rank

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pitying his decrepid age, having ſo far interceded for him, as that his corporal puniſhment ſhould be changed into a pecuniary mulct of about fifteen or ſixteenpence, he thanked her for her kindneſs, and ſaid, that for his part, being an old man, he would not introduce any novelty, nor ſuffer the cuſtoms of the country to be altered, but was ready to receive the chaſtiſement which his predeceſſors had not thought much to undergo, put off his clothes, laid himſelf upon the ground, and received the blows according to his condemnation.

The people of Livonia are not permitted to make any purchaſe, and to prevent their ſo doing, they have only ſo much ground to manage as will afford them a ſubſiſtance. Yet they will venture to cut down wood in ſome places of the foreſts; and having prepared the ground, ſow wheat in it, which they hide in pits to be ſecretly ſold. When they are taken in this, or any other fault, they make them ſtrip themſelves down to the hips, and to lie down upon the ground; or they are tied to a poſt, while one of their comrades beats them with a ſwitch, or holly wand, till the blood runs on all ſides; eſpecially when then the maſter ſays, "*Seleke rack maba pexemá*," "Beat him till the ſkin falls from the fleſh."

Nor are they ſuffered to have any money; for as ſoon as it is known they have any, their ſuperiors take it from them; which cruelty often drives theſe people into deſpair, of which there happened a ſad example. A peaſant, preſſed by his officer, being deprived of the means whereby he ſhould maintain his family, ſtrangled his wife and children. The officer coming the next day to the houſe, thinking to receive the money, ſtruck his head againſt the man's feet that was hanging, and ſo perceived the miſerable execution of which he was the cauſe.

Livonia is divided into two parts, viz. Eſtonia and Letten.

Estonia is the moſt northern part of the province of Livonia. The chief cities and towns of which are

Revel, the capital, ſituated in part on a plain, and in part on the declivity of a mountain, at the top of which there is a ſtrong caſtle. Waldemar, the ſecond king of Denmark, founded this city, but ſold it, together with Narva and Weſtemburg, to the grand maſter of the Teutonic order. Revel was one of the places originally admitted into the confederacy of the Hans Towns, and was a conſiderable commercial place till 1550, when the Ruſſians removed the commerce of Revel to Narva, after having ſubdued the latter. But in 1711, when the Ruſſians conquered the former, they again turned its trade into the old channel; and ſince that period the place hath, in ſome degree, increaſed in opulence and importance. The Daniſh peaſants, who formerly ſettled here, are ſtill diſtinguiſhable from the original inhabitants by their habits, cuſtoms, manners, &c.

Narva is ſituated on the river Nerva, which divides Livonia from Ingria. It was originally built by Waldemar II. king of Denmark; taken by John Baſilowitz, Czar of Muſcovy or Ruſſia; retaken by the Swedes; and finally reduced by Peter the Great, in the year 1700.

A late Engliſh traveller gives the following curious account of the Livonian dreſs: "I had the pleaſure (ſays he) to dine in company with four ladies yeſterday, who were habited in the Livonian dreſs. Nothing could more aptly realize that barbarous ſplendor which has been ſo frequently depictured, but is now ſo rarely to be ſeen, in many parts of Europe. It was expenſive, and might have been worn by perſons of the firſt eminence, without degradation of their rank. Their heads were covered with a complete bonnet of pearls, which were not worth leſs than 2000 rubles, (450l. ſterling, a ruble being 4s. 6d.) and round their necks were ſeveral ſtrings of the ſame. A part of their necks was left expoſed, but the lower part was concealed by a veſt of red ſilk, which ſat cloſe to the breaſt, and was bordered with a gold lace with a vaſt breadth, which deſcended to the feet. Their arms had no other covering than the ſleeves of their ſhifts; and when they walked out they threw over their heads and ſhoulders a piece of ſilk, reſembling a Highland plaid, which was a ſort of ſubſtitute for our capuchin."

Among other ridiculous ſuperſtitions, the people of this part of Livonia have a cuſtom of obſerving the eve of Whit-Sunday as a feſtival, ſacred to the memory of the dead. On this occaſion the women aſſemble in the church-yard, ſpread clean napkins on the graves and tomb-ſtones, and cover them with painted eggs, fiſh dreſſed various ways, cakes, cuſtards, &c. The prieſt then prays over, and perfumes them with frankincenſe; the clerk follows, and gathers up the offerings for the uſe of the church; and the women, during the whole ceremony, make the moſt diſmal lamentations.

The river Nerva, which flows from the lake Peibus, and empties itſelf into the gulph of Finland, is exceedingly rapid: and near two miles from the city there is an impetuous cataract, which ruſhes violently down a precipice with the moſt tremendous noiſe, and daſhes ſo furiouſly againſt the rocks, that a miſt or vapour continually aſcends from its foam, which, when the morning ſun obliquely ſhines upon it, produces a rainbow.

The intercepted beams, mix'd with the ſhade
Of temper'd æther, and refracted light,
Paints the fair rainbow, charming to the ſight.

Parnaw, or Perna, which became ſubject to the Swedes in 1617, after it had been taken and retaken many times in the laſt century, in 1710 ſurrendered to the Ruſſians. There is an univerſity removed thither from Derpt, in the year 1685, but it is not much frequented.

Derpt, or, as the inhabitants call it, Derpat, and by the Muſcovites, Junogorod, is a large and ancient city on the river Embeck, between the lakes Peibus and Wortzi, which have a communication together by that river. It was formerly the ſee of a biſhop, and adorned with an univerſity, which has been ſince removed to Parnaw.

There are ſeveral other ſmall towns in the diſtrict of Eſtonia, but ſo inconſiderable, as not to deſerve mention even in name.

Letten. The principal cities and towns in this part of the province of Livonia are as follow:

Riga is the capital, not only of Letten, but of all Livonia. It is the moſt conſiderable place for trade, next to Peterſburg, in the Ruſſian dominions. It ſtands very advantageouſly for commerce, near the mouth of the river Dwina, which, with it branches, extending a great way into Poland and Ruſſia, bring immenſe quantities of commodities, which are exported from this city. Among theſe the principal are hemp, flax, timber for maſts and other purpoſes, pitch, tar, and pot aſhes. All theſe commodities are produced in the provinces, or near them, through which thoſe rivers run; and ſome of them, by means of ſhort land carriage, from one river to another, much further; even from the Ukraine and the Poliſh provinces that border upon Turkey. Charles IX. king of Sweden, beſieged Riga unſucceſsfully in 1605, and again in 1609; but his ſon and ſucceſſor, Guſtavus Adolphus, was more fortunate, and took it in 1620. Riga is well fortified; having ſtrong walls, bulwarks, a very large trench on the land ſide, and a ſtrong caſtle on the river, where the governor-general of Livonia reſides. There is alſo a fort oppoſite the town, on the other ſide of the river, which is called fort Kobber, or Kobrums. The harbour is ſecurely guarded by the Dunamond Fort, or, as it is called, the Dunamunder-Schans, ſeated about ſix miles below the city, near the mouth of the river Dwina, as its name declares, and is a fortreſs of great importance, commanding the paſſage of Riga; ſo that, without leave from the governor, no ſhip can ſail thither.

The inhabitants of Riga are a frank kind of people, and very polite to ſtrangers. They live by their trade; and have, by their policy, kept up hitherto a ſhare of liberty. Their city is governed by four magiſtrates; and they have alſo a great number of counſellors, and a ſyndic. Their magiſtrates have a ſalary annexed to their office; and they are not permitted to trade during their magiſtracy, which, though elective, may continue as long as they live, provided they pleaſe their council. They have great power in the city; but if any think they have not juſtice done them, they appeal to St. Peterſburg, and frequently get the magiſtrates ſentence reverſed. The women are handſome, rather bulky, but of fine features. The unmarried women are kept in good order; but, it is ſaid, that, after marriage, they do not pay a great regard to chaſtity. The ladies of quality are very vain, but at the ſame time polite to thoſe who pay them reſpect. Merchants wives, and other idle women, are to be ſeen at the doors of their houſes almoſt through the whole day, for no other reaſon than to ſee the gentlemen paſs by, and receive their compliments. To ſuch a length is this abſurd cuſtom arrived, that the men ſcarcely can be covered one moment, and therefore walk with their hats under their arms.

The bridge over the Dwina is one of the moſt ſurprizing in Europe, being 900 paces in length. It conſiſts of tranſverſe beams of timber joined together, and riſes or falls with the tide. It is always taken to pieces before the froſt ſets in, which happens in November, and put up as ſoon as the ice is gone. The inhabitants of the city of Riga itſelf are about 8000 in number, and the ſuburbs contain about as many more. Three miles below the town, on the ſouthern ſide, is the place where Charles the XII. routed the Saxons, as he had firſt done the Ruſſians before Narva. A high bank of ſand is now collected, and poſſeſſes the ground where the action happened, under which are ſtill frequently found ſkulls and human bones.

Kokenhauſen, or Kokenhuys, ſtood on the river Dwina, 90 miles above Riga to the eaſt. It was ſtrong by its ſituation on a hill, rather than by its fortifications, but was defended by a good citadel. It was formerly the reſidence of the archbiſhop of Riga. The Ruſſians blew it up in 1701.

The other towns, in the diſtrict of Letten, are Nyenhauſen, Marienburg, Warbeck, Sewold, and Wolmer. The three former are fortified; the three latter are wholly inſignificant.

INGRIA.

THIS part of Ruſſia is 130 miles long, 70 broad, and abounds in cattle. In the winter here are a great number of elks, which, in the ſummer, ſwim in the river Nieva, and make excurſions into Carelia.

The Czar, Peter the Great, being deſirous of opening a communication between Archangel and the Baltic, by means of the gulph of Finland, in order to improve the commerce of his dominions, determined to make himſelf maſter of Ingria, which he accordingly did in the beginning of this century. To render it an European maritime power, he determined on one of the moſt ſtupendous undertakings that ever was entered upon by human reſolution, the building the city of Peterſburg, which he deſigned to make not only the capital of Ingria, but of the whole Ruſſian empire, the center of trade, and the principal ſeat of the imperial reſidence. It is ſituated between Ingria and Finland, in a ſenny iſland, ſurrounded by the river Nieva, in 60 deg. north lat. and 31 deg. 34 min. eaſt long.

A late traveller, who calls this city a creation of the preſent century, ſays further of it, "I am ſtruck with a pleaſing aſtoniſhment while I wander among havens, ſtreets, and public buildings, which have riſen, as by enchantment, within the memory of men ſtill alive; and have converted the marſhy iſlands of the Nieva into one of the moſt magnificent cities on the earth. The imagination, aided by ſo many viſible objects, riſes to the wondrous founder, and beholds, in idea, the tutulary genius of Peter yet hovering over the child of his own production, and viewing, with a parent's fondneſs, its riſing palaces and temples. The names on which ancient ſtory dwells with ſo much fondneſs, ſink on a compariſon with this immortal man; and the fabulous legiſlators of Greece and Egypt never preſumed to attempt the mighty transformation which the Czar completed. The followers of Cadmus, of Theſeus, and of Romulus, were animated with the ſame ardor as their leader; but the Muſcovites, (Ruſſians,) wrapt in the moſt profound barbariſm, ſecluded by their illiberal prejudices from an intercourſe with European nations, and equally the ſlaves of ſuperſtition and long preſcription, were forcibly torn from this night of ignorance, and compelled to accept of refinement and civilization.

"The iſland on which this fine city as been ſo wonderfully raiſed, was nothing but a heap of mud in the ſhort ſummer of theſe climates, and a frozen pool in winter, not to be approached by land but by paſſing over wild foreſts and deep moraſſes, and had been till then the habitation of bears and wolves, till it was, in 1703, inhabited by above 300,000 Ruſſian, Tartar, Coſſack, &c. peaſants, whom the Czar called together from all corners of his vaſt empire, ſome near 1200 miles; and theſe made a beginning of this work. He was obliged to break through foreſts, open ways, dry up moors, and raiſe banks, before he could lay the foundation. The whole was a force upon nature. At firſt the workmen had neither ſufficient proviſions, or even pickaxes, ſpades, wheelbarrows, planks, or huts to ſhelter in; yet the work went on ſo expeditiouſly, that, in five months, the fortreſs was raiſed; though earth thereabouts was ſo ſcarce, that the greateſt part of the labourers carried it in the ſkirts of their cloaths, or in bags made of old rags and mats, barrows being then unknown to them. It is computed full 100,000 periſhed at the place; for the country had been deſolated by war, and ſupplies by Ladoga lake were often retarded by contrary winds. The Czar himſelf drew the main plan. While the fortreſs was going on, the city began gradually to be built. He obliged many of the nobility, merchants, and tradeſmen, to go and live there, and trade in ſuch commodities as they were ordered. Proviſions being ſcarce, and conveniencies wanting, the place, at firſt, was not at all agreeable to perſons of diſtinction, who had in Moſcow large buildings, and ſeats in the country, with fiſh-ponds, gardens, and other rural elegancies. However, he little regarded the complaints of thoſe who only conſidered their own eaſe. The boyars (nobility) brought great retinues with them; and merchants and ſhopkeepers ſoon found their account in ſettling here. Many Swedes, Finlanders, and Livonians, from towns nearly depopulated by the wars, continued here. Artificers, mechanics, and ſeamen, were invited hither, to encourage ſhipping; who, having worked out the time agreed on for the Czar, were hired by the boyars; and alſo built for themſelves, and ſettled; each man being allowed to pitch on the ſpot he liked. In one year 30,000 houſes were erected, and, in two or three more, double the number, which doubtleſs are very much increaſed ſince. Some, indeed, but chiefly in the ſlabodas, or ſuburbs, are mean, and may be taken to pieces in two or three hours, and ſet up elſewhere. To build this town, that of Nienſchans (a ſtrong fort on the Nieva, not far from Noteburg) was demoliſhed for the materials, and the inhabitants removed hither. As he intended to remove the trade of Archangel to Peterſburg, in 1713 he made 1000 families come from Moſcow, and offered great advantages to all foreigners that ſhould ſettle there; and ordered that all goods uſually ſent to Archangel, to be ſold, &c. to ſtrangers, ſhould be ſent hither, and the duties to be in every reſpect the ſame. But the commerce, &c. were not entirely removed till ſome years after. In 1714 it was ordered that all houſes ſhould be built of brick, tiled.

The citadel is a long and irregular hexagonal, with ſix baſtions parallel to each other, except the two middlemoſt, one of which, oppoſite to Carelia, has two orillons or blinds; that over-againſt the river none; each of the four others one. They were all, at firſt, but earth and turf; but, in 1710, the Czar reſolved to have them all lined with ſtrong walls. Thoſe on Carelia ſide were finiſhed in his life-time; and the work has been carried on and compleated by his ſucceſſors. The wall is 30 feet high to the parapet, and the faces are all lined with large iron and braſs guns. On the flanks, which are pretty ſhort, are two rows of cazamattes, one above another, arched over, and covered with beams and turf, bomb-proof. The curtain on the right of this citadel's gates has one of the fineſt royal diſpenſaries in Europe, both for the great quantity of drugs and medicines, and the large number of beautiful porcelane veſſels from China and Japan, which it contains. This citadel has two gates; one adorned with ſtatues, particularly St. Peter with his two emblematic keys, and on its inſide the black eagle of Ruſſia, with the globe and the ſceptre in its two talons; and below is the figure of the Ruſſian St. Nicholas. Before that gate is a ravelin, from whence is a bridge, with two draw-bridges over an arm of the river. In this place gallies and ſmall veſſels are ſheltered from bad weather.

The academy eſtabliſhed by Peter the Great, has a multiplicity of profeſſors in moſt ſciences, and the belles lettres, who have liberal ſalaries. The building is a ſuperb pile, containing two ſtories, with a beautiful cupola in the middle, and an obſervatory. Here is a good library, and all manner of natural and artificial curioſities. "In one of the galleries, (ſays a curious obſerver,) in a caſe, is the ſkin of a Frenchman tanned and ſtuffed. This has been the talleſt man I ever ſaw. In another caſe is his ſkeleton, and a pair of breeches made of his wife's ſkin, alſo dreſſed. The leather was like buff. On the bottom, or pavement, ſtands the ſkin of an Engliſh cheſnut horſe, ſtuffed, ſaddled, and bridled, and beſide it the ſkeleton. Peter the Great uſed to ride this horſe. Here I ſaw the head of the unfortunate Miſs Hamilton, a Swediſh lady, who loſt it for having murdered her child unlawfully begotten; and this is the only murder of that kind I ever heard of in Ruſſia. This lady was maid of honour to the empreſs Catherine. It is ſaid Peter went and ſaw her executed. He wept much, but could not prevail upon himſelf to pardon her. He cauſed her head to be capped and injected. The forehead is almoſt compleat. The face is the moſt beautiful my eyes ever beheld. The *dura mater*, and brain, are all preſerved in their natural ſituation. This is kept in ſpirits in a large chryſtal veſſel."

Beſides the above, here are depoſited great quantities of earths, foſſils, ſtones, ores, natural metals, minerals, ſhells, moſſes, corals, &c. In one room is a figure of Peter the Great in wax work, as large as the life. He ſits in an elbow chair croſs-legged, dreſſed in a blue ſuit of cloaths, white ſtockings, and has a hanger by his ſide. He has ſhort black hair, his head covered; and the figure is ſurrounded by mathematical, philoſophical, and mechanical inſtruments.

Peter the Great alſo formed regulations for the management of this ſeminary. Theſe referred to the profeſſors, the ſtudents, the reſpective ſciences, the ſucceſſion to offices, and other particulars conducive to the intereſt of the inſtitution in general.

Peterſburg is amazingly increaſed in ſize within theſe fifty years. At the death of Peter the Great, it did not contain 80,000 inhabitants; and now the Ruſſians aſſert that there are 500,000; but this is deemed an exaggeration. It covers a very great extent of land and water. The ſtreets are ſome of them very broad, long, and with canals in the middle of them; and others are planted in the Dutch faſhion. The houſes are immenſely large. The palaces of the nobility exceed in ſize thoſe of moſt cities. That of the Empreſs is an amazing ſtructure. But theſe are rather great than beautiful. The ſize is all that ſtrikes; and the buildings are ſtuck ſo thick with ornaments, that there is hardly any ſuch thing as judging of their proportions. The Italian architecture is mixed with the Dutch, and the whole forms very inelegant piles, in which true taſte is totally ſacrificed to a profuſion of ornament. But if the eye does not ſcrutinize into the ſeparate parts of the buildings, but takes only the ſtreets at large, the city may be fairly pronounced a very fine one.

Among the public buildings there are many extremely worthy the attention of a traveller, particularly the dock-yards, the naval magazines, the arſenal, foundery, admiralty, &c. without inſiſting on the imperial palace, the cathedral, or many churches. In the docks they continually employ a great number of carpenters. They build here all ſorts of veſſels, from ſhips of 120 guns down to boats; and the number on the ſtocks at a time is conſiderable. After the death of Peter the Great the marine was neglected, inſomuch, that the Empreſs's naval ſtrength was not computed to be a fifth part of what that great monarch poſſeſſed; and this was owing to want of trade, which can alone make ſeamen; unleſs when in the hands of ſuch a man as Peter, who created every thing. But the preſent Empreſs, who has thrown the ſpirit of that great monarch into all the departments of the ſtate, has revived it wonderfully; ſo that, at preſent, the Ruſſians have a formidable navy.

There is ſcarcely any thing at Peterſburg more deſerving notice than the foundery. The iron is brought from Kexholm by water; and the number of cannon and mortars that are caſt here is very great; alſo cannon balls, and all ſorts of military implements in which iron is uſed; which are made here at as ſmall an expence as in Sweden, or any other part of the world. The arſenal is always well ſtored with them; and there are vaſt quantities made on a private account for exportation, forming a very conſiderable branch of commerce.

The grand market-place is on the ſouthernmoſt part of the city, with many warehouſes, to depoſit all kinds of commodities and merchandize, both domeſtic and foreign, for ſale. It is a large ſquare, with four entries, and a range of ſhops on each ſide, both within and without, with covered galleries, to ſecure thoſe who frequent it from the rain.

Woolen and linen manufactories were ſet up here, of which the latter is brought to great perfection, as we may obſerve by the linen of late imported from thence. Here is particularly a workhouſe, where an old Dutch woman has 80 young nymphs under her care, who are taught, with a whip, how to handle the ſpinning-wheel; and ſeveral regulations are made for improving the plantations of hemp and flax. Paper-mills, and powder-mills, have alſo been erected, with laboratories for gunnery and fire-works; and other places for preparing ſalt-petre and brimſtone. Rope-yards, like thoſe in England and Holland, for making of cables and tackling for the navy, are alſo ſet up here, A printing houſe is eſtabliſhed, and news-papers are now as regularly printed as in other countries of Europe. Several uſeful books have been tranſlated out of the High-Dutch, and printed; the government encouraging their ſubjects to enquire into the ſtate of the world abroad, inſtead of keeping them in ignorance, according to their ancient maxims. As to their ſilk and woolen manufactures, they have not been able hitherto to bring them to any degree of perfection.

At little diſtance from Peterſburg is a noble ſeminary for educating females only, founded by the late empreſs Elizabeth. The building is capacious and grand. Children of diſtinction are kept ſeparate from thoſe of an inferior rank; and the whole contains between 700 and 800 females.

Near the Nieva is a ſmall palace, built by the preſent Empreſs, and called *The Hermitage*. When her

majeſty reſides in this part of the building ſhe is in retreat, and there is no drawing-room or court. Theſe apartments are very elegant, and furniſhed with great taſte. There are two galleries of paintings, which have been lately purchaſed, at an immenſe expence, in Italy. The crown, in the palace itſelf, is perhaps the richeſt in Europe. It is ſhaped like a bonnet, and totally covered with diamonds. In the ſceptre is the celebrated one purchaſed by prince Orloff for 500,000 rubles, (112,500l.) and preſented by him to his ſovereign miſtreſs. It far exceeds Pitt's diamond in ſize, and is not inferior in water. Lapidaries declare it the moſt beautiful and rare ever brought from Golconda. One of the nobleſt monuments of the gratitude and veneration univerſally paid to Peter I. is that which her preſent majeſty has ordered to be erected. It is an equeſtrian ſtatue; in which production the artiſt has united the greateſt ſimplicity with the trueſt ſublimity of conception. No other ſtatuary, whether ancient or modern, gave him the deſign, which is ſingular in its kind, and admirably adapted to expreſs the character of the man, and of the people over whom he reigned. Inſtead of a pedeſtal adorned with inſcriptions, or ſurrounded by ſlaves, he appears mounted on a rock, or ſtone of a prodigious ſize, upon the aſcent of which the horſe labours, and appears to have nearly reached its ſummit. This attitude has given him room to exert great anatomical beauty and ſkill in the muſcles of the horſe's hind parts and hams, on which the whole of his body is neceſſarily ſuſtained. The Czar's figure is full of fire and ſpirit. He ſits on a bear-ſkin, and is clad in a ſimple habit, not characteriſtic of any particular country, but ſuch as may be worn without violation of propriety by an inhabitant of any country.

About 20 miles weſt from Peterſburg is the beautiful palace of Peterhoff, ſituated on an eminence, in a large garden, commanding a fine view, and ſurrounded by many out-houſes, offices, &c. for ſervants and attendants. It faces the ſouth; and, in the front, there is a beautiful canal of clear tranſparent water, from which three *jet d'eaus* are ſupplied, and conſtantly play. When the Empreſs is here, the guards are encamped in a part of the garden, where their tents make a very agreeable appearance. In ſpeaking of one of theſe *jet d'eaus*, a curious traveller ſays, "Out of the water, much to my agreeable ſurprize, aroſe a dog and three ducks, made of copper or iron, and, in appearance, all alive. The ducks flutter through the water quacking, the dogs follow after them barking. There is, in a ſubterraneous place, a charming chime of chryſtal bells, which play by water. The grotto, which is covered before by a caſcade, has two entries, one on each ſide. The entries are guarded by ſtatues, which, when you are in, prevent any one from getting out, till the keeper, by turning a handle, puts a ſtop to them. Theſe ſtatues evacuate ſo much water, by vomiting, and ſhooting out of ſtone piſtols and guns, that the keeper ſaid it would overwhelm any man. Beſides the curioſities before mentioned, there is a beautiful gallery full of the fineſt china in the world; one end of which is a ſmall but commodious room, with a bed in it, whither the Empreſs ſometimes retires to repoſe herſelf.

The apartments here are all ſplendid and nobly furniſhed; and among the paintings there are five matchleſs portraits of the ſovereigns of Ruſſia, viz. 1. Peter the Great. 2. The Livonian villager, whoſe virtues raiſed her from a cottage to an imperial diadem, and to ſhare the bed of Peter the Great. 3. The empreſs Ann. 4. The empreſs Elizabeth. 5. The preſent reigning ſovereign.

Such was the foundation, and ſuch is the preſent ſtate, of the city of Peterſburg, as appears from the moſt authentic and modern accounts we could poſſibly ſelect. The only material circumſtance relative to it, which remains to be mentioned, is the dreadful inundation and hurricane which happened in 1777, and were productive of the following fatal effects.

Almoſt all the houſes in the little iſlands in the mouth of the Nieva were demoliſhed, and a conſiderable number of the inhabitants loſt.

The fortifications of this place ſuſtained great damage. The rapidity of the river was beyond all conception: it carried every thing before it, making a moſt dreadful havock, and roaring with a noiſe not eaſily to be deſcribed.

A poor man, with his wife and two daughters, getting out at a window, when a guſt of wind blew down the houſe, were all killed except the man, who ſurvived three days.

A poor young lady, in fixing a rope to deſcend by, was killed by the falling of the roof of another houſe; and two other perſons in the ſaid houſe loſt their lives.

The great bridge of pontons was totally borne away; and paper mills, elaboratories, manufactories, &c. demoliſhed.

The dead body of one of the handſomeſt women was ſeen floating on the waters. The wind and ſtream conveyed her to a wreck, on which it was hoped ſhe might have ſymptoms of life, but a contuſion in her head ſoon baniſhed every proſpect of that kind.

A prodigious number of cattle and poultry were deſtroyed, as well as horſes drowned in ſtables. A tribe of itinerant Tartars were drowned in their temporary huts in the country. In ſhort, both the city and neighbouring flat country exhibited a moſt horrible aſpect.

An account tranſmitted from Peterſburg to London, thus ſtates the particulars of this calamitous event.

"An inundation happened here, more extenſive and deſtructive than has ever been remembered in theſe parts. A violent hurricane of wind, at weſt-ſouth-weſt, which began about two o'clock in the morning, raiſed the waters, in the ſhort time of four hours, to the height of fourteen feet above the ordinary level of the Nieva, by which the whole town, and a great extent of the country in the neighbourhood, was rapidly overflowed. The water remained about half an hour at its extreme height; but the wind getting a little to the northward between ſix and ſeven o'clock, it returned, in a very ſhort time, to its uſual bounds. It is impoſſible to eſtimate, with any degree of exactneſs, the loſs which the ſtate and individuals ſuffered. The number of perſons drowned amounted to ſeveral hundreds. In the beſt parts of the town many houſes were unroofed; and the loſs of liquors, and other proviſions, in the cellars and lower apartments, were very great. In the ſhops (which are all in the ſame quarter of the town) goods were deſtroyed to a very conſiderable amount. In the gardens of the ſummer-palace, great numbers of the fineſt trees were broken or torn up by the roots. The lower ſkirts of the town, where the houſes are moſtly of wood, and inhabited by the poorer ſort of people, preſented a ſcene of deſolation which can be more eaſily imagined than deſcribed. Many perſons were drowned in their beds; and others, who ſought for ſafety from the waters on the roofs of their houſes, were carried from thence by the violence of the wind; and thoſe who eſcaped with life, were left deſtitute of habitations and effects. Great damage was done at the quay of the exchange, and the lower magazines and warehouſes. Numbers of barks, laden with iron, hemp, grain, wood, &c. to a very great amount, were ſtaved, ſunk, or driven in pieces in the ſtreets or fields. Several large veſſels, lying between this place and Cronſtadt, were driven aſhore into woods and gardens. Many of the country houſes in the neighbourhood were deſtroyed. The village of Catherinehoff, and ſome others on the ſame coaſt, were entirely ſwept away, with all the cattle; and many lives were loſt there, as well as on the ſide of the Galley Haven, where the ground is very low. The great bridge of boats over the Nieva was carried away; and moſt of the bridges in the town,

except

except thoſe on the new ſtone quay, (no part of which ſuffered any material damage) were torn up.

"According to accurate obſervations, it appeared, that the waters roſe a foot and a half higher than in the great inundation which happened here in the year 1752. The plays of the court theatre were ſtopped for ſome time, on account of this public calamity. Arrangements were made to give all poſſible relief to the poor ſufferers.

"The Empreſs, with a degree of humanity that will ever do honour to her character, ordered the royal coffers to be opened to thoſe who had ſuffered moſt materially by the tempeſt."

After Peter the Great had laid the foundation of his new city of Peterſburg, and made ſome progreſs in the buildings, he thought it neceſſary to have a convenient harbour in which the ſhipping might ride ſecure, and pitched upon the iſland of Retriſari, at the mouth of the gulph of Finland. There he built a new town called Cronſtadt, and ſecured it with a caſtle called Cronſlot, ſituated on a ſand bank near the ſide of Ingria; ſo that between the caſtle and the town, the ſhipping ride in a ſafe, deep, and commodious harbour. The caſtle is built in the form of a round tower, and three tier of galleries, well furniſhed with cannon, ſurround it. In caſes of emergency, the piers of the harbour may be mounted with a conſiderable train of artillery; and two ſmall batteries at preſent are ſituated on the oppoſite iſland.

Between Cronſtadt and Peterſburgh are many elegant houſes; and on an iſland formed by the river Nieva, near the weſtern banks of the lake Ladoga, is the ſtrong fortreſs and ſeaport of Noteburg, or Oreſco. It was taken from the Swedes by Peter the Great in the year 1702. With reſpect to the other towns, Nieuſchan is demoliſhed. Iwanogorod is a ſtrong caſtle oppoſite to Narva; from which, at the diſtance of 45 miles, is the fortreſs of Caporia, ſituated on the banks of a ſmall river. Fifteen miles to the north-eaſt of Iwanogorod is Jama, another fortreſs, built on the river of the ſame name.

MUSCOVY PROPER, or WESTERN RUSSIA.

THIS diviſion of the Ruſſian empire contains the following extenſive provinces, which we ſhall arrange in their proper order.

PLESCOW, or Pſkow, was formerly a republic, after which it had the title of duchy. It was at length ſubdued by Iwan Baſilowitz, anno 1509. It hath a lake of its name, which lies on the confines of Ingria and Livonia, and empties itſelf into the larger one of Peipus or Crud-kow. Pleſkow, the capital, is ſeated in the mouth of the river Muldow, on the right hand of the lake of its name. It is divided into four wards or quarters, each of which is encompaſſed with its own walls; and the whole is defended by a ſtout caſtle, built on a high rock. It is a Ruſſian archiepiſcopal ſee, and a conſiderable populous city. The other cities of this territory are inconſiderable, and not worth notice.

GREAT NOVOGOROD VELIKI, or, the Duchy of NOVOGOROD, is ſituate on the eaſt of Pleſkow, and divided into five diſtricts. It is called Novogorod Veliki, or Superior, to diſtinguiſh it from the Inferior, or Niſo Novogorod. The chief produce is corn, flax, hemp, wax, honey, and leather; in all which it drove a conſiderable traffic, when it was governed by its own princes; but ſince it is become under ſubjection, it is much decayed.

The city of Novogorod Veliki, capital of this province, called by the French Neugard, and by the Dutch New Garten, is a large and conſiderable place, populous and well fortified. It was formerly more ſpacious. It is an archbiſhopric of the Ruſſian rite. The cathedral, called Santa Sophia, is large and beautiful, though in the antique ſtyle.

On the other ſide of the river is the caſtle, which is joined to the city by a large bridge, famed for the many thouſands of clergy, citizens, and others, whom the tyrant of Novogorod, duke Iwan Baſilowick, cauſed to be thrown from it into the river, anno 1569. The caſtle is the reſidence of the Viavode; and near unto it is the archiepiſcopal palace, and a monaſtery, dedicated to the miraculous St. Antony of Padua. There is another monaſtery here, called Perunki Monaſtir, ſaid to have been built on the ruins of an ancient temple, dedicated to Perun, or the god of fire, formerly worſhipped here, under the figure of a deity, holding a thunderbolt in its hand. Here are alſo many churches and monaſteries.

Staria, or Stara Ruſſa, or Old Ruſſa, is ſituated on the oppoſite ſhore of the lake Ilmen, whoſe outlet is the river Lovat, from the water of which the inhabitants make a conſiderable quantity of ſalt for exportation.

The capital of this province is the only place worthy of mention, except the town of St. Nicholas, which is a large populous place, ſituated near the Wolga, and celebrated for a ſtately and ſpacious monaſtery, dedicated to the ſaint from whom the town itſelf derives its name.

The Duchy of TWERE is ſmall and compact, but populous and fertile, and takes its name from its capital, and that from the river Twerza. Its chief city is Twere, the capital, ſituate on the confluence of the rivers Twerza and Wolga; which laſt is by this time become ſo wide, that they are obliged to croſs it in ferry-boats. It ſtands pleaſantly on the ſide of a riſing hill, on the bank of the Twerza, from which it hath its name; and is a large, rich, and populous city, having no leſs than ſixty churches, and an epiſcopal ſee; and is the ſtation of a mint.

A little below it, on the ſame river, ſtands the large town of Terſack, Torſak, or Tarſock, about 20 miles north from Twere. The other towns have nothing worth notice.

The Duchy of RZEVA, or RESCHAW. This province contains the following towns.

Rzeva the deſert, ſo called becauſe ruined and abandoned, was the capital, and ſtood on the weſtern ſide of the province, on the ſouth-weſt of Velike-Louki; but hath yielded its dignity to

Rzeva Volodemerſki, which is pleaſantly ſituated on the Wolga, on the eaſtern ſide of this province, near the ſmall lake Wolga, which is one of the head ſprings of that river. It is ſaid to have been built by prince Volodimer, who made very conſiderable conqueſts in this and the neighbouring provinces. It is but indifferently built, but well peopled, and drives ſome ſort of trade in hemp, fiſh, &c.

Toropecky is a ſmall neat town, pleaſantly ſituated on a little river that falls into the Dwina. The other towns contain nothing worthy of notice.

The Principality of BIELA, or BILISKI, was formerly governed by its own princes; and the capital, Biela, ſituated on the river Uſca, which diſcharges itſelf into the Dwina, was a conſiderable town, till ſubdued and ruined by the czar Baſilowitz.

The Province of SMOLENSKO has been alternately ſubdued by the Poles and Ruſſians, and at length was finally ceded to the latter by treaty, towards the concluſion of the laſt century. It is watered by the Nieper or Boriſthenes. The land is in general ſterile; but the ſkins of the wild beaſts, with which it abounds, yield the inhabitants ſome profit.

Smolenſko, the capital, and the only place that deſerves mention, is agreeably ſituated on the banks of the Nieper, near the confines of Lithuania. It is large, populous, well fortified, and the houſes are tolerably well built. It has a citadel and garriſon to defend it; was once a metropolitan, and is now a biſhop's ſee. The ſurrounding woods are ſaid to produce the beſt firs in the Ruſſian dominions.

The Duchy of SEVERIA had formerly princes of its own, till the country was ſubdued by the Czar Baſilowitz.

lowitz. It afterwards fell into the hands of Sigiſmund III. king of Poland, who incorporated it with his dominions; but it was at length finally ceded to Ruſſia, as a member of the ancient palatinate of Smolenſko.

This province being watered by the rivers Ubic, Doniza, and Nevin, is fertile and populous, yet woody. In the ſouthern part there is one vaſt extenſive foreſt, which is computed to be 100 miles ſquare. Here

Horrid with fern, and intricate with thorn,
Few paths of human feet, or tracks of beaſts, are worn.

Nogogrodeck, the chief town, ſtands on the river Doniza, and is tolerably well fortified in the Ruſſian ſtile.

Branſki is a well-fortified town, about 60 miles from Nogogrodeck. The other towns or villlages of this province are of no conſequence.

The Dutchy of CZERNICHOW, though watered by the river Doniza, is exceeding ſterile. The principal town, called Czernichow, is ſmall, thinly peopled, and inconſiderable, as are all the other places in it.

The Principality of VOROTIN. The continual excurſions of the Coſſacks have almoſt deſolated that portion of this province which is ſituated near Leſſer Tartary: but the other parts are populous and fertile, being watered by the river Occa.

On the banks of the Occa ſtands Vorotin, the capital of the province. It is only a ſmall town, but well ſecured by a caſtle and other fortifications. On the ſame river ſtands Cromare, Starol, and Bolgoff.

The Duchy of REZAN, or RHEZAN, or, as it is now called, the Province of Verones, includes a very large track of land, ſituated between the Don and the Occa, and extending near 300 miles in length. It is watered by the Don or Tanais, and the Occa. The Ruſſians deem the ſoil of this province the moſt fertile in the univerſe; and affirm, that the corn grows ſo thick and ſtrong, that a horſe cannot make his way through it. This muſt be owing to a great quantity of ſalts with which the ſnow impregnates and enriches the ground, by lying ſo many months upon it. The people here are courageous, warlike, civil, polite, and very numerous.

This country was formerly governed by its own dukes, who were eſteemed powerful; but it hath long ſince been ſubdued by the Czar, and become ſubject to Ruſſia, ſince which time it hath much decayed. It continues, however, ſtill fertile in corn, millet, and other grain, and alſo abounds all kind of game, as the rivers do with fiſh; particulary the great river Don, which hath its ſpring in this province, and runs almoſt acroſs it, and, after a long ſerpentine courſe, diſcharges itſelf into the Paulus Mæotis at Azoph.

Moſt of the towns were formerly conſiderable, rich, and well-peopled; but being miſerably plundered and abuſed by the Crim Tartars in the year 1568, they have not ſince been able to recover themſelves.

Rezan, or Rhezan, the ancient capital of this province, which was formerly a fair, large and populous city, and advantageouſly ſituated on the Occa, is chiefly famed for the noble reſiſtance which it made againſt the Tartars in the year 1570, by which the whole empire was preſerved from their fury; though the city itſelf, and almoſt the whole duchy, were deſtroyed by them. All that the ancient Rezan now retains of its former grandeur, is the archiepiſcopal ſee, and its being ſtill the reſidence of the metropolitan.

Voronetz, commonly called Veronis, is the moſt conſiderable place in this dutchy, on account of the great ſhips of war built there under the direction and inſpection of the late czar Peter the Great, it being ſituated on a ſmall river of its own name, which falls into the Don, or Tanais, a little below it, and is deep enough to carry them into the great river, and thence down to the Black ſea, to which that prince opened himſelf a free paſſage by the taking of Azoph.

The town is ſituated on a hill, ſurrounded with a wooden wall, almoſt rotten. It is divided into three parts; one of which, called Jakatoff, is the common reſidence of the Ruſſian merchants. It hath large and extenſive rope-walks, and a ſpacious ſubterranean magazine of powder without the walls. On the declivity of the hill, and along the water ſide, are ſeveral ſpacious houſes, ſome of them 400 paces long, which belong to the Ruſſian admirals, vice-admirals, and perſons of rank. Moſt of them ſtand facing the citadel, and behind them are ſtreets for thoſe that are employed in ſhip-building. The city ſtands on the weſt ſide of the Veronis, and the citadel on the other; and a large bridge is built over it for communication.

The citadel is a large ſquare building, flanked with a tower on each corner; hath large apartments in it, and makes a great figure without. It is ſurrounded with ſtrong palliſadoes, and a ditch, and is defended by a ſtrong garriſon. This is the chief magazine in this part of Ruſſia, in which there are about 150 cannon, moſtly unmounted for ſpeedy carriage; conveniencies for ſhip-building; and apartments three ſtories high, for all manner of naval ſtores. Here are ſome handſome churches, after the Ruſſian taſte: and, at a ſmall diſtance from the town, may be ſeen a high mountain almoſt mouldered away, and full of cracks, on which are ſome ancient monuments.

Taverhoff was built by Peter the Great, on the ſouth banks of the river Veronis, and two thirds of the town are waſhed by that river and the Don. The place is very unhealthy, on account of the circumjacent low flat grounds being covered either with wood or water. This town is regularly built, with ſtreets interſecting each other at right angles; but the houſes are of wood, as is a palace which ſtands at the weſt end. The citadel is made of earthen ramparts, palliſadoed with baſtions at the corners, mounted with cannon. Taverhoff itſelf is inhabited principally by ſailors and fiſhermen; and what is very ſingular, 3000 ſoldiers, who are the garriſon, and appointed to defend the place, do not reſide in the town, but dwell all together in a neighbouring village.

The other towns in this duchy worth mentioning, are Donkarod, a large place about 14 leagues ſouth from Rezan, ſituate near the ſpring-head of the Don, or Tanais; and Toul, or Tula, on the weſtern confines, near the borders of Vorotin, which is defended by a ſtout caſtle, built by the czar Baſilowitz ſoon after he took it.

The province of BIELGOROD lies in a temperate climate, is watered by ſeveral ſtreams, and is naturally fertile; but being expoſed to the continual attacks and inroads of the Don Coſſacks, it is neither populous or well cultivated. In fact, the country originally belonged to thoſe people, and the inhabitants ſtill retain the Tartarian cuſtoms and manners; being themſelves more inclinable to live by free-booting than by the cultivation of the earth, and to make wild excurſions about the country, than to reſide ſocially in cities and towns. Indeed, it hath a conſiderable number of ſmall towns, moſt of them poor, and half-ruined; but no cities, except that of Bielgorod, from which it has its name, and which is itſelf hardly remarkable upon any other account. The country of the Don Coſſacks, on the ſouth-eaſt, called alſo Rodoni Donſki, and the country of the Nogay Coſſacks, on the ſouth-weſt, are either very boggy or woody, and have few towns in their territory; which, with the palatinate of Bielgorod, was formerly part of Tartary, but hath been gradually conquered from it by the Ruſſians.

The Province of MORDOA, or MÓRDVA, and Diſtrict of CZERMISSE. Having gone through the weſtern provinces of Ruſſia, we muſt direct our courſe towards the north, where we meet the province called Mordva. The inhabitants of this province are ſaid to be the moſt civilized of all the Tartarian people, and have ſome towns, but none of them worth deſcribing. The people here are heathens, but have neither temples, altars, or prieſts. Their country is ſmall, and full of foreſts.

The

The diſtrict or province of Czeremiſſe, or Scheremiſſe, which lies on the eaſt ſide of the former, is a vaſt track of land, extending from 54 to 61 deg. of latitude; and is divided by the river Volga into two parts; the ſouthern diſtrict, which adjoins to Mordva, and has the name of Nagorna, which implies mountainous; and the northern, which is known by the name of Logowai, or Low Land. The inhabitants, who are deemed the moſt ſavage of all the Tartars, breed vaſt herds of cattle. They are without towns; faithleſs in their dealings, ſuperſtitious in their notions, and cruel in their diſpoſitions. Some are called Mahometans; but the greater part, eſpecially towards Cazan, have no fixed objects of faith, or modes of practice, being as vague in the one, as they are abſurd in the other. Their language is peculiar, underſtood by neither Muſcovite or Tartar. A man is allowed three or four wives. The women wear only a coarſe linen gown, which covers their whole body; and the headtire of the married ones riſes over their heads like a horn growing out of their ſkulls, at the top of which hangs a little bell, by a ſilk ſtring of ſeveral colours. The men have much the ſame garb about their bodies, with drawers under. The married ſhave their heads, and the unmarried let their hair grow to a conſiderable length. They are ſubject to the Czarina, and obliged to aſſiſt her in war; but are free from all tribute.

The Duchy of NISI-NOVOGOROD is watered by the Volga and Occa, and abounds with foreſts; but is, nevertheleſs, pleaſant, populous, and fertile.

The capital, Niſi-Novogorod, is ſituated on a rock, at the confluence of the Volga and Occa, ſurrounded by a ſtone wall, and defended by a ſtrong citadel. Near the river ſide, and before the ſtately gate of the city called Iwanoffski, there is a ſpacious market-place. A noble ſtreet, interſected by others, runs through the whole town. The cathedral, which is built after the model of Santa Sophia at Conſtantinople, is a ſtately edifice, has five cupolas beautifully varniſhed with green, and adorned at the top with elegant croſſes. The ſuperb archiepiſcopal palace is near the cathedral, but contains a church within its own walls. The governor's palace, and the chancery, are noble fabricks; and the houſes, in general, are well built of timber. The city itſelf is ſmall, but the ſuburbs are large, and the whole has a good trade, and is well furniſhed with proviſions. The luxuries, as well as the neceſſaries of life, are remarkably cheap; but the inhabitants, in general, women as well as men, are abominable drunkards.

Baſiligorod, ſituated at the foot of a riſing ground, near the Volga, is a large village, conſiſting of wooden houſes. It was originally founded by the czar Baſilius, as a check upon the Tartars; but as the Ruſſian frontiers at preſent extend much farther, the fortifications have been ſuffered to go to decay. The other towns of this province are Slaboda, Balagna, and Paſtoff; but they are neither important or remarkable.

The Province of VOLODIMER contains ſome ſens and foreſts; but in many parts is fertile, and well watered.

Volodimer, the capital, is ſituated on a fine hill, which is beautifully diverſified with plantations. Hence a moſt noble appearance is exhibited to the diſtant eye. It was built by prince Volodimer, in the commencement of the tenth century; and here he and his ſucceſſors reſided till the court was removed to Moſcow, ſince which period its ſplendor hath gradually decayed. The other towns are Gorachowitz; Ileſs, ſituated on the river Cheſma; and Baluchna, which ſtands on the banks of the Volga.

The Duchy of SUSDAL contains many foreſts, which are well ſtored with fallow deer and other game, and with wild beaſts, whoſe furs bear a good price. John Baſilowitz ſubdued this country anno 1565, and incorporated it with its own eſtates. Its chief towns are

Suſdal, the capital, Caſtro-Moigorod, Louch, and Yourieff.

Suſdal is ſituated on the river Cleſma, near the ſouthern part of the duchy. It is an archiepiſcopal ſee, built moſtly of wood, after the Ruſſian manner, but retains little of its priſtine grandeur. It is, however, famed for a ſtately monaſtery of nuns, and ſome other ancient buildings.

The Duchy of Moscow, or MUSCOVY, properly ſo called, in order to diſtinguiſh it from the great empire of which it is the principal province, bears the name of duchy, becauſe, for a long time, the princes of it took only upon themſelves the title of dukes. It hath its name from its capital, Muſcow, or Muſcova; and this from the river of that name, on which it is ſituated.

Its extent, from eaſt to weſt, is computed to be about 68 leagues, or a little above 200 miles; and its breadth, from north to ſouth, about 33 leagues, or 100 miles. The chief rivers that run through it are the Moſcow, Occa, and Cleſma, all which fall into the Volga; and on the weſtern ſide of this province is a large foreſt, out of which flows that famed one called the Boriſthenes, which, croſſing the duchy of Smolenſko, makes its courſe to Ukrania, Lithuania, and Poland. The ſoil, however, is not ſo fertile as in ſome of the other provinces; but the air, though ſharp, is very healthy; which, with the advantage of its ſituation amidſt ſome of the beſt provinces of the empire, induced the monarchs to make it their chief reſidence, and the metropolis of the empire.

The chief cities and towns are the following:

Moſcow, the capital, once the metropolis of, and the greateſt city in the whole Ruſſian empire, is ſeated in a fine ſpacious plain, on the river of its name, over which it hath a ſtately bridge of twelve arches, of a prodigious height and breadth, becauſe that river often overflows. It was built by prince Gafiſchin, from the deſign of a Poliſh monk. The town ſtands in a gravelly ſoil, and wholeſome air, and almoſt in the center of the beſt provinces of Moſcovy. The population of this city cannot be aſcertained. In 1662, when lord Carliſle was ambaſſador there from king Charles II. it was 12 miles in compaſs, full of houſes and inhabitants, inſomuch that the number of the former is, by the loweſt calculations, ſaid to have amounted to 40,000; and by the Ruſſians affirmed to have been above double that number. According to Voltaire, Moſcow, when he wrote, was 20 miles in circumference, and its inhabitants amounted to 500,000; but it is almoſt impoſſible to form a preciſe eſtimate of their preſent number. The houſes are, in general, miſerable timber booths, which always have ſubjected the city to violent conflagrations.

Moſcow is of a circular form, and conſiſts of four diſtinct parts, or quarters, all ſurrounded with a diſtinct wall, viz. Cataigorod, Czargorod, Skorodom, and Strelitze-Slaboda, ſo called becauſe it was formerly the quarter of the Strelitzes, or Czar's guards.

The Cataigorod, or middle city, is ſurrounded with a brick wall; and on this ſtands the caſtle, which is two miles in circuit, and fortified with three ſtout walls, ſtately towers, and a foſſe. In the caſtle are two palaces of the Czar, one of timber, the other of ſtone, built after the Italian manner; the patriarchal palace, a large ancient building; the exchequer, chancery, and other offices; the grand magazine; two handſome monaſteries; five large churches, among which is that noble one of St. Michael, in which are the tombs of the grand dukes, or czars. There are ſeveral other ſtately buildings in this great caſtle. At the gate ſtands that ſtately ancient fabrick called the church of Jeruſalem.

Near the churches are hung ſeveral large bells, one of which is of a ſtupendous ſize. Concerning the celebrated great bell of Moſcow, a learned traveller ſays, "I went to ſee the great bell, which was then in a large pit. A fire had, about two months before this, burnt down about two-thirds of this great city, and the belfry, being all of timber, ſhared the ſame fate. The bell fell into the bottom of the pit, and had a piece broken out of its edge, large enough to permit any man to go

into it. Its weight is 443,772 pounds, and its height about 21 feet four inches and a half. I then went to the top of a very high tower, called Ivan Veliki, or the Great John. From this tower I had a compleat view of the whole city, which, indeed, made a very grand appearance. The weather being very cold, the Ruſſians heat their ſtoves before day-light, and make uſe of a fire at no time of the day except to get dinner ready; ſo that the view is never but at thoſe times obſtructed by the ſmoak. Upon the top of this tower there are three bells, I think the leaſt of which is larger than the largeſt in London. Under the tower is the ancient imperial palace, a large Gothic ſtone building. All theſe which I have mentioned, and all the imperial ancient archives, and different courts of juſtice, are in that part of the city called the Crimline, which is ſurrounded by a high brick wall, ſaid to be about 2094 paces in circumference."

This quarter is called Cataigorod from Catai, the ancient and Ruſſian name of China, becauſe the chief merchandizes ſold in it come from that country; ſo that the name implies the ſame as the Chineſe city.

The Czargorod, or ducal city, contains, among other buildings, the great arſenal, and is watered by the Negliga, which runs through it, and thence flows into the ditch that ſurrounds the middle city.

The quarter called Skorodom, or Scarodum, is chiefly inhabited by timber-mongers and carpenters, who ſell houſes ready made. Theſe houſes are moveable, ſold very cheap, and in great numbers: and, indeed, conſidering the frequent fires that happen in this city, owing either to drunkenneſs, a reigning vice here, or to the neglect of putting out the candles, which they light to ſome favourite ſaint, in their houſes and chambers, they have need of ſuch a large market to repair to on thoſe occaſions. It is called Scorodum, which, in the Ruſſian language, ſignifies done in haſte, alluding to the ſpeedy raiſing of the mud wall that ſurrounds it.

The Strelitze-Siaboda, formerly the quarter of the ſoldiers, or guards, ſtands on the eaſt and ſouth-eaſt ſide of the Cataigorod and the caſtle: and is itſelf ſurrounded and fortified with wooden ramparts, and divided from the reſt by the river Moſcow; for which reaſon it is ſtiled a ſlaboda, or ſuburb.

Though the houſes of the people in common are poor huts, thoſe of the nobility and opulent, are fine fabricks of brick and ſtone: moſt of them having, on the back part, large courts and gardens, which are ſpacious, in ample order, and ſurrounded with high and ſtrong walls. The ſtreets are not paved with ſtones, but boarded with thick fir planks.

Churches and chapels here, including thoſe that belong to monaſteries, are computed to amount to above 1500. Some of them are very large and ſtately; that, particularly, which is in the Crimline, or grand imperial palace, is a vaſt, ancient building: on the right ſide of the altar is the Czar's throne, and on the left that of the patriarch; and in the body of the church hangs a chandelier of immenſe weight and value. The very jewels, and other coſtly ornaments, that enrich a picture of the Virgin Mary here, are valued at half a ton weight of gold; beſides a vaſt number of chalices, pixes, patins, ſtatues, and other church utenſils of gold and ſilver, finely wrought, and enriched with precious ſtones; a vaſt number of other prieſtly veſtments of great value, and an immenſe quantity of donations and preſents offered to the relicks of three eminent Ruſſian ſaints, which are here interred. So that the treaſure of this church is deemed equal to that of any church in Europe.

The ſuperb church of Saboor is 90 feet in length, hath a ſtately dome, ſupported by four large pillars, and is, though in the ancient ſtyle, magnificent within and without. That of St. Michael is the repoſitory of the dead czars, and of all the royal family of the male ſex. The bodies of the princeſſes of the blood are interred in the ſtately abbey of the nuns, called Tzudoff Monaſtir, in the ſame caſtle, and near the church above-mentioned. The tombs of the princes who never reigned, are in a ſeparate chapel. The palls with which their coffins are covered are ſuperb. Thoſe of the czars eſpecially, are of the fineſt velvet, and have either a maſſy or embroidered golden crucifix upon them, of curious workmanſhip, and enriched with vaſt variety of coſtly ornaments, eſpecially inſcriptions, which are moſtly done with pearls and other precious ſtones.

Monaſteries of men and women are here numerous; and, in general, next to the palaces and noblemen's houſes, ſome of the beſt edifices in the city; the founders of them have ſpared no coſt to adorn them with curious architecture, paintings, gardens, and every thing that is convenient and beautiful. There is one called Dewitze Monaſtir, about a mile out of the city; in which the ambitious princeſs Sophia, who had concerted ſo many plots againſt her brother the czar Peter I. was at length confined, and ended her days. It is ſituated on a ſpacious plain, and hath 300 nuns belonging to it, who lead a very regular life, and never ſtir out of their limits, as ſome others are permitted to do.

Theſe are only allowed, on holidays, to walk on the terraces round their gardens, which are raiſed to a convenient height for them to enjoy the proſpect of the adjacent plain.

Of the monaſtery, church of Jeruſalem, &c. a late traveller gives the following account: "The church, biſhops, prieſts houſes, &c. are all encloſed with high brick walls; the wall, forming one ſide of the biſhop's palace, all built on a beautiful detached hill; having on the eaſt, north, and weſt, the fineſt lawns in the world, through which glides a noble river. In the plain, upon the banks of the river, ſtands the builder's romantic houſe, all built of ſtone. It is quite alone, three ſtories in height, in every one of which are four rooms, except the ground ſtory, where are his kitchen, ſtore-room, and a room for his attendants. The area of each of theſe rooms is but about eight, or at moſt but nine, feet ſquare. In every one is a ſmall ſtove. His bedſtead is of ſtone, as are his bed and pillow. His chairs are of the ſame materials. Every ſtory of his houſe is vaulted; and it is flat on the roof, for the conveniency of taking a view of the country. It has but one entry, and every room receives light from one window of the leaſt ſize. The builder was an hermit, and a religious devotee. The hoſpital is not large, but well provided with every neceſſary but medicine, prayers being (in their opinion) ſufficient to cure all diſeaſes which appear in this holy place. At the weſt end of the church is a moſt capacious cupola. The dome is very magnificent and high, with a gallery which ſurrounds it near the top. The windows are large, and it is well lighted. The walls are all hung round with various pictures of the ſaints, very richly adorned with ſilver, gold, pearls, and precious ſtones; and the altar is very grand, and adorned with various pieces of curious workmanſhip.

The late czar Peter I. founded here three colleges, which he took care to fill up with men well verſed in arts and ſciences, and all kinds of literature, for the poliſhing of the next generation. The firſt is for humanity, rhetoric, and philoſophy; the ſecond for mathematics; and the third for navigation, aſtronomy, and other ſciences ſubſervient to them. In all theſe youth are kept under ſtrict diſcipline, and have, at the ſame time, all due encouragement to excel in their reſpective ſtudies. To theſe the ſame prince added a diſpenſary, which is not only one of the fineſt ſtructures in Moſcow, but one of the beſt furniſhed with all ſorts of medicines, drugs, &c. in Europe. It is put under the care of ſome Germans, who are allowed the beſt maſters in that art, though the moſt ſlovenly in their compoſitions, never ſtudying to pleaſe the eye or taſte in their preſcriptions, as we do in England, but nauſeate their patients by the inelegance of their drugs, which could not poſſibly be taken by the people of any other country.

country. This diſpenſary hath a yearly revenue of 20,000 rubles, to renew their *materia medica*; and furniſhes not only all the army, but likewiſe all the principal cities in the empire with medicines.

We cannot omit to mention, in this place, the foundling hoſpital, founded by the preſent Empreſs, ſupported by voluntary contributions, well endowed and conducted by very judicious regulations. It is a grand pile of building, and contained 300 foundlings ſome few years ago; but their number is, in all probability, much increaſed. The children are taken great care of, and, at the age of fourteen, have the liberty of chooſing any particular branch of trade; and for that purpoſe there are different ſpecies of manufactures eſtabliſhed in the hoſpital. When they have gone through a certain apprenticeſhip, they are allowed the liberty of ſetting up for themſelves. A ſum of money is beſtowed upon each foundling; and they are permitted to carry on trade in any part of the Ruſſian empire. This is a great privilege in Ruſſia, where the peaſants are ſlaves, and cannot leave their villages without the permiſſion of their maſters.

The courts of judicature, cuſtom-houſe, and other offices, are generally large, and built of ſtone, and reſemble gaols, and, indeed, are ſuch in ſome ſenſe; having apartments for debtors, as well as criminals, who are kept there chained up. Juſtice is in general adminiſtered with ſome ſtrictneſs and ſeverity; but the people here being naturally lazy, and given to drinking, the whole city ſwarms with beggars and vagabonds, and moſtly of ſuch a ſturdy breed, that it is dangerous to deny them alms. This makes it very hazardous to walk the ſtreets in the night; for they frequently lurk in corners, with a ſhort truncheon, or bludgeon, in their hands, which they throw at the heads of paſſengers with ſuch dexterity, that they ſeldom fail of knocking them down, after which they rob and murder them, and go off. Theſe diſaſters have happened more frequently on holidays, and eſpecially during the carnival. When a perſon was found murdered, they carried the body to a certain place, where it lay expoſed a day or two; and, if it was not owned, it was flung into a deep large pit, made to ſerve on all ſuch occaſions. On the Whitſuntide holidays, ſome prieſts came thither to ſay maſs for their ſouls.

Murders were formerly ſo frequent in Moſcow, that few nights paſſed without ſome people being found dead in the ſtreets in the morning. The villains went in ſtrong parties, and ſlew before they robbed. This they did with ſo little fear, that they often performed it before the perſon's own door; and the terror of theſe ruffians was ſo great, that none of the neighbours dared aſſiſt the unhappy victim, for fear of being butchered themſelves, or at leaſt having their houſes burnt. This obliged people, who had occaſion to be in the ſtreets in the night, to go in companies together, or have a ſufficient guard of ſervants on horſeback to attend them. The weapon uſed by theſe ruffians was called a *dubien*, which was a long ſtick, with a round knob at one end, and made heavy with iron, with which they ſtruck a man dead at one ſtroke; and if any one of them happened to be taken, a good ſum of money, from the gang they belonged to, would generally get them off.

The highways are alſo much infeſted by theſe *raſbonies*, as they were called, which made it very dangerous travelling in any part of Ruſſia; for they had their ſpies in the towns, who informed them when any perſon was to ſet out on a journey, and how they were to be attended. According to this information they prepared themſelves for an attack, and way-laid them in ſome wood through which they were to paſs.

The writer of this account was informed by a gentleman of rank and veracity, that the Czar himſelf had been attacked in his younger days, in the following manner. Going upon a viſit one evening, attended by two ſervants, the one riding before, and the other ſtanding behind the ſledge, up came a ſledge with eight raſbonies in it, and were juſt going to faſten his ſledge to theirs with a grappling iron, which they commonly uſed on theſe occaſions; but the Czar being then young, ſtout, and vigorous, got up and ſeized one of the robbers by the hair of the head, pulled him out of their ſledge, and keeping his hold, drove out of their reach, dragging the fellow along with him till he reached the houſe of the nobleman he intended to viſit, which he entered all of a ſweat, ſtill holding the fellow by the hair.

When the ruffian underſtood it was the Czar they had attacked, he ſhook and trembled, ſaying, if they had known who he was, they would not have meddled with him; and then begged he might be put to death without being put to the torture. To this his majeſty conſented, on condition that he diſcovered the reſt of his gang; but this he would not do, without a promiſe of his life, and a reward, which was alſo granted him; and he went with a detachment of ſoldiers to the rendezvous of his companions, and coming to the houſe, he called to them to open the door. On hearing his voice they directly opened it; ſo that the ſoldiers ruſhed in, and ſeized not only his ſeven accomplices, but thirteen others of the ſame gang, who were ſoon after all executed, except the informer.

At another time the Czar was attacked on his way from Moſcow to Novogorod, when he was attended by four ſervants only. Going from Tever he was ſtopped by a ſtrong party of raſbonies, on which he immediately jumped out of his ſledge with a ſword drawn in one hand, and a cocked piſtol in the other, and told them he was the Czar, aſking them what they wanted? They replied they were poor fellows, reduced to great want; and as he was their lord and maſter, he was the propereſt perſon to relieve them. He told them he had no money about him; to which they anſwered, if he had they would take none from him; but deſired that he would give them a written order to the governor of Novogorod, for what ſum he pleaſed to beſtow upon them; begging that it might be ſuch as would relieve them from their ſtraits. The Czar then aſked them if 1000 rubles would be ſufficient; and on their ſaying they would, he wrote an order for that ſum, payable at ſight; for which they diſpatched one of their number, who very ſoon returned with the money. They then obliged the Czar to return to Trever, and to pledge his royal word not to proſecute, or even enquire after them; promiſing to amend their lives, and become good ſubjects for the future. Inſtead of proceeding to Novogorod, the Czar returned back to Moſcow.

The city of Moſcow is much decayed from its ancient grandeur and opulence, ſince the building of that of Peterſburg. However, it is full of inhabitants; and all kinds of proviſions are brought to it in great plenty, and ſold very cheap; fiſh being the only dear food, which is occaſioned both by the number of inhabitants, the four lents, and other faſts, that are obſerved by the Ruſſians. This cheapneſs hath ſo far lowered the price of land all about the country, that the nobility and gentry are great ſufferers by it, their eſtates being reduced to little more than one-third of what they formerly brought in, when the city was in its flouriſhing ſtate. The canal, made by the order and direction of the late Peter the Great, to open a communicationbetween this metropolis and his new-built and favourite city of Peterſburg, and, by that means, to the Baltic and German Ocean, is a great and noble work, which hath been ſome time finiſhed; at an immenſe charge and labour, running between two cities, which, in a direct line, ſtand near 90 leagues aſunder. It begins at Peterſburg, on the river Niewa, or Nieva, which empties itſelf into the gulph of Finland, and going up that river quite to the lake of Ladoga, croſſes it at the ſouth end, and enters into the Woltoff, another river, which flows thither from the province of Novogorod. From the capital of that province begins what is properly called the artificial canal, which, paſſing through the territories of Brognitz, Chreſtitz, Chiſolova, Witſchna-Voloſcha, Torſchock, the province of Twere, and the diſtrict of

Kiln,

Kiln, reaches, at length, the city of Moſcow, and enriches it by the vaſt quantities of merchandize that are brought to and from that capital.

There is a very conſiderable manufacture at Moſcow of various hemp fabricks, particularly ſail cloth and ſheeting, which employs ſome thouſands of looms, and many thouſands of people. The hemp is moſt of it brought from the Ukraine. There are alſo great numbers of conſiderable merchants here, who carry on a very extenſive commerce with all parts of the empire; for there is water-carriage from hence to the Black and Caſpian Seas, and with but few interruptions to the Baltic alſo, which are circumſtances that make it the center of a very great commerce.

This city is much better ſituated for the metropolis of the empire than Peterſburg. It is almoſt in the center of the moſt cultivated parts of it; communicating, in the manner above-mentioned, with the three inland ſeas, not at a great diſtance from the moſt important province of the empire, the Ukraine; open to the ſouthern territories on the Black Sea; and, by means of the rivers Wolga and Don, commanding an inland navigation of prodigious extent. Its vicinity alſo to the countries which muſt always be the ſeat of any wars with the Turks, the enemies moſt to be attended to of all thoſe with whom the Ruſſians wage war, upon the whole made it infinitely a better ſituation for the ſeat of government, than that of Peterſburg, which is at the very extremity of the empire, and poſſeſſing few of thoſe advantages. Founding that city, and making it the ſeat of foreign commerce and naval power, was an admirable exertion of genius; but the ſeat of government, in our opinion, ſhould always have been at Moſcow. This city lies in lat. 55. 42. lon. 38. 45. E.

Treytza is a ſmall but handſome town, famed for the ſtately monaſtery of that name, or convent of the Trinity, a ſpacious building, with three large gates, and a noble church, ſtanding in the middle of the ſquare. The abbot here is ſo rich, that he has 60,000 peaſants dependent on him, beſides other revenues. The czars have ſome apartments for themſelves, and a noble palace, ſtrongly fortified. In this monaſtery it was that the late czar Peter I. in his younger days, was forced to retire, to ſecure himſelf from the fury of the Boyard Couzanſki and his Strelitzes, who plundered and murdered all opponents in his metropolis; and from the plots and conſpiracies of his ambitious ſiſter. It ſtands about 40 miles north of Moſcow.

Columna is ſituated near the confines of the duchy of Rezan, on the weſtern ſhore of the river Occa, which divides it from ſlaboda, or ſuburb, on the oppoſite ſide. It is almoſt of a round figure, half a mile in compaſs, well fortified with a ſtone wall, ſix fathoms high, and two thick, and flanked with ſtout and high towers, at the diſtance of 200 paces from each other; but it is now gone to decay, and is almoſt ruined on one ſide. The ſuburb, which is called Colutwina Slaboda, is the place where the merchandizes are expoſed to ſale. The city hath nothing conſiderable in it except the fine ſtately church of the Virgin Mary, and the archiepiſcopal palace; being therefore dignified with the title of an archbiſhopric.

Colomenſko is a ſmall city in the neighbourhood of Moſcow, ſituate on an eminence, from which it yields a beautiful proſpect. Here is a handſome church, with two high towers, and a ſtately monaſtery. It hath two avenues to it over the Moſca, which muſt be croſſed over a float of timber faſtened together, ſo as to be looſened and divided, to give paſſage to the veſſels that go up and down.

Moſaiich is another town ſituated on the ſame river, about nine leagues ſouth-weſt of the city of Moſcow, but not ſo conſiderable at preſent as it was formerly.

The Duchy of Rostow is a rich and plentiful country, and was formerly the firſt duchy in all Ruſſia, next to that of Novogorod. It was governed by its own dukes, till the czar Iwan Baſilowitz put the laſt of them to death, and ſeized on this territory, anno 1564. It was afterwards aſſigned for the maintenance of the Czarowitz, or heir apparent. Roſtow abounds with corn, fruit, herbs, game, &c. The capital, called Roſtow, is a large town and metropolitan ſee, ſituated on the lake Roſtow, from whence iſſues the ſmall river Cobris, or Kolſpar, which runs into the Volga. This city ſtands about 120 miles to the north of Moſcow, and contains ſome elegant ſtone churches.

Uglitz, ſituated on the Volga, about 80 miles to the weſtward of Roſtow, is celebrated for the excellency of the bread made in it. It was here that the young prince Demetrius, ſon of the czar Iwan Baſilowitz, was murdered by order of his brother-in-law, Trederowitz Gadenaw, during a tumult, which was occaſioned by a conflagration made on purpoſe, and the murderer uſurped the throne.

Chlopigorod was formerly a place of conſiderable trade, but is now gone to decay.

Periſlaw is a large populous town, ſtanding at an equal diſtance from Moſcow and Roſtow. The other towns and villages are known by the names of Mologe, Semebratoff, Guo, Imbilowa-Nova, and Baſma-Nova; but none of them contain any thing remarkable.

The Duchy of Yeroslawla is exceeding fertile, abounds with corn, cattle, and honey, and is watered by the Volga, which runs through the heart of it.

The capital, Yeroſlowla, is a ſtrong, well fortified, large, populous city, containing 40,000 inhabitants. It is about 36 miles to the northward of Roſtow, and has a conſiderable trade in corn, cattle, leather, honey, &c. The other towns of this diſtrict are Roma-Nova, and Dorneloſke; but neither of them contain any thing worthy of obſervation.

The Duchy of Bielejesora is a very ſmall province, nearly circular, and derives its name from a lake called Biele-Ozoro, or the White Lake, which is 40 miles long, and 20 broad, and on the banks of which ſtands the capital of the ſame name. The whole is ſo much encumbered with lakes, fens, bogs, woods, &c. that the roads, in general, are uſeleſs, except in the winter, when the froſt renders them paſſable. There is plenty of fiſh all over the province, and ſome parts afford corn and paſture.

The capital, Biele-Ozoro, or Belozera, is ſtrongly fortified, hath an important caſtle, and is ſurrounded by the waters of the before mentioned lake. Upon the whole, it is a large and populous place.

The Duchy of Vologda is large, woody, mountainous, full of lakes, fens, and abounds with fiſh and game, but is deſtitute of moſt other kinds of proviſions.

Vologda, the capital of this province, ſituated on both ſides of the river of the ſame name, is a capacious, populous, and commercial place, as, beſides natives, many Engliſh, Dutch, and other merchants reſide in it. This city is one of the moſt ancient Ruſſian archiepiſcopal ſees, ſituate near 230 miles to the northward of Moſcow, ſurrounded by a ſtone wall, and defended by a ſtrong fortreſs. The ſtreets are open and regular, the houſes handſome, and the markets well furniſhed, every commodity being ſold in a peculiar quarter. The river is broad and navigable, and the cathedral magnificent: beſides which here are 20 ſtone and 43 wooden churches, three nunneries, with an elegant chapel appertaining to each, &c.

Dwinitza, ſituated on a river of the ſame name, which falls into the Vologda, is a ſmall but well-peopled town. On the river Vologda are likewiſe two other inconſiderable towns, named Sooſka and Strelitz.

The Province of Cargapol has no town except Cargapol, which is ſituated on the weſtern banks of the river Onega. The people are exceedingly rude and barbarous. The diſtrict of Wiga, and Onega, contiguous to it, are barren and thinly peopled.

The province of Dwina is of great extent, being near 300 miles in length, and in form of a rhombus.

The city of Archangel, or St. Michael the archangel, is advantageouſly ſituated on the eaſt ſide of the Dwina, which falls into the White Sea, 18 miles below

low it. The houſes are moſtly of modern architecture, the builders ſeeming to have had in view thoſe excellent maxims of deſign, which our inimitable poet Pope hath thus elegantly verſified:

To build, to plant, whatever you intend;
To rear the column, or the arch to bend;
To ſwell the terrace, or to ſink the grot;
In all, let nature never be forgot:
But treat the goddeſs like a modeſt fair;
Nor over dreſs, nor leave her wholly bare:
Let not each beauty ev'ry where be ſpy'd,
Where half the ſkill is decently to hide.
He gains all points, who pleaſingly confounds,
Surprizes, varies, and conceals the bounds.

The moſt conſiderable edifice here is the palace, or hall, built of large ſquare ſtones, after the Italian manner, divided into three parts; in one of which the merchants, both Ruſſian and foreign, have large and convenient apartments, for themſelves and their wares: but after the ſhips are ſailed away, which they commonly do in October, they are obliged to remove to other lodgings. This palace is a large ſtately building, with a ſpacious court before it, which reaches quite to the river. The courts of juſtice, both civil and criminal, are held in it, in their proper apartments. The citadel, where the governor reſides, is built after the Ruſſian manner, and ſurrounded with wooden fences, which reach alſo quite to the river. In it are a vaſt number and variety of ſhops, where the Ruſſians ſtore up their merchandizes againſt the fair. Here is plenty of proviſions, as fleſh, fowl of all ſorts, eſpecially wild, and fiſh in great variety. Theſe are ſold extraordinary cheap, particularly partridges, which commonly ſell at about 3d. or 4d. per brace; of which here are two kinds; one like the common ſort; and the other, which turn white in the winter, and reſume their natural colour in ſummer.

The foundation of the commerce of Archangel was laid by the Engliſh in the year 1553; and the advantages reaped from the Ruſſian trade, induced other nations to reſort thither. The gradual increaſe and proſperity, however, of Peterſburgh, cauſed this city to decline in the ſame proportion. Archangel is the ſee and reſidence of a Ruſſian archbiſhop. Our geographers give its lat. 64 deg. 36 min. long. 40 deg. 5 min. eaſt.

St. Nicholas, a ſea-port town upon the White Sea, is inconſiderable, and the trade trifling.

Colmogorod is a conſiderable town, and the ſee of a Ruſſian archbiſhop.

Nova Dwinſka is a ſtrong fortreſs, built to defend the mouth of the new canal, or moſt northern mouth of the Dwina, on the White Sea. It hath a large wooden bridge over that river, with a draw-bridge in the middle, wide enough for two veſſels to paſs a-breaſt.

Sottotiza is a very conſiderable and populous city, and inhabited by many wealthy merchants and curious mechanics. Near this place is a territory of 70 German miles in extent, named Wolloſtuſgy, inhabited by men of a different language, and ſuppoſed to have come from Livonia. They are civilized, and Chriſtians of the Greek church.

EASTERN MUSCOVY, or RUSSIA.

THIS third diviſion of the Ruſſian empire contains the following provinces.

MEZZEN is a long track of land, narrow, barren, woody, fenny, mountainous, and cold. The chief town, called Mezzen, and the few villages which this province contains, are wretched places; and, indeed, the whole region is gloomy and uncomfortable.

The frozen earth lies buried here below
A hilly heap, ſeven cubits deep in ſnow.
The ſun from far peeps with a ſickly face,
Too weak the clouds and mighty fogs to chaſe,
When up the ſkies he ſhoots his roſy head,
Or in the ruddy ocean ſeeks his bed.
Swift rivers are with ſudden ice conſtrain'd,
And ſtudded wheels are on their rocks ſuſtain'd.
The brazen cauldrons with the froſt are flaw'd;
The garments ſtiff with ice at hearths are thaw'd;
From locks uncomb'd, and from the frozen beard,
Long icicles depend, and cracking ſounds are heard.

JUGORA, or JUGORSKI, is a very large territory. Its ſituation is cold enough to make the land barren and uncultivated; ſo that the country is moſtly overrun with foreſts, and covered with lakes and bogs. It hath abundance of rivers.

CONDORA is a large province, with the title of duchy; but ſo boggy, woody, and mountainous, that it deſerves no farther deſcription.

TEESCA is a ſmall territory, and hath but one town worth naming, viz. Gorodiſche, which ſtands on a ſmall river, that falls about 10 leagues below it into the gulph of Teeſca.

PETZORA is a vaſt territory, extending itſelf from the lake Petzerſkie, on the ſouthernmoſt part of it, quite to the northern or Frozen Ocean; that is, from the 63d to almoſt the 70th degree of north latitude. Petzora, ſituated upon the river of the ſame name, about 30 leagues from the ſea, is but a ſmall place, and ſuppoſed to have been formerly called Puſte Oſoro, from ſome golden mines, or ſands, that fell from thoſe Obian mountains into that river. The cold is ſo exceſſive here, that the rivers are frozen about eight months in the year. They begin to thaw in the month of May, and to freeze again in Auguſt.

The other towns in this province are wholly inconſiderable.

VOGULIZA. South of the province laſt named, are ſeated the Vogulizi, called alſo Vogulitzi, Vogolſkoi, and Vogolitzes. They are a rude, ſavage, uncultivated people; ſo that their religion, cuſtoms, and manners, are, of courſe, extremely vague and abſurd. They go dreſſed much like the Ruſſian peaſants; and bury the dead in their beſt cloaths, together with ſome money. As there is little corn comes to perfection in their country, they live chiefly upon the milk of their cattle, and ſuch game as they kill. They marry as many wives as they can maintain, which they buy of their parents: but they are very ſcrupulous of marrying within certain forbidden degrees of conſanguinity.

They have neither cities nor towns, but villages made up of huts, of a conic figure, with a hearth in the middle, and a hole at the top, to let the ſmoak out; which hole, however, they cover with a thin tranſparent piece of ice, to let ſome light into their huts, as ſoon as their fewel is burnt to a coal. When a woman is near the end of pregnancy, ſhe is obliged to go into a private hut reared on purpoſe for her, and to live in it ſeparate from her huſband. The men ſhoot elks, fallow deer, and other game. They live quiet under the Ruſſian government, and pay their tribute in ſkins and furs. This country reaches from 62 deg. 30 min. to almoſt 63 deg. of north latitude.

PERMIA, or PERMESKY, is one of the largeſt provinces of the Ruſſian empire; but it is far from being conſiderable in proportion to its extent. The moſt remarkable river is the Kama, which receives ſeveral others, and ſprings from that long chain of mountains which part it from Siberia, and extend themſelves from the kingdom of Cazan quite to the Frozen Sea, that is from 55 to almoſt 70 deg. of lat. Beſides this ridge, the country abounds with many more, as well as lakes; ſo that its ſoil is ſo far from being fertile, that the inhabitants are obliged to eat peas, beans, and other pulſe, inſtead of bread. They differ likewiſe much from the nations around them in other reſpects, as in their cuſtoms, religion, &c. and have a language peculiar to themſelves. They are ſubject to the Ruſſians, and pay their tribute in horſes, and ſeveral kinds of furs. The chief town is

Perma Velikaia, or the Great City, which ſeems to intimate ſomething large and conſiderable: but moſt authors, that have ſpoken of it, mention it as a place of little note.

OUSTIOUG, or USTIUG, which takes its name from its capital, is not only ſmall, but barren, a great part being covered with vaſt and impenetrable woods. Theſe harbour ſuch a prodigious number of black foxes, that their furs are one of the chief commodities of this country. The chief town is Ouſtioug, Uſtiug, or Uſt Jugh. It is an archiepiſcopal ſee of the Ruſſian church, and hath ſeveral neat churches built of white ſtone, the cupolas and ſpires of which are covered over with tin. The other churches, as well as the houſes, are built of wood. The archiepiſcopal palace, which is a large building, and the beſt edifices in this city, are on the weſt ſide of the river Suchand. The other part of it, over the water, is leſs conſiderable, but extends itſelf along the ſide of it, in form of a creſcent, a league in length, and a quarter in breadth. It is chiefly noted for a yearly fair for the ſale of fox-ſkins, and other furs.

ZIRANIA, a long, deſert, woody track of land, deſerves rather the name of a foreſt than of a province, there being but few ſpots inhabited, in compariſon of the vaſt and impenetrable woods that ſpread themſelves over it, and breed innumerable quantities of wild beaſts. The people, who are here ſcattered in villages, or groups of huts, are fierce, brutiſh, and untractable: they live upon the game they kill, and pay their tribute in furs, with which they make cloathing for themſelves, and covering for their houſes. The reſt they ſell and exchange to the beſt advantage they can.

VAITKA, or VIATKA, has the title of a duchy, and is the laſt province in that we call Eaſtern Moſcovy, or Ruſſia. It is moſtly woody, marſhy, and barren; yet yields ſome honey, wax, and furs. It was conquered from the Tartars by the czar Iwan Baſilowitz. It is watered by the river of its name, which ſprings a little above the town of Sextanoff, or Seſtakoff, and, running through that, and ſeveral other towns, falls into the Kama. This laſt runs through another part of the country, and falls into the Volga a little above Cazan.

Viatka, the chief town of this duchy, hath little or nothing worth notice, except its biſhop's ſee, and a ſtout caſtle, built by the czar above mentioned, to ſuppreſs the incurſions of the Scheremiſſe Tartars. There are two high roads that lead from hence to Moſcow; the one through Caſtroma and Galicz, the other through Uſtiug. The former is much the ſhorter, but the moſt troubleſome and dangerous, on account of the vaſt marſhes that muſt be croſſed, and of the Scheremiſſe free-booters that infeſt thoſe parts.

Colcinitz is rather a conſiderable town, ſituated near the confines of the kingdom of Cazan, or Caſan: and Sladboda, another town, ſtands more to the north-weſt, on the borders of the Scheremiſſe Tartars. Beſides the above, this province includes Clinow, Orow, and Kaigorod, all fortified after the Ruſſian manner.

CAZAN, or CASAN, was formerly governed by its own monarchs, who were formidable and opulent, till the czar Baſilowitz ſubdued the greateſt part of it; and his ſon, Iwan Baſilowitz, compleated the conqueſt of the whole in the year 1554. Cazan has been always conſidered as a valuable acquiſition to Ruſſia; this country being watered by the great rivers Volga and Kama, which increaſe the natural fertility of the ground, and enrich the whole country by means of commerce.

Cazan, or Cazanum, the capital, is a capacious and populous city, the ſeat of a Ruſſian metropolitan, and contains many churches and monaſteries. But the houſes, and even the ramparts and towers, are all built with wood. The caſtle, however, is of ſtone; and the river, by ſurrounding it, forms an excellent foſſe; the whole being amply furniſhed with artillery, ammunition, &c. and well ſecured by a Ruſſian garriſon. At a little diſtance from the city, a large commodious dock, for ſhip-building, is ſituated at the confluence of the Volga and Caſanka. Cazan is well ſupplied, both by land and water, with all kinds of proviſions. Wine and fruits are brought hither from Turkey; various commodities, beſides groceries, from Moſcow; teas from China; and iron and furs from Siberia and Tartary. The ſituation is admirable for commerce, which is carried on not only with the abovementioned places, but with Perſia, and other parts of the eaſt. Large quantities of Ruſſia leather, bark for tanning, timber for ſhip-building, &c. are annually ſent hence to Peterſburg, and other parts of Ruſſia.

The other towns in this province contain nothing worthy of deſcription.

BULGARIA, formerly called Horda, or the region of Zavolina, was anciently inhabited by the Bulgaras, who made an irruption into thoſe parts from Aſia, and conferred their name on this country.

Here it is proper to obſerve that Bulgaria is divided into Little and Great. Little Bulgaria is ſituated on the ſouthern coaſts of the Danube, belongs to the Turks, having been conquered by Amurath II. and forms part of Turkey in Europe. Great Bulgaria, now under conſideration, was ſubdued by the Moſcovite czars, and now is an appendage of the Ruſſian empire.

This kingdom is watered by ſeveral rivers. Near its center are the deſarts of Uſa; on the eaſtern confines the mountains of Caf, which yield great quantities of iron, as well as ſome excellent cryſtals; and, towards the ſouthern ſide, the great lake Kerghewl. The ſoil is tolerably fertile, and many parts of the country populous.

Bulgar, or Bulgara, the capital, is ſituated on the Volga, and deemed a conſiderable city.

Samara, on the banks of a river of the ſame name, which diſembogues itſelf into the Volga, is built on the declivity of a mountain, and the ſuburbs ſtretch along the river. The place is large, but poor and mean: the houſes, walls, fortifications, &c. being all built of timber. This city was erected in one month, by 30,000 men, ſent thither, for that purpoſe, by Peter the Great. The work was directed by Prince Galitzin; and the place is an excellent check upon the Tartars, Coſſacks, &c. Near Samara are the ruins of Sunbeſka, which was deſtroyed by Tamerlane the Great: and we are informed, by an eminent voyager, that going aſhore, at no great diſtance from hence, he aſcended a mountain where formerly ſtood the city of Abuchim, and there diſcovered a ſtone with an inſcription, which a Ruſſian interpreted for him, and was to this effect; "Whoſoever thou art, if thou haſt ſtrength enough to "turn me, thou wilt make thy fortune." From this intimation, he and his company, expecting to find ſome hidden treaſure, immediately moved it from its place, and, on the other ſide, found another inſcription importing, "This is not the firſt time thou haſt taken "great pains to little purpoſe."

RUSSIAN LAPLAND.

HAVING already preſented a general deſcription of Lapland, as to the country, inhabitants, cuſtoms, manners, &c. as well as obſerved, that it is divided into three diſtinct ſovereignties, namely, thoſe of Denmark, Sweden, and Ruſſia, it remains for us, under the laſt article, to give a brief geographical account of that part which is diſtinguiſhed by the appellation of Ruſſian Lapland, referring our readers for other particulars to the general deſcription.

Ruſſian Lapland is bounded on the north by the Northern Ocean, on the eaſt and ſouth by the White Sea, and on the weſt by Daniſh Lapland. It is further divided into three parts, according to their ſituation. One is called Leporia Mouremanſkoi, or Maritime Leporia; Terrſkoi, or Inland Leporia; and Bellamoureſkoi Leporia.

The whole territory of Leporia Mouremanſkoi is barren, woody, and mountainous; the air extremely cold; the inhabitants rude and ignorant; and, in general,

neral, the country is much like the Swediſh and Daniſh Lapland formerly ſpoken of. Moſt of the iſlands, cities, and towns, ſtand on the ſea-coaſts. The only obſervation worthy of mentioning concerning any of them is, that there are, in ſome of them, ancient monaſteries; and that the rivers contiguous abound with fiſh, and particularly ſalmon.

Terrſkoi Leporia, or inland part of the Ruſſian Lapland, is almoſt ſurrounded with the ſea, and is the land that makes the gulph of the White Sea. It is no leſs woody and barren than the reſt; and the chief town in it is Warſiga, ſituated on the ſouth coaſt, over-againſt Archangel.

Bellamoureſkoi Leporia lies at the bottom of the above mentioned gulph, called the White Sea, and, like the reſt, is cold, barren, and thinly inhabited. The chief town is Soma, ſituated at the very entrance into the Ruſſian Lapland, on the White Sea.

NOVA ZEMBLA.

NOVA Zembla was a name given to this new diſcovered track, which, in the Ruſſian language, ſignifies New Land. It is ſeparated from the northern part of Ruſſia by the ſtrait called Veigatz, or Wygatz, which lies in north lat. 70 deg. The land that forms this ſtrait is a promontory, advancing ſouthward from the main country, which is ſuppoſed to extend itſelf much farther north. It was long doubted whether this country joined to the continent of Greenland on the weſt, or of Tartary on the eaſt; but it is now known to be an extenſive iſland.

Nova Zembla was firſt diſcovered by the Engliſh, anno 1553, when captain Hugh Willoughby ſailed thither with three veſſels, and advanced from the north cape of Finmark as far north as the 72d deg. of lat. where he thought he had deſcried this land; but being obliged, through ſtreſs of weather, to put into a port of Lapland, he there periſhed with cold, with all his company. Captain Burroughs ſailed in ſearch of it three years after, and having doubled the above mentioned cape, diſcovered the ſtrait of Wygatz, between the ſouth part of Nova Zembla, and the north coaſt of Samoieda. Since that time it hath been often viſited, both by Dutch and Engliſh, in hopes of finding out the north-eaſt paſſage; but the coldneſs of the climate, and the mountains of ſnow which covered that whole country, prevented their making any great diſcoveries. Some Dutchmen wintered there, anno 1596; but found the cold ſo exceſſive, that they, with great difficulty, kept themſelves alive till the next ſummer. They ſaw no ſun from January 4 to June 24; during which long and dark interval they had no light, but what the moon gave them from the firſt to the laſt quarter, in which ſhe ſhone by day as well as night.

The account they gave of it is, that ſome parts of that country is inhabited by a people of low ſtature, who are idolaters and barbarous. The attempts made afterwards by Barentz, a Hollander, by Hudſon, Wood, and Flaws, proved likewiſe of little or no conſequence to the public, and of deſtructive conſequence to themſelves. Wood, indeed, made ſome remarks, which gave him reaſon to think there was a paſſage between this country and that of Greenland. Nova Zembla he repreſents as the moſt forlorn ſpot in all the world, the greateſt part of which is laid under ſnow and ice; and that where there are neither of theſe, nothing preſents itſelf to the view but diſmal quagmires, covered with moſs, and ſome blue and yellow flowers. Upon digging two or three feet into the earth, they found the ice as hard as marble, which ſhews how vain it would be to attempt to winter there in caves dug under ground. In other northern countries the ice and ſnow is obſerved to melt much ſooner on the ſea-coaſts than in the inland parts; but here it proves the reverſe; and the ſea, which beats againſt mountains of it of a prodigious height, hath ſo undermined it, that it ſeems to hang in the air, and diſcovers ſuch monſtrous chaſms, as cannot be beheld without horror.

The country, ſo far as our author had an opportunity to view it, breeds ſome ſorts of wild creatures, ſuch as large white bears, foxes, ſome ſmall creatures like rabbits, larger than rats, large penguins, &c. The penguin is of the ſize of a gooſe, and the feathers are ſomewhat like hairs, and of an aſh colour. The wings are very ſhort in proportion to the body, the bill is black, and the legs are of a bright green. They keep in the water all the day, where they feed upon fiſh. As they cannot fly, they cannot ſhun their enemies, except by leaping along, which they do pretty well by the help of their ſhort wings. However, this bird is active upon the water, and ſeems to be very ſkilful in catching its food. When the ſun begins to ſet, they retire to the rocks near the ſea, where they continue till morning, at which time they are eaſily taken. They build their neſts upon the rocks, on the craggy points, to which theſe birds can get up very eaſily. Their eggs are very good; but the fleſh has a diſagreeable fiſhy taſte, and is never eaten but in caſes of great neceſſity. It is worthy of remark, that the bird penguin, which is not only common to theſe northern parts, but likewiſe in ſeveral countries in North America, is every where known by the ſame name, with little or no variation; and that the word penguin, in the Celtic, and in our preſent Welſh, ſignifies, a white head, as that bird actually hath. This, together with ſome great affinity which is found in many of the radical words, and proper names, uſed by thoſe diſtant regions, confirms a curious conjecture of the authors of the Univerſal Hiſtory, which is, that the deſcendants of Gomer, the eldeſt ſon of Japhet, were not only the firſt peoplers of Europe, even in its remoteſt parts, but have preſerved their ancient language more than any other nation we know of, except the Chineſe.

The ſouthern part has been ſince found to be inhabited by a ſquat, ſwarthy ſort of people, who cloath themſelves with ſeal-ſkins, or with the ſkin of the bird penguin, with the feathers outward. They live upon what game or fiſh they catch. They worſhip the ſun and moon; and have ſome little wooden idols, in human ſhape, but monſtrouſly carved, or rather notched.

The various romantic tales, and manifeſt abſurdities, advanced by many of the Dutch voyagers, the ridiculous relations of Ferdinand Mendez and Pinto, and the improbable ſtories of Sir John Mandeville, gave riſe to a *witty and ingenious ſatire*, written by the celebrated Sir Richard Steele, and publiſhed in the Tatler, as if from a manuſcript of Sir John Mandeville. The ſcene being founded in Nova Zembla, the humour being admirable, and the ſatire pointed againſt all voyagers and travellers who attempt to impoſe upon the public, we ſhall make an extract from it without farther apology.

The relation being in the firſt perſon, as if Sir John Mandeville was the narrator, the words are, "We were ſeparated by a ſtorm, in the latitude of 73, inſomuch that only the ſhip in which I ſailed, with a Dutch and French veſſel, got ſafe into a creek of Nova Zembla. We landed in order to refit our veſſel, and ſtore ourſelves with proviſions. The crew of each veſſel made themſelves a cabin of turf and wood at ſome diſtance from each other, to fence themſelves againſt the inclemencies of the weather, which was ſevere beyond imagination. We ſoon obſerved, that, in talking to one another, we loſt ſeveral of our words, and could not hear one another at above two yards diſtance, and that too when we ſat very near the fire. After much perplexity, I found that our words froze in the air, before they could reach the ears of the perſon to whom they were ſpoken. I was ſoon confirmed in the conjecture, when, upon the increaſe of the cold, the whole company grew dumb, or rather deaf; for every man was ſenſible, as we afterwards found, that he ſpoke as well as ever; but the ſounds no ſooner took air, than they were condenſed and loſt. It was now a miſerable

ſpectacle,

ſpectacle, to ſee us nodding and gaping at one another; every man talking, and no man heard. One might obſerve a ſeaman that could hail a ſhip at a league's diſtance, beckoning with his hand, ſtraining with his lungs, and tearing his throat, but all in vain.

"We continued here three weeks in this diſmal plight. At length, upon a turn of wind, the air about us began to thaw. Our cabin was immediately filled with a dry clattering ſound, which I afterwards found to be the crackling of conſonants that broke above our heads, and were often mixed with a gentle hiſſing, which I imputed to the letter *S* that occurs ſo frequent in the Engliſh tongue. I ſoon after felt a breeze of whiſpers ruſhing by my ear; for thoſe being of a ſoft and gentle ſubſtance, immediately liquified in the warm wind that blew acroſs our cabin. Theſe were ſoon followed by ſyllables and ſhort words, and at length by entire ſentences, and melted ſooner or later, as they were more or leſs congealed; ſo that we now heard every thing that had been ſpoken during the whole three weeks that we had been ſilent, if I may uſe that expreſſion. It was now very early in the morning, and yet, to my ſurprize, I heard ſomebody ſay, *Sir John, it is midnight, and time for the ſhip's crew to go to bed.* This I knew to be the pilot's voice; and, upon recollecting myſelf, I concluded, that he had ſpoken theſe words to me ſome days before, though I could not hear them till the preſent thaw. My reader will eaſily imagine how the whole crew was amazed, to hear every man talking, and ſee no man open his mouth. In the midſt of this great ſurprize we were all in, we heard a volley of oaths and curſes, laſting for a long while, and uttered in a very hoarſe voice, which I knew belonged to the boatſwain, who was a very choleric fellow, and had taken this opportunity of curſing and ſwearing at me, when he thought I could not hear him; for I had ſeveral times given him the ſtrappado on that account, as I did not fail to repeat for theſe his pious ſoliloquies when I got him on ſhipboard.

"I muſt not omit the names of ſeveral beauties in Wapping, which we heard every now and then in the midſt of a long ſigh that accompanied them; as Dear Kate! Pretty Mrs. Peggy! When ſhall I ſee my Sue again? This betrayed ſeveral amours which had been concealed till that time, and furniſhed us with a great deal of mirth in our return to England.

"When this confuſion of voices was pretty well over, though I was afraid to offer at ſpeaking, as fearing I ſhould not be heard, I purpoſed a viſit to the Dutch cabin, which lay about a mile farther up in the country. My crew were extremely rejoiced to find they had again recovered their hearing, though every man uttered his voice with the ſame apprehenſions that I had done,

"And, try'd his tongue, his ſilence ſoftly broke."

"At about half a mile's diſtance from our cabin, we heard the groanings of a bear, which at firſt ſtartled us; but, upon our enquiry, we were informed by ſome of our company that he was dead, and now lay in ſalt, having been killed upon the very ſpot about a fortnight before, in the time of the froſt. Not far from the ſame place, we were likewiſe entertained with ſome poſthumous ſnarls and barkings of a fox."

With reſpect to thoſe parts of the Ruſſian empire ſituated in Aſia, viz. Siberia, Kamtſchatka, Samoieda, Aſtrachan, together with the Kalmuc, Uſbec, Crim, Leſgee, and ſeveral other inferior tribes of Tartars, the reader will be furniſhed with an ample account of them by referring to our deſcription of that quarter of the globe, which forms the firſt diviſion of our work.

Thoſe countries diſmembered from Poland, and annexed to the dominions of Ruſſia, will be treated of under our deſcription of the former, on which occaſion we ſhall conſider every material circumſtance and tranſaction relative thereunto.

SECTION III.

Perſons of the Ruſſians, their different Ranks, Vaſſalage, Dreſs, Habitations, Manner of Living, Cuſtoms, Amuſements, Religion, Ceremonies Baptiſmal, Matrimonial, Funeral, &c.

THE Ruſſians are, for the moſt part, of the middle ſtature, though many of them are tall and comely. Their teeth are remarkably good; their hair, in general, is black; and their complexions ruddy. The ſeverity of the climate, which produces a dry and ſharp air, diſpoſes them, in general, to a robuſt conſtitution, and enables them to undergo great hardſhips.

The women are commonly well made, excluſive of their legs, which, as well as their feet, are always large. Their countenances are, in general, agreeable; and their eyes black and languiſhing.

Before the time of Peter the Great, the Ruſſians were ſavage and ignorant in the extreme; but that wiſe prince, by incredible application, and a proper mixture of ſeverity and mildneſs, wrought ſo happy a change in their manners, as, in ſome meaſure, ſet them on a level with the more civilized nations of Europe; and his efforts have been happily ſeconded by ſucceeding monarchs, of which the effects have been evident to demonſtration.

The court nobility, from the great connections they have had, of late years, with the moſt civilized European ſtates, ſeem totally to have emerged from their barbariſm into the height of elegance and politeneſs; and the young Ruſſian nobility, at preſent, are much improved by ſtudies of taſte, and a propenſity to travel.

The people of Ruſſia, like thoſe of moſt other countries, are of different ranks and orders, as princes, nobility, gentry, commonalty, &c. and theſe have their reſpective ſub-diviſions; but it is to be obſerved, that, of late years, the military rank ſuperſedes every thing, and now regulates every degree of precedency, whatever may be the rank or claſs of perſons.

The Ruſſian nobility exerciſe a moſt tyrannical power over the common people, and eſpecially over the peaſants, who are kept in a ſtate of abject ſlavery, being deemed the property of the nobles, to whom they belong, as much as their horſes and dogs. Indeed, the wealth of a great man in Ruſſia, is not eſtimated by the extent of land he poſſeſſes, or the quantity of grain he can bring to market, but by the number of his ſlaves. Every ſlave pays about a ruble (4os.) yearly to his owner; and if he be in the way of making money, the tribute is augmented. In general, every Ruſſian nobleman allots to the peaſants, that belong to him, a certain portion of land, to be cultivated by them; the produce of which, excepting what ſuffices for their own maintenance is paid to the proprietor. In fact, a Ruſſian peaſant has no property; as every thing he poſſeſſes, even the miſerable raiment that ſhelters him from the cold, may be ſeized by his maſter as his own.

The owner has alſo the power of ſelling his ſlaves, or hiring their labour, to other perſons. He may alſo inflict on his ſlaves whatever puniſhment he pleaſes, and for any ſort of offence. It is againſt the law, indeed, to put any of them to death; yet it ſometimes happens, that a poor ſlave dies of the wounds he receives from a paſſionate and unrelenting ſuperior.

Another hardſhip to which the Ruſſian peaſants are expoſed is, that they are obliged to marry whatever perſon, or at what time, their ſuperiors pleaſe. Every ſlave, who is a father, pays a certain tax to his owner for each of his children; and the owner is therefore ſolicitous that a new progeny be raiſed as ſoon as poſſible.

The condition of thoſe peaſants, who are immediate ſlaves of the crown, is deemed leſs wretched than that of

Engraved for BANKES's New System of GEOGRAPHY Published by Royal Authority.

RUSSIAN DRESSES.

1a Boorthat sells Live Fish 2a. Market Woman of Orcha 3a. Market Woman of Moscow.

Tookey sculp.

RUSSIAN DRESSES

1 a Peasants Wife 2 a Peasant 3 a Fortune Teller

Engraved for BANKES's *New System of* GEOGRAPHY *Published by Royal Authority.*

RUSSIAN WOMEN.

1 a Woman of Livonia 2 a Woman of Ingria 3 Winter Dress of a Woman of Petersburgh.

Grignion sculp.

RUSSIAN WOMEN.

1 a Woman of Tobolsky 2 a Woman of Moscow 3 a Woman of Archangel.

of thoſe who belong to the nobility; and they are of three kinds. The firſt are thoſe who have, either ſecretly, or by the favour of a human ſuperior, been able to procure as much money as may enable them to purchaſe their freedom; and have alſo the good fortune to live under a ſuperior who is equitable enough to free them for the ſum they offer. Such perſons, and their children, are for ever after immediate ſlaves to the crown. On the ſame footing are all prieſts, and their children; though the dependance of the inferior on the ſuperior clergy, is ſometimes as grievous as the moſt painful bondage. Soldiers, alſo, and their children, (and this claſs includes the whole body of the nobility,) are immediate ſlaves of the crown.

According to travellers in general, the Ruſſian peaſants have no name. Indeed, as they have nothing but bondage to tranſmit to their children, ſuch diſtinction is uſeleſs. The moſt common Chriſtian names among them are Gregory, Stephen; Ivan, which they tranſlate John; Vaſili, which they tranſlate William; with others manifeſtly derived from their neighbours in the ſouth. If there are ſeveral of a name, they are diſtinguiſhed by taking the name of their father, compounded with the words which, in their language, ſignify ſon or daughter. Thus Ivan Petrowitz, ſignifies Ivan, the ſon of Peter; and Anna Ivanowna, ſignifies Anna, the daughter of Ivan.

Such is the ſlavery in which the Muſcovites of both ſexes are kept by their parents, their patrons, and the emperor, that they are not allowed to diſpute any match that may be provided for them by theſe directors, howſoever diſagreeable or odious it may be. Officers of the greateſt rank in the army, both natives and foreigners, have been ſaddled with wives by the ſovereign in this arbitrary manner. A great general lately deceaſed, who was a native of Britain, having been preſſed by the late czarina to wed one of her ladies, ſaved himſelf from a very diſagreeable marriage, by pretending his conſtitution was ſo unſound, that the lady would be irreparably injured by his compliance.

The Ruſſians are brought up with ſuch high notions of their ſovereigns, and of a blind implicit obedience they owe to them, as the only perſons who have ſenſe enough to diſtinguiſh between right and wrong, that they never diſpute their will in any thing, except where they attempt, as the czar Peter did, an innovation in their religion or cuſtoms, which they cannot but look upon as an impeachment of the wiſdom of their anceſtors who had eſtabliſhed them. In all other caſes they are ſo prepoſſeſſed with the notion of their unerring wiſdom and knowledge, as well as of their own ignorance and imperfection that it is a common ſaying with them, in all dubious caſes, "God and the Czar alone know." The very nobility dare not come near the throne without fear and trembling. They are baniſhed into Siberia for the ſlighteſt political intrigue; and their poſſeſſions being confiſcated, one whole family thus falls a victim to the artful inſinuations of the courtier. The mutual diſtruſt in which people live in Ruſſia, and the total ſilence of the nation upon every thing which may have the leaſt relation either to the government or the ſovereign, ariſes chiefly from the privilege every Ruſſian has, without diſtinction, of crying out in public, *ſlowe dielo*, that is to ſay, I declare you guilty of high treaſon both in words and actions. All the bye-ſtanders are then obliged to aſſiſt in taking up the perſon accuſed: a father arreſts his ſon, the ſon his father, and nature ſuffers in ſilence. The accuſer and accuſed are both conveyed immediately to priſon, and afterwards to St. Peterſburg, where they are tried by the ſecret court of chancery.

The dreſſes of the Ruſſians are adapted to their reſpective ranks. That of the generality of the better ſort reſembles, in a conſiderable degree, the habits worn in the more ſouthern parts of Europe. Some, indeed, at a diſtance from the capital, retain the old dreſs, as well as the cuſtom of wearing a long beard. The women of rank generally wear a looſe gown like a domino; and both ſexes love to appear fine, and conſequently dreſs as rich as the very extent of their circumſtances will admit. They uſe paint in general, married women as well as young girls, deeming red the moſt ornamental colour they can poſſibly bear. Nay, ſuch is their fondneſs for red, that the word denoting it in the Ruſſian language, is ſynonimous with beautiful. Furs, in the winter, are in univerſal wear; but they are proportionate, in quality, to the different claſſes. The poorer women commonly line their cloaks with hare ſkins; and the men, for the moſt part, have a dreſs made of ſheep's ſkin, with the wool turned inwards. On their heads they wear a warm fur cap; and they are very careful to cover their legs, not only with warm ſtockings, but boots, lined with ſkins, or a quantity of flannel, which they wrap ſeveral times round them. Inſtead of caps, moſt of the women, of middling rank, uſe handkerchiefs, which they manage with ſuch adroitneſs, that this kind of head-dreſs often looks captivating. Their necks are naked, and expoſed to the weather. Every Ruſſian, of what rank ſoever, uſually wears, upon the breaſt, and hanging by a ribbon, or ſtring, tied about his neck, a ſmall croſs of gold, ſilver, or lead. They receive their croſſes from their godfathers at their baptiſm, and never part with them as long as they live.

With reſpect to the habitations of the Ruſſians, we have already obſerved, that many of thoſe of the higher claſs are built of brick and ſtone; and have only to point out the manner in which the houſes, or huts, of the peaſants are conſtructed. This is as follows. A number of trees are ſtripped of their bark. They are not cut into deals, but laid horizontally upon one another. They are faſtened at the end with wooden pegs, and thus, by fixing the end of one tree into another, they conſtitute the walls. The roof is ſometimes of boards, and ſometimes thatched. In conſtructing their houſes, the Ruſſian peaſantry uſe very few inſtrument. The hatchet is the only one almoſt among them, and they exerciſe it with great dexterity. Profeſſed carpenters are excepted in this account.

In Ruſſia lockſmiths, maſons, carpenters, &c. are formed as a ſoldier is in other countries. Each regiments has in its own corps, all the neceſſary artiſts, and is not obliged to have recourſe to manufactures, as is the cuſtom every where elſe. They determine by the ſtature, what employment a man is moſt fit for. They give a ſoldier a lock for a pattern, with orders to make others like it, and he does it with the greateſt dexterity: but the original muſt be perfect, otherwiſe he would copy it with all its defects, however eaſy it might be to correct them. The ſame may be obſerved with regard to artiſts and workmen of all kinds.

The Ruſſians, in winter, contrive to make the warmth in their houſe ſuitable to the ſeverity of the climate. They give a proper degree of heat to the different rooms by means of an oven, conſtructed with ſeveral flues; and their ovens conſume a ſmaller quantity of wood than might at firſt be imagined. A ſingle faggot only, and that but a little one, is put in, and ſuffered to burn till the black thick ſmoke is evaporated. The chimney is then ſhut, by which the heat is retained, and the place kept warm for the ſpace of 24 hours; and this fire ſerves not only to warm the rooms, but to dreſs the food. The windows, in the houſes of the poor ſort of people, are very ſmall, that as little cold as poſſible may be admitted; but in the houſes of ſuperior perſons they are large; and, in order to guard againſt the inclemencies of the weather, they have double glaſs frames, and are caulked up in the winter. All ranks of people are very expert and nice in regulating the proper heat in their houſes by means of a thermometer; and by opening and ſhutting the flues, they increaſe or diminiſh the heat to a great degree of critical exactneſs.

In the houſes of the peaſants there are generally one bed for the huſband and wife; and one for the children; but all other perſons lie promiſcuouſly upon benches,

or mats, which they ſpread on the ground. The beds have no curtains; and, inſtead of a bolſter, the huſband and wife have each of them ſeven or eight pillows, one leſs than the other, raiſed up in the form of two pyramids. The requiſite benches, a large ſtove, and a few wooden chairs, make up the reſt of the furniture.

At a Ruſſian feaſt all the diſhes are ſerved up at once. It conſiſts of ſoup, made of meat cut into ſmall pieces; ſome ragouts, which none but a Ruſſian can touch; ſeveral pyramids of game and butcher's meat roaſted; Chineſe ſweetmeats, and Ruſſian fruits. A profound ſilence is obſerved at dinner, which is interrupted only at times by the healths which are drank. As ſoon as they ſit down to table, each man pours into his glaſs ſome Ruſſian made wine, and then all riſe to drink to each other. Every gueſt is drank to reſpectively by his chriſtian and ſurname, and a drop of wine is ſwallowed to each perſon's health. I have (ſays an accurate traveller) been at ſome of theſe dinners, when there were more than 66 people all drinking to each other at the ſame time. Their attitudes, and the confuſion of different ſounds, had a very ſingular effect. Peter, not being able to make James hear him, was ſtretching over the table, and bawling as loud as he could. At the ſame inſtant he was interrupted by Francis, who was bowing to him; or by a knock of the head from Philip, who was turning about from right to left, without perceiving the poſture Peter was in. Philip's turn came next; for as he was lifting his glaſs to his mouth, his neighbour gave him a jog of the elbow, and ſpilling part of his wine, interrupted him at his moſt intereſting moment. Such ſcenes as theſe, varied in different ways, were repeated at almoſt every part of the table; and the pleaſure of them was enhanced, by obſerving the impatience of ſome of the people. As to myſelf, I could never find an opportunity of drinking any one's health, but kept my head in conſtant motion to the right and left, and forwards. It is reckoned a qualification to catch the opportunity ſo ſeaſonably, as to drink to every perſon's health without deſcending from one's dignity, or meeting with any accident.

"The firſt health being over, every body ſits down, and is at liberty to eat for a few minutes. Glaſs tumblers, of a cylindrical form, ſix inches high, and four wide, are placed on different parts of the table. Every gueſt, within reach of one of theſe tumblers, takes it up, and drinks out of it. It would be thought very impolitic, if he was to take a glaſs in order to avoid drinking out of the ſame tumbler as his neighbour.

"When the company has eat for a few minutes, the empreſs's health goes round. This toaſt is given in a different manner. A large glaſs bottle, to which there is alſo a glaſs top, is placed on the table before the perſon of the higheſt rank. This perſon riſes from his ſeat, as well as his right hand neighbour, to whom he gives the head of the bottle, and pouring ſome wine into the cup, gives out the empreſs's health, bowing to the whole company. As ſoon as he hath drank, he gives the bottle to his neighbour, who paſſes the top to the perſon ſitting next to him. All the company drink the ſovereign's health in the ſame manner, while a band of muſicians is employed in ſinging ſongs adapted to the ceremony.

"The health of the prince and the princeſſes of the royal family are then drank in the ſame order; and eating goes on for a little time longer. The healths of all the gueſts are then carried round with another glaſs bottle, which is not ſo beautiful as the firſt, and is covered with a cruſt of bread.

"This toaſt goes round nearly in the ſame way as the former, except that when the lid of the bottle is given to one's neighbour, it is uſual, at the ſame time, to tell him the chriſtian and the ſurname of the perſon whoſe health is going round; and this muſt be repeated, making a bow to him. This cuſtom is very troubleſome to ſtrangers, as the Ruſſians have generally three or four chriſtian names. This ceremony is carried on with the utmoſt gravity, and one muſt be exact in the whole detail, which extends all round the table."

Such is the fare of the great and opulent: but the poor peaſants eat a kind of black bread, made of rye, barley, and other grain of an inferior quality. It is ſour, but not unwholeſome. They eat a great deal of garlic, coarſe oil, and fiſh. They make no cheeſe, and are not much acquainted with the uſes of milk. They drink a bad kind of mead, and liquor made of wild fruit: but their chief potation, of which they partake very freely, is extracted from the corn which their country produces. Here it is to be obſerved, that drunkenneſs is their prevailing vice. Both men and women accuſtom themſelves to ſleep conſtantly after dinner.

Proviſions are as well preſerved in Ruſſia by the froſt, as with us by the means of ſalt; and certainly while it laſts (that is, during the winter months) the former is a better preſervation than the latter; for this reaſon, that it never alters the taſte or quality of whatever it preſerves, as ſalt always does. The froſt fixes, for a time, the parts and oily juices, but does not change the flavour. Veal, and other kinds of meat, frozen at Archangel, are eſteemed the beſt of eating at Peterſburg; nor are they diſtinguiſhable from what is freſh killed. Hence the capital, in the winter, is plentifully ſupplied with all kinds of freſh proviſions; and the markets are filled with piles of carcaſſes, conſiſting of frozen hogs, ſheep, fiſh, poultry, vegetables, &c. But it is to be obſerved, that when any of theſe are to be dreſſed, they muſt be thawed by immerſion in cold water, and not by the means of fire or warm water, as theſe would ſpoil them immediately.

The Ruſſians are fond of muſic, particularly the bagpipe; and have a kind of violin, with a large belly like that of a lute. Their muſic, however, is barbarous and defective. Public ſchools are eſtabliſhed, in which the children are regularly taught to ſing. The very beggars aſk alms in a whining cadence, and ridiculous ſort of recitative: and it is recorded, that a Ruſſian ambaſſador at the Hague, having been regaled with the beſt concert of vocal and inſtrumental muſic that could be procured, was aſked how he liked the entertainment, and replied, "Perfectly well: the beggars in my country ſing juſt in the ſame manner." Beſides French, German, and Ruſſian ſingers, who perform before the court in their reſpective languages, there is ſet of Italian ſingers. No perſons pay either to go to the play or concert, none being allowed to enter except ſuch as have tickets by authority. Some few years ſince, an Engliſh company of comedians went over to St. Peterſburg, where they met with great countenance and encouragement. The playhouſe doors are guarded; and if any one ſhould get in without a proper right, they would be ſeverely puniſhed. The Ruſſians are fond of dancing, but in it diſplay very little agility. The lower claſs are even infantine in their amuſements, and divert themſelves with ſuch gambols as, in our country, would be thought too trifling for children.

They are extremely fond of hot baths and ſweating-houſes, in which they conſtantly go once or twice a week, and oftener, if they can afford it, and with ſo little regard to decency, the women and men make no ſcruple to go into them promiſcuouſly, and to appear naked there to each other. Upon their coming out of them, they will leap, naked, and reeking-hot, into a river, if any be near; or pour two or three pails of cold water upon their bodies, to cloſe the pores, and render them healthy and hardy; for they do it even in the heart of the winter.

An ingenious traveller, who was a ſpectator of this cuſtom among others, ſays, "It was a promiſcuous bathing, of not leſs than 200 perſons of both ſexes. There are ſeveral of theſe public banios in St. Peterſburg, and every one pays a few copecks (value a halfpenny Engliſh each) for admittance. There are, indeed, ſeparate places for the men and women; but they ſeem quite regardleſs of this diſtinction, and ſit

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or bathe in a ſtate of abſolute nudity among each other. What is equally extraordinary, they go firſt into a room heated to ſo intenſe a degree, that it is ſcarce poſſible to breathe in it; and, after having remained there till their bodies are in the moſt violent perſpiration, they inſtantly either plunge into the cold water, or elſe throw a quantity of it over them from little buckets, with which they are all provided for that purpoſe. This may harden a Ruſſian conſtitution, but, I believe, would be found to have very different effects upon an Engliſh one."

Fireworks conſtitute a great part of the diverſions of the Ruſſians, who, if they excel in any thing, it is in making all kinds in the artificial way. A traveller, of curioſity, gives the following account of a grand illumination and maſquerade, which he ſaw at the palace of Peterhoff. "I went down (ſays he) to Peterhoff, when there was a maſquerade and illuminations in the gardens. The former of theſe is rather a *bal paré en domino*, as there are very few or no fancy dreſſes, nor is any character ſupported. Every perſon, without diſtinction, is admitted upon this occaſion; and there were not leſs than four or five thouſand perſons preſent. Her Imperial majeſty was dreſſed in a blue domino, and played at cards moſt of the night. The illuminations in the gardens far ſurpaſſed any I ever ſaw in my life. In theſe, as alſo in fireworks of every kind, I am aſſured that the Ruſſians excel any nation of Europe. Two prodigious arcades of fire extended in the front of the palace. The canal, which reaches to the Gulph of Finland, was illuminated on both ſides; and the view terminated by a rock, lighted in the inſide, which had a beautiful effect. From either ſide of the canal went off long arched walks illuminated; and beyond theſe, in the woods, were hung feſtoons of lamps differently coloured. All the *jet d'eaus* played artificial caſcades, where the water tumbled from one declivity to another, and under each of which lights, very artificially diſpoſed, amuſed and ſurprized the ſpectators at the ſame time. Beſides theſe there were ſummer-houſes, pyramids, and temples of flame; and beyond all appeared the imperial yachts on the water, in the ſame brilliant and dazzling ornaments. Nothing could be better calculated to produce that giddy and tumultuous feeling of mingled wonder and delight, which, though it ariſes neither from the underſtanding or the heart, has yet a moſt powerful influence over both.

They have alſo open ſledges for amuſement. In ſome of theſe, which are very diminutive, they ſlide down declivities with amazing velocity, and are mighty fond of this diverſion. As Peterſburg is without natural hills, the people raiſe artificial mounts to enjoy this amuſement. They are called ice hills, or gliſſades. The late empreſs, Elizabeth, was ſo fond of this diverſion, that, at her palace of Zarſko Zelo, ſhe had artificial mounts, of a very ſingular conſtruction, made for this purpoſe. Theſe have been called by ſome Engliſhmen, who viſited the country, the *Flying Mountains*; nor is there a phraſe which approaches nearer to the Ruſſian name. There are five mounts of unequal heights, the firſt and higheſt of them being full 30 feet perpendicular altitude. The momentum, with which they deſcend, carries them over the ſecond, which is above five or ſix feet lower, juſt ſufficient to allow for the friction and reſiſtance, and ſo on to the laſt, from which they are conveyed, by a gentle deſcent, with nearly the ſame velocity, over a piece of water into a little iſland. Theſe ſlides, which are about a furlong and a half in length, are made of wood, that they may be uſed in ſummer as well as winter. The proceſs is, two or four perſons ſit in a little carriage, and one ſtands behind; for the more there are in it, the greater is the ſwiftneſs with which it goes. It runs on caſtors, and in grooves, to keep it in its right direction; and it deſcends with a wonderful rapidity. Under the hill is a machine worked by horſes, for the drawing the carriages back again with the company in them.

The manner of travelling in Ruſſia is extremely commodious, eſpecially in winter, when their ſledges glide away on the ſurface of the ice or ſnow with incredible diſpatch, and ſo very little labour to the horſes, that they can eaſily perform a journey of 50 or 60 miles a day. Their ſledges are made of the bark of the linden tree, fitted to the ſize of a man, lined with ſome thick felt; and when a man is laid along in them, he is wrapt up, and quite covered, in good furs. The driver, for the moſt part, runs by the ſledge, to keep himſelf warm, or ſits at the feet of the perſon who travels. The ſledges being built ſo very low, ſhould they happen to overturn, there is little danger in the fall. In this mode of travelling the time is moſtly ſpent in ſleeping; the eaſy and almoſt imperceptible motion favouring their repoſe. When they happen to paſs through deſarts, or great foreſts, where they are obliged to remain all night in the open air, they kindle a great fire, round which they range their ſledges; ſo that being well cloſed on all ſides, and well covered up with their furs, they reſt more commodiouſly than in a country cottage, where man and beaſts being lodged in one room, greatly diſturb a man's reſt.

The greateſt inconvenience in travelling in thoſe parts, is the want of inns on the road, which obliges travellers to carry proviſions along with them, and other neceſſaries they may ſtand in need of. But thoſe who travel ſingly, commonly go poſt, when they pay the whole expence of the journey at ſetting out, and have no more occaſion to put their hand in their pocket till they come to the end of it, which is very convenient. The poſt boy receives a written order, which he delivers to the next who ſucceeds him, and ſo on to the end. They go day and night, having freſh horſes every ten miles. They commonly travel an hundred and fifty miles in twenty-four hours, and ſometimes go three ſtages without waking.

In the ſummer they travel either by water, on the rivers, with which this country abounds, or by land, on horſeback, by coach, or ſleeping waggons; the roads in Ruſſia being very broad, beautiful, and eaſy for travelling. For paſſing the rivers they have a kind of floating bridges, made of large fir trees faſtened together, which can ſupport a great weight. But the violent heat of the ſummer, and the prodigious quantities of muſketos and flies, are very troubleſome, and greatly interrupt the pleaſure a ſtranger would otherwiſe have in paſſing through this country, from the beauty and variety of its foreſts, rivers, and lakes.

The Ruſſians profeſs the religion of the Greek church, the external parts of which conſiſt in a number of faſts, feſtivals, and ceremonies. Lent is obſerved by them with the greateſt ſtrictneſs. Beſides the numerous fixed faſts, the Ruſſians, at particular times, reject, as impure, horſe-fleſh, elk, veal, hare, rabbit, aſſes milk, mare's milk, Venice treacle, and all compoſitions which contain any thing of muſk, caſtor, or civet. Reſpecting their images, they ſuffer none that are carved or graven either in their churches or houſes, but ſuch only as are painted on wood, in oil colours, by thoſe of their own religion; and the walls of their churches are every where full of them. Over the porches of their churches, in the market place, and over the gates of their cities, you are ſure to meet with the picture of ſome ſaint or other; ſo that numbers of people are conſtantly ſeen croſſing themſelves, with a moſt profound bowing of the head, repeating the *Goſpodi Pomdiu*, or God have mercy upon me.

An Engliſh traveller relates, that a Ruſſian once coming to him with a meſſage, looked about the room for an image, and ſeeing none, aſked him, Where is thy God? He anſwered in heaven; upon which the Ruſſian immediately went away, without delivering his meſſage. The traveller, however, in conſequence of this, was adviſed by a Ruſſian of rank, with whom he was in a habit of intimacy, to cauſe a ſaint's picture to be hung in his room, to prevent giving any farther offence of that kind.

The Ruſſian clergy are, in general, ignorant. There are, however, among them men of learning and ingenuity, but their number is ſmall. They ſeldom preach, as their chief duty conſiſts in reading prayers and portions of ſcripture. It muſt be acknowledged, in favour of the Ruſſian clergy, that they are tolerant, and very charitable to thoſe of a faith different from their own. They ſay all men may go to heaven; but that the chief places will be aſſigned to the Ruſſians. The clergy conſiſts, at preſent, in ſecular and monaſtic prieſts: the ſecular are archbiſhops and biſhops; the monaſtic are monks. The ſecular order may marry: but if their wives die, they cannot officiate in their office, but muſt retire to a monaſtery; for which reaſon the prieſts in Ruſſia are very kind to their wives. The monaſtic order is that of St. Baſil, of which there are many monaſteries in Ruſſia. Each monaſtery has a prior, who is ſtiled Archmandit. The monks are not permitted to marry. The Ruſſians never acknowledged the pope of Rome as head of the church, but the patriarch of Conſtantinople, till the time Conſtantinople was taken by the Turks. The Ruſſian clergy elected a patriarch, who had his reſidence at Moſcow, and he had a ſovereign's power in all eccleſiaſtical matters, which Peter the Great thinking too great, depoſed him, and declared himſelf head of the church.

The baptiſmal, matrimonial, and funeral ceremonies of the Ruſſians, are very ſingular, as their religion conſiſts of outward form, and much ſuperſtition.

At baptiſm the child is dipped three times in a large veſſel of water, while the ſponſors have each a wax candle in their hands. After the child is dipped, the prieſt puts on the ſhirt, and then exorciſes it; and, at the end of every ſentence, he and the ſponſors ſpit, to ſhew they have triumphed over the devil.

Concerning the marriage ceremonies of the Ruſſians, a perſon of rank, long reſident in the country, thus ſpeaks. "The wedding was one of my ſervants. The match was propoſed to the girl's parents, and they approving of it, came to aſk my conſent. When that was obtained, the man ſent her a preſent, conſiſting of a comb, ſome paint, and patches. Then he was admitted to her for the firſt time. They gave each other a ring, and a promiſe of marriage; and the wedding was appointed for that day ſe'nnight. From that time to the day of the wedding, the girls of her acquaintance took turns to be with her night and day, continually ſinging ſongs to bemoan her loſs out of their ſociety. When the day came, they took a formal leave of her with many tears: and the man's relations came to fetch her, and her fortune, which was a bed and bedding, a table, and a picture of her patron ſaint."

A very ingenious writer has left upon a record, a whimſical and entertaining account of the ſame ceremony. "In 1713 the princeſs Natalia, only ſiſter to the reigning czar, by the ſame mother, ordered preparations to be made for a grand wedding, for two of her dwarfs, who were to be married. On this occaſion ſeveral ſmall coaches were made, and little Shetland horſes provided to draw them. All the dwarfs in the kingdom were ſummoned to celebrate the nuptials, to the number of ninety-three. They went in grand proceſſion through all the ſtreets of Moſcow. Before them went a large open waggon, drawn by ſix horſes, with kettle drums, french-horns, and hautboys. Then followed the marſhall and his attendants, two and two, on horſeback. Then the bridegroom and bride, in a coach and ſix, attended by the bride-man and maid, who ſat before them in the coach. They were followed by fifteen ſmall coaches, each drawn by ſix Shetland horſes, and each containing four dwarfs.

It was ſurpriſing to ſee ſuch a number of little creatures in one company together, eſpecially as they were furniſhed with an equipage conformable to their ſtature. Two troops of dragoons attended the proceſſion, to keep off the mob; and many perſons of faſhion were invited to the wedding, who attended in their coaches to the church where the ſmall couple were married. From thence the proceſſion returned in order to the princeſs's palace, where a grand entertainment was provided for the company. Two long tables were covered on each ſide of a long hall, where the company of dwarfs dined together. The princeſs, with her two nieces, were at the trouble themſelves to ſee them all ſeated, and well attended, before they ſat down to their own table. At night the princeſſes, attended by the nobility, conducted the married couple to bed in grand ſtate; after which ceremony the dwarf company had a large room allotted them to make merry among themſelves. The entertainment concluded with a grand ball.

Whether the cuſtom of the bride's preſenting her ſpouſe with a whip, on her wedding-day, in token of ſubmiſſion be ſtill in vogue in the more remote parts, ſince they have been poliſhed in theſe latter reigns, we will not affirm, but there is authority ſufficient to believe it to have been an ancient one; and our Engliſh reader will not, perhaps, be diſpleaſed to be told whence it had its riſe. Ruſſia is now part of the ancient Sarmatian Scythia, whoſe inhabitants, having formed a deſign to ſeek ſome new and better habitations, left their wives and country under the care of their ſlaves, went and conquered a great part of Greece, and held it a conſiderable time; during which, their wives, hearing no tidings of them, and unwilling to loſe their teeming-time, took the ſlaves to their beds. The maſters returning from Greece, the ſlaves deſigned to oppoſe them. Both ſides being drawn up in order of battle, one of the Sarmatians, addreſſing himſelf to his fellows, obſerved, that they ſhould debaſe themſelves by uſing the ſword and ſpear againſt ſlaves, whom they had formerly overawed with the ſound of a whip. He therefore propoſed, that every man ſhould arm himſelf with this weapon only. The advice was immediately purſued, and they attacked the enemy with ſcourges. The ſlaves had been ſo accuſtomed to dread this inſtrument, that they were inſtantly ſeized with a panic, and fled with the utmoſt precipation. The priſoners were purſued with vigour. A great part of the women made away with themſelves, and the reſt ſubmitted to flagellation, which was ſeverely exerciſed. In memory of this event, and as a warning to Ruſſian wives, the whip, or ſcourge, is one of the firſt wedding preſents, and hung up in the moſt conſpicuous part of the houſe, that, by preſenting itſelf continually to the good woman's eyes it may never ſlip from her remembrance.

The Ruſſians may not marry any one that is related to them within the fourth generation. Thoſe of an equal degree of conſanguinity, call each other brother and ſiſter, with the diſtinction of firſt, ſecond, and ſo on to the fourth degree; and thoſe of a higher or lower degree, are called uncles, nephews, &c. with the ſame diſtinction. At their chriſtenings they commonly have three or four godfathers, with an equal number of godmothers, who, after that ceremony, deem themſelves ſo nearly related, that they can no more marry each other, than if they were children of the ſame parents.

The following is an account of the ceremonies of a Ruſſian funeral, as performed on the demiſe of a lady of the firſt rank, given by an eminent traveller then preſent. "She died in childbed, and was buried with great pomp. After the company had ſat ſome time, they all went into the room to the corpſe. The coffin was open. She was dreſſed in an undreſs, as ſhe died in that condition, (otherwiſe ſhe would have been full dreſſed,) in a night gown of ſilver tiſſue, tied with pink ribbons. On her head was a fine laced mob, and a coronet, as princeſs of the Roman empire. Round her forehead was tied a ribbon, embroidered with her name and age. In her left arm lay the child, who died a few minutes after its birth, dreſſed in ſilver tiſſue. In her right hand was a roll of paper, which was a certificate from her confeſſor to St. Peter, which ran thus. "We do certify by theſe preſents, that the bearer hereof has always behaved and lived among us as became a good Chriſtian, profeſſing the Greek religion;

HABITS of different Orders of the GREEK CHURCH in RUSSIA.

1. A Greek Nun of the Order of S.t Basil.....2 A Nun of the ancient Order of S.t Augustin.
3 a Jesuit Nun.

Grignion sculp.

1 Habit of an Archbishop of Russia.....2 Choir Habit of a Curate of Russia.
3 Habit of a Minim.

and although ſhe may have committed ſome ſins, ſhe has confeſſed the ſame, whereupon ſhe hath received abſolution: that ſhe has honoured God and his ſaints; that ſhe has not neglected her prayers, and has faſted on the hours and days appointed by the church: that ſhe has always behaved herſelf towards me, who am her confeſſor, in ſuch a manner, that I have no reaſon to complain of her, or deny her the abſolution of her ſins. In witneſs whereof we have given her thoſe teſtimonials, to the end that St. Peter, upon ſight of them, may not deny her the opening of the gate to eternal bliſs.

"When all the company were ranged in the room, her ſervants came to take their leave of her, the inferior firſt. They all kiſſed her hand, and the child, aſked her pardon for any crime they had committed, and made the moſt terrible noiſe imaginable, rather howling than crying. After that her acquaintance took their leave, with this difference, that they kiſſed her face, and made a hideous noiſe, though not ſo bad as the others. Then came her relations, the moſt diſtant ones firſt, When her brother came, I really thought he would have pulled her out of the coffin. But the moſt moving ſcene was the huſband, who had begged to be excuſed this diſmal ceremony; but his brother thought he ought to comply with the Ruſs cuſtom, leſt, as he was a foreigner, it ſhould be deemed a ſlight. He was brought from his own apartment by two gentlemen as ſupporters, and they were really, in this caſe, more for uſe than ſhew. He had true but ſilent ſorrow painted in his face. When he came to the door of the room where the corpſe lay, he ſtopped and aſked for ſome hartſhorn; which, when he drank, and ſeemed to have armed himſelf, he advanced to the coffin, and there fainted. When he was taken out of the room, and recovered, the corpſe was carried down and placed in an open chariot. A great train of coaches followed; and, as a general officer's wife, a party of guards. She was carried to St. Alexander's monaſtery to be buried; and though the coffin lid was put on as the corpſe paſſed the ſtreets, it was taken off again when it came into the chapel; and the ſame ceremony of leave was taken over again, except by the huſband, who was carried home in a ſecond fainting fit, the moment the coffin was uncovered. The reſt of the ceremony was much like the Roman Catholics. When the corpſe was buried, all the company retired to the houſe, to a grand dinner, which had more an air of rejoicing than mourning, as every body ſeemed to have forgot their ſorrow: but the huſband was affected with too much real ſorrow to attend."

SECTION IV.

Language, Heraldry, Government, Modes of puniſhing Criminals, Coins, Weights, Meaſures, &c. of Ruſſia.

THE Ruſſian language derives its origin from the old Sclavonic, but at preſent differs much from it; and, with reſpect to religious ſubjects, abounds with Greek words. Their alphabet conſiſts of a corrupt ſort of Greek characters, to the number of 38. Various dialects are uſed in the different parts of the empire, as the Muſcovite, the Novogrodian, the Ukraniah, and that of Archangel.

The arms of the ſovereigns of Ruſſia are, a Field Or, with a diſplayed Eagle Sable, bearing a Shield Gules on her breaſt, charged with a Cavalier Argent, fighting with a Dragon Sinople. On and between the heads of the eagles are the three crowns of Moſcow, Cazan, and Aſtrachan. According to others, they were Sable, a Portal open, with two leaves, and as many Steps, Or. The former was taken by John Baſilowitz, anno 1540, on pretence that the Ruſſian princes Rurio, Sinaus, and Truvor, were deſcended from the emperor Auguſtus. The eagle, however, ſpreads not its wings like the imperial, but hangs them down; and the knight fighting with the dragon was added, in memory of the total defeat which the czar Demetrius gave to the Tartars in the Rulicoceian field.

The government of Ruſſia is abſolute deſpotiſm. The ſovereigns, if males, were called czars; if females, czarinas; but at preſent the imperial title is aſſumed. The people are no leſs ſlaves than formerly, but much of the power of the nobility is ſwallowed up in the great importance and authority of the crown. The ſovereign appoints wavoides, or governors of provinces, and beſtows all offices of conſequence, whether eccleſiaſtical, civil, or military. The czar Peter introduced the titles of count and prince of the empire, and inſtituted an order of knighthood in honour of St. Andrew, the patron of Ruſſia, diſtinguiſhed by a blue ribbon and a ſtar.

State priſoners here are, in general, privately ſeized, partially adjudged, and ſecretly diſpatched, or ſent into baniſhment to Siberia, of which the following is a ſingular incident, as related by a character of eminence, who reſided many years in Ruſſia. "I was not long in Riga (ſays that perſon) when I received the following intelligence from good authority. One Dr. Fonderholſt, a German, was, a few years before my arrival, phyſician to the army. He was ſaid to be a man of learning but of no great foreſight. Happening to receive an affront from one of the great men of the court, who was in favour with the empreſs, the doctor retorted ſeverely, and rendered him very ridiculous. The courtier had the addreſs to get the doctor ſent to Siberia in the following manner. One day, as the doctor was attending the field marſhal, who was ſick, a captain of the guards arrived with expreſſes from St. Peterſburg, and demanded immediate audience. He was introduced, and whiſpered ſomething in the field marſhal's ear, who deſired the doctor to amuſe himſelf in the great hall till he had finiſhed ſome buſineſs with the officer. When that was done, the doctor was again called upon; and when he had given the field marſhal his advice about ſome diſorder which he at that time laboured under, aud was going to retire, the count deſired him to come to dinner, as he might need his farther aſſiſtance; and, at the ſame time, invited the captain of the guards to dine, telling him he was not able to ſit at the table himſelf; but the vice-governor, prince Dolgoruki, who was preſent, would bear him company. This was agreed to. At dinner the captain told the vice-governor, that a relation of his, in his way to the army, was ſuddenly taken ill, and obliged to remain in a houſe diſtant three or four verſts from the city; and that therefore he deſired him to appoint an able phyſician to attend him, for which he would be amply rewarded. The deputy governor pointed to Dr. Fonderholſt, as phyſician to the army, and one of the ableſt profeſſors in Riga; and, at the ſame time, politely deſired the doctor to viſit the officer. Dr. Fonderholſt agreed, and was given directions to his ſervants to get his coach ready, when the prince told him that that was needleſs, as his coach was large enough to carry them all ſuch an inconſiderable diſtance. After dinner, when they had arrived at the houſe were the pretended the patient was ſuppoſed to be, and had taken a few glaſſes of wine, the doctor deſired to ſee him, but was anſwered, that he was a ſtate priſoner by order of the cabinet; and therefore they adviſed him to make no reſiſtance, but get into a travelling waggon ready at the door; telling him, at the ſame time, that if he offered the leaſt reſiſtance, he would be bound faſt with ropes, and might be very cruelly treated, on the way, by the ſoldiers who were appointed to convey him to the place of deſtination. Thus this man was conveyed to Siberia, and there long immured, or kept in a hole in the wall, with only a ſmall ſlit through which he received his proviſions. It ſeems he had ſome money about him when he was arreſted; but the captain took nothing from him except his ſword. The ſoldiers on the way, robbed him of his watch; but he concealed what little money he had from them. Foreſeeing that his money could not maintain him long, and perſuaded that he could not

long ſubſiſt upon the poor proviſions allowed to ſuch priſoners, he affected to be a fortune-teller, and apprized the ſoldiers, who kept guard upon him, of his deſign, offering them the half of what he got by his art. The ſoldiers, being acquainted with many of the ſuperſtitious inhabitants, told the doctor every thing concerning them before they came to him, which he repeated to them, whereby his fame, as a wiſe man, ſpread far, and he acquired the means of ſupport. Having neither books or company to amuſe him in this miſerable ſituation, he got a few hens, and diverted himſelf with feeding them. He gave their eggs a black colour; and wrote upon them with a pin, *Den ungelucklick Doctor Fonderholſt.* Ungelucklick ſignifies *unfortunate.* Theſe eggs he ſold to the inhabitants as charms. They knew not the meaning of the writing, but thought it rendered the eggs more valuable. After he had been many months thus confined, it happened that the governor's lady ſet up in this village, in her way from Ruſſia to Siberia, and wanted eggs, among other things, for dinner. The hoſteſs told her that there was, in the place, a priſoner, a very wiſe man, who ſold extraordinary eggs. She deſired to ſee them; and, as ſhe underſtood the German language, was ſurprized to ſee written upon them the name of the very phyſician who, a few years before, had recovered her from a very dangerous fever. She went to the hole, ſpoke to the doctor; then applied to her huſband, and cauſed his ſituation to be made much eaſier; and, as ſhe was a great favourite with the Empreſs, wrote, to her Majeſty, and repreſented his undeſerved misfortune ſo pathetically, that the governor received orders to liberate him, and ſend him, at her expence, to Moſcow.

The executive part of the government of Ruſſia is veſted in the ſovereign council of chancery, which is chiefly compoſed of the third claſs of the nobility, and divided into ſix departments, in which are ſeparately conſidered, foreign affairs, war, finances, public accounts, civil proceſſes brought by appeal, and criminal cauſes brought by appeal.

The determination of the two laſt mentioned, formerly depended upon the equity of the judge. In 1647 a code, or body of laws, was ordered to be compiled by the wiſeſt men in the empire, which was accordingly done, in one volume in folio, intitled, Sabrona Uloſienia, that is to ſay, Univerſal and General Right; and by this the judges were to regulate their ſentences. There is this great and ſingular advantage in the courts of judicature of this country, that they are neither expenſive or tedious; for a law-ſuit is begun and determined in the ſpace of ſix or ſeven weeks. Nevertheleſs they are extremely venal.

All the peaſants and huſbandmen are ſlaves, either directly to the ſovereign, to the boyars or lords, to monaſteries, or to ſome of the gentry; and the greater number any of them hath, as before obſerved, the richer he is eſteemed. Theſe are employed by them in whatever work or buſineſs they think fit; and this is one reaſon why they affect to appear more dull and untractable than they, perhaps, naturally are; becauſe, if any of them betrays a greater vivacity or dexterity than the reſt, he is ſure to have more buſineſs and trouble upon his hands, without any proportionable reward or encouragement. It is uſual for the ſovereigns to reward ſome of the ſervices done to them by any nobles or officers with a number of thoſe villages; and as there is an account of their number in all provinces, in forty days two or three hundred thouſand of them may be raiſed, by ſummoning each maſter to furniſh ſuch a quota.

In Ruſſia no perſon can be convicted of a capital crime but by confeſſion. However, the moſt inhuman tortures are uſed. The ordinary puniſhments are the batoags and the knout. The former is uſed in families, for the correction of children and ſlaves, and alſo in the army. The perſon to undergo this, after pulling off his clothes to his drawers, is laid flat on his belly on the ground. One ſits acroſs his head, another upon his feet, each furniſhed with a good ſwitch, with which they ſoundly tickle his back.

If a man kills his wife or ſlave, he is only whipped with the knout, which is thus performed. A luſty fellow takes him upon his back, and another ties his feet with a cord, which comes through between the legs of the perſon who carries him. In this poſture he is held ſo faſt that he cannot ſtir, and being ſtripped to the middle, the executioner, with the knout, which is a ſtrap of dried elk ſkin, untanned, faſtened to a ſtick, which he applies to the back ſo dexterouſly, that every laſh brings the blood, or leaves a very thick whale. This is called the moderate; but when ſentenced to be more ſevere, the executioner, advancing three or four ſteps, till he is within reach of the offender, gives the firſt ſtroke on the middle of the back, retreating at every ſtroke; and is ſo expert that he never hits twice in a place; each ſtroke bringing the fleſh with it. When the puniſhment is ordered in the extreme, he ſtrikes the flanks, and often cuts into the bowels, which few ſurvive. It is a general remark, that lean people turn ſat after the knout; and that it is an infallible cure for thoſe who are hide-bound.

A late traveller relates, that he ſaw three women buried alive for drowning their huſbands. They had, it ſeems, croſſed the Moſco in a boat, all three together, in ſearch of their huſbands, whom they found all drunk in a public-houſe, and endeavouring to perſuade them to go home, were ſeverely beaten by them. However, by the aſſiſtance of ſome other people, they got them at laſt into the boat, where they fell aſleep. The wives to be revenged on the huſbands for beating them, when the boat had reached the middle of the river, threw them in one after another; and, after drowning them, came on ſhore very unconcerned. The matter immediately came to light. They were ſeized, tried, condemned, and ordered to be put alive into the ground up to their necks, and there to remain till they died. Two of them lived ten, and the other eleven days. They ſpoke the firſt three days, complaining of great pain, but not after that. They certainly muſt have got ſome ſuſtenance in the night time, or they could not have exiſted ſo long. The eldeſt was not above twenty years of age.

The traveller laſt cited, gives the following account of the whimſical manner in which libellers are puniſhed in Ruſſia: "While I reſided at Moſcow, there was a gentleman who thought fit to publiſh a quarto volume, in vindication of the liberties of the ſubject, groſsly reflecting upon the unlimited power of the Czar, and cenſuring the legiſlature of that empire. The offender was immediately ſeized by virtue of a warrant, ſigned by one of the principal officers of the ſtate. He was tried in a ſummary way; his book determined to be a libel; and the author condemned to eat his own words. This ſentence was literally carried into execution on the following day. A ſcaffold was erected in the moſt populous part of the town: the imperial provoſt was the executioner; and all the magiſtrates attended at the ceremony. This book was ſevered from the binding, the margins cut off, and every leaf rolled up, as near as I can recollect, in the form of a lottery ticket, when it is taken out of the wheel at Guildhall by the bluecoat-boy. The author of the libel was then ſerved with them ſeparately by the provoſt, who put them into his mouth, to the no ſmall diverſion of the ſpectators. The offender had received a complete mouthful before he began to chew; but he was obliged, upon pain of the ſevereſt baſtinado, to ſwallow as many of the leaves as the Czar's ſerjeant-ſurgeon and phyſician thought poſſible for him to do without immediate hazard of his life. As ſoon as they were pleaſed to determine that it would be dangerous to proceed, the remainder of the ſentence was ſuſpended for that time, and reſumed again the next day, at the ſame place and hour, and ſtrictly conformable to the ſame ceremony. I remember it was three days before this execution

was

was over; but I attended it conſtantly, and was convinced that he had actually ſwallowed every leaf of the book. Thus I think he may be very juſtly ſaid to have eat his own words."

Traitors, after having undergone a variety of tortures, are baniſhed to Siberia; but ſometimes not till they have been deprived of their eyes or ears. Coiners are obliged to ſwallow the melted metal of the coin which they counterfeited. Thoſe who are hanged are obliged to put the nooſe about their own necks, and to fling themſelves off the ladder, when commanded by the executioner.

The ſyſtem of civil laws in Ruſſia is very imperfect. The preſent Empreſs, however, has made ſome attempts to reform them. The courts of juſtice were, in general, corrupt; thoſe by whom it was adminiſtered, ignorant: but the empreſs has made ſome judicious regulations, and fixed a certain ſalary to the office of judge, which before depended on the contributions of the unhappy clients; and thus the poor were without hope or remedy. The office of an executioner was formerly eſteemed honourable; but it is now held infamous; nor is the executioner permitted to ſell his office; for it muſt continue in his family; on failure of which, the brothers are obliged to chooſe one out of their body.

The coin of Ruſſia, till the reign of Peter I. conſiſted chiefly in copecks, or ſilver pence, except that which was brought thither from foreign parts; for merchants were obliged to pay the government in rix-dollars: but after the loſs of the battle of Narva, that monarch was ſo ſtraightened for want of money, that an expedient was tried, of recalling all the copecks, and coining new ones of the ſame weight and value, though alloyed with two fifths of a baſer metal. This induced the people to hoard up their old money, inſtead of bringing it to the mint: upon which another expedient was thought of, and a new order iſſued, whereby 10 per cent. was given, in new money, to every one that ſhould bring the old: and larger pieces were ordered to be coined, ſuch as rubles, half and quarter rubles, and pieces of ten, five, and three copecks value; on which account, a rixdollar, which, during the currency of the old coin, was valued at but 55 copecks, being now re-coined, and mixed with ſome alloy, made a ruble, or 100 copecks. This greatly diſtreſſed commerce in general, cauſed the exchange to fall between 30 and 40 per cent. and was attended with other inconveniences to the ſubjects. But the Czar, who was a prodigious gainer by it, and did not want his coin to go out of his dominions, but to make the foreign ones flow into them, was deaf to every thing that was ſaid againſt it. At preſent the Ruſſians have gold ducats; rubles; half rubles; quarter rubles; griveners, or 10 copecks; copecks of ſilver; five copecks; two copecks; and half and quarter ditto. The ducat is worth two rubles, and the ruble is, in value, about 4s. 6d. ſterling. The half and quarter rubles are expreſſive of their own value. A grivener is the tenth part of a ruble, and a copeck is an hundreth part of the ſame.

The Ruſſian pound in weight, is exactly the ſame as our pound.

With reſpect to the liquid meaſures, eight cruſkas make one vedro, one half vedro one ſtackan, two ſtackans one anchor, and ſix anchors one hog, which is exactly the ſame as an Engliſh hogſhead.

The principal meaſure of extenſion is the verſt, which is 3200 feet Engliſh; and 104 verſts make a degree. The Ruſſians reckon diſtances by verſts, as the Engliſh do by miles.

SECTION V.

Population, Commerce, and Military and Naval Armament of Ruſſia.

THE Ruſſian empire, though of ſuch an amazing extent, is well known to be badly peopled. The beſt writers inform us that it contains between ſeventeen and eighteen millions of inhabitants, and one million in the conquered provinces; but, according to the beſt accounts, the number at preſent is much increaſed. Almoſt from the moment that the preſent Empreſs began to reign, ſhe has increaſed the number of her ſubjects by many ways, principally by a general and very active encouragement of all arts, of agriculture, mining, manufactures, and commerce, and this with ſuch effect, that all of them are more flouriſhing, at this time, by many degrees than they were formerly. Another means which ſhe has taken to increaſe her people, has been by inviting foreigners of all denominations; and this ſhe has done in a greater degree than any of her predeceſſors. Almoſt from her acceſſion to the empire, ſhe has brought continued bodies of Germans, Poles, and Greeks from Turkey, to ſettle in her dominions, and theſe not few in numbers. From the coaſts of Germany ſhip loads; but from Poland and Turkey, whole towns, villages, and diſtricts, have left their habitations, and ſettled in Ruſſia. Nor has it been certain times, but regular emigrations, in conſequence of her continued encouragement.

This encouragement, which the Empreſs has conſtantly granted, conſiſts in ſeveral very important articles. All the expences of the journey, or voyage, from their native country, are borne by her. She feeds and ſupports them by the way. Upon their arrival at the territory appointed them to cultivate (which has always been part of the crown lands) every family has a cottage erected at her expence, to which they contribute labour. They then are furniſhed with implements neceſſary for cultivation, and one year's proviſions for the whole family. A further advantage is an exemption from all taxes during five years. All which is a ſyſtem of ſuch admirable policy, and carried into execution with ſuch unuſual ſpirit, even while the finances of the empire have been much diſtreſſed by expenſive wars, that there ſcarcely is an inſtance in hiſtory ſuperior to it. Nor can there be a doubt but that conſiderable advantages muſt ariſe from ſuch a ſyſtem, not only in point of population, but alſo to the revenues of the empire.

Ruſſia, upon the whole, is well ſituated for commerce; and her exports are iron, hemp, wood, hides, grain, pot-aſh, wax, cordage, copper, flax, furs, linſeed, fiſh, leather, tallow, materials for ſhip-building, &c. The imports are ſugar, beaver-ſkins, tin, dye-woods, ſhalloons, Norwich ſtuffs, lead, cloths, flannels, Mancheſter velvets, braſs wire, ſpirituous liquors, ſilk, ſpices, indigo, Engliſh beer, wines, fruits, china, paper, &c.

The commerce is with England, Holland, France, Germany, Poland, Turkey, Perſia, China, &c. Here it is to be obſerved, that, as the annual exports of Ruſſia greatly exceed the imports, the balance of trade muſt be greatly in her favour. The foreign commerce of the empire, under the preſent Empreſs, is much increaſed in conſequence of her conqueſts from Sweden, and ſince the eſtabliſhment of her new emporium of Peterſburg, whereby her naval intercourſe with Europe is rendered much more ſhort and eaſy.

The revenues of the Ruſſian empire are great, conſidering the value of money; which, in theſe ſorts of diſquiſitions, ought ever to be conſidered, though it rarely is ſo. The Empreſs is, in many articles, the ſole merchant in her dominions. The whole trade by land to China is on her account. This is not, indeed, conſiderable; for a caravan rarely goes now. Rhubarb, pot-aſhes, and ſpices, are branches in which ſhe, and no body elſe, trades. Salt is an article that brings her in an immenſe revenue. Very large quantities of the beſt hemp of Ukraina are bought and ſold on her account; much iron, the ſame; and even beer and brandy are her's. Beſides theſe articles ſhe has cuſtoms, tolls, and a poll-tax. Alſo the crown-lands, which are prodigiouſly extenſive, and added to the general amount, proves that, as the reſources are large, the revenue muſt be conſiderable.

The

The regular troops of Ruſſia, excluſive of the Coſſacks and Tartars, are computed at about 350,000 men: "But ſuch (ſays a modern traveller) is the great extent of their territories, and the number of fortreſſes which they have to ſupport, from Peterſburg to the borders of China, that it takes much time before they can bring more than half that number into the field, to act offenſively againſt an enemy. The common Ruſſian ſoldiers, are taught to deſpiſe life; and by this means they are brought to ſtand their ground, and keep their ranks, perhaps, equal to any troops in the world."

The Ruſſian marine, eſtabliſhed by the wiſe regulations of Peter the Great, afterwards declined; but was again rendered reſpectable under the auſpices of the preſent Empreſs, who invited to her aſſiſtance, a number of Britiſh ſea officers and artificers, by whoſe means ſhe accompliſhed a very important deſign. The Ruſſians have now a conſiderable naval armament, conſiſting of ſhips of the line, frigates, ſloops, row-gallies, &c.

Many thouſands of ſailors are kept in conſtant pay, and in ſervice, either on board the ſhips, or in the dock yards. The harbour is at Cronſtadt, ſeven leagues from Peterſburg. It is ſtrongly defended; and the canal, and large baſon, will contain between 5 and 600 ſail of ſhips. Upon the whole, Ruſſia is now a formidable power, both by ſea and land.

HISTORY OF RUSSIA.

WITH reſpect to the origin of the Ruſſians, it appears from the concurring teſtimony of hiſtorians, that they are deſcended from the ancient Scythians; and this account is confirmed by the very import of the term *Ruſſia*, which ſignifies a wanderer, as all the Scythian, or northern nations, were formerly. The annals of Ruſſia cannot be deduced, with authenticity, from a period more remote than the ninth century; though a tradition prevails, that Kioff, or Kiow, and Novogorod, were founded in the year 430. For a number of years, Ruſſia was under the government of divers petty ſovereigns uſually ſtiled dukes, who were, in general, ſubject to the Tartars, till they were at length conquered in the year 1450, by John or Ivan Caſilowitz, who ſubdued ſeveral of their territories, and annexed them to the Ruſſian dominions. His grandſon, John Baſilowitz, added divers provinces to the Ruſſian dominions in 1540, at which time the Ruſſian ſovereigns aſſumed the title of Czar. In his reign the Engliſh arrived at Archangel, and began to trade with Ruſſia, which, till then, had never been viſited by the ſhips of any nation.

From the death of John Baſilowitz, Ruſſia was under the government of ſeveral ſovereigns in ſucceſſion, of whom the only memorable circumſtances recorded, are, that they were, in general, weak and cruel princes, and that their territories were rent by civil wars.

In the year 1695 the Czar, ſo well known in hiſtory by the diſtinguiſhing title of Peter the Great, aſcended the throne of Ruſſia. For a ſummary detail of his tranſactions, that would exceed the limits to which we are under a neceſſity of confining ourſelves in this department of our work, we muſt refer the reader to the hiſtories of the northern nations, (ſome of which we have already preſented, as we intend to do the reſt) and give only a general account of his vaſt power, and the eminent pitch of renown to which he raiſed his dominions.

The czar Peter was the ſon of the czar Alexis Michaelowitz. He reigned conjunctively with John, his half-brother, from 1682 till 1695, when he became ſole ſovereign of Ruſſia. Determining, the year following, to build a fleet, for the purpoſe of navigation and traffic, he formed a deſign of viſiting the maritime countries of Europe, to obtain the neceſſary inſtructions. He alſo propoſed to encourage arts and ſciences in general, and invite learned men, and ingenious artificers, to return with him to Ruſſia, by offering them great rewards. For the proſecution of this plan, Peter began his travels. He firſt viſited Holland, then England; and, by diligent and frequent attendance and obſervations in the dock-yard at Deptford, acquired ſuch a competent knowledge of ſhip-building, as enabled him, in proceſs of time, to ſubdue his enemies, and extend his conqueſts. Through the bent of his genius, and the aſſiduity with which he proſecuted his plans, he roſe gradually through every rank and ſervice both by ſea and land. The ſeveral defeats he ſuſtained, and eſpecially that at Narva, from Charles XII. of Sweden, (which we have recounted in our hiſtory of that kingdom,) inſtead of checking, enlarged his ambition, and tended eventually to render him conqueror, through military experience and tried valour.

The generous friendſhip he manifeſted to Auguſtus, king of Poland, previous and ſubſequent to his being dethroned by Charles XII. does him infinite honour. Nor does his laſt marriage with Catharine, though a young Luthianian woman of inferior rank, tarniſh his character; on the contrary, it evinces his diſcernment of merit; for ſhe afterwards appeared to have poſſeſſed a ſoul capable of conceiving the ſublimeſt ideas, and executing the moſt important deſigns.

The defeat of the king of Sweden, at the battle of Pultowa, was attended with a ſucceſſion of triumphs that added renown to his reign; but it derived its moſt effulgent glories from his cultivation of commerce, arts, and ſciences, which tends, in the moſt exalted degree to aggrandize a nation.

In the year 1717, he made another journey to Holland, not incognito, as before, but as a ſovereign prince, and was received with all the honours due to his rank. From thence he viſited France, and made himſelf acquainted with every thing he thought worthy his attention: but his principal view being to improve his own people, he engaged artiſts in all profeſſions in his ſervice, and, by the ſalaries and rewards he offered them, prevailed with many of them to return with him to Ruſſia. Before he arrived at Peterſburg he received advice, that a conſpiracy had been formed to depoſe him, and ſet his only ſon, the czarowitz, upon the throne; to which that prince, it is ſaid, was privy.

Many of the conſpirators were put to death, on the Czar's return: and the czarowitz fled to the court of Vienna to avoid his father's reſentment; and, as his conſort was ſiſter to the then empreſs of Germany, it was given out that the court of Vienna had obtained his pardon; but however that might be, when the czarowitz returned to Ruſſia, he was apprehended and impriſoned; and being tried by a court of officers of his father's appointing condemned to die. The ſentence, indeed, was not executed, the prince dying a natural death in priſon.

After this event Peter cauſed the Czarina Catharine to be proclaimed his ſucceſſor, and crowned; and the nobility and officers of ſtate took the oaths of allegiance to her: ſoon after which he died in the 53d year of his age. Upon this, the ſenate proclaimed the Czarina Catharine Empreſs of all the Ruſſias, and renewed their oaths of allegiance to her, who was about 35 years of age at her acceſſion.

The Czarina applied herſelf immediately to perfect what the late Czar had begun; encouraging all arts and ſciences, and inviting learned foreigners and artificers, by offering them large revenues, to ſettle in the Ruſſian dominions; and obliging her ſubjects to ſend their ſons and dependants abroad, to qualify themſelves in every ſcience.

Catharine died, after a glorious reign, in 1727, in the 39th year of her age, having appointed prince Peter, ſon of the czarowitz, to ſucceed her. Peter II. at his acceſſion, was in the 12th year of his age. In his proclamation it was ſhewn, that he had a right to the Ruſſian throne by hereditary deſcent, as well as by the appointment of the late emperor and empreſs. The mother of the emperor Peter II. was the princeſs

Charlotta Chriſtiana Sophia, of Brunſwick Wolfenbuttle, ſiſter to the conſort of the emperor of Germany, Charles VI. It was by the particular direction of Peter the Great, that the late czarina appointed Peter to ſucceed her; for otherwiſe ſhe would have transferred the empire to one of the princeſſes her daughters, of whom ſhe left two, Anna Petrowna, then 19 years of age, married to Charles Frederick, duke of Holſtein Gottorp, and Elizabeth Petrowna, 13 years of age, unmarried.

Prince Menzikof, who was prime miniſter of Ruſſia at the death of the empreſs, and eſteemed the richeſt ſubject in Europe, attempted to prevail on the young Emperor to eſpouſe his eldeſt daughter; at which the nobility of Ruſſia were ſo incenſed, that they reſolved on ruining him, and cauſed him to be brought to trial, wherein he was charged with being acceſſary to the death of the late czarowitz, his imperial majeſty's father; with cauſing the firſt conſort of Peter the Great to be continued in priſon; with embezzling the public revenues; with cauſing ſeveral great men to be deprived of their honours and eſtates; and with a boundleſs ambition, as appeared in his deſign of marrying his daughter to the Emperor; for all which he was ſentenced to be baniſhed to Siberia, and his great eſtate confiſcated.

The relations of the young Emperor next proceeded to give the late czarina, the firſt conſort of the emperor Peter the Great, her liberty, and reverſe the ſentence of her divorce. They alſo repealed a law made by Peter the Great, which ſubverted the right of primogeniture, and the natural order of ſucceſſion in the imperial family, and the reſt of the Ruſſian families; made void the proceſs againſt the late czarowitz, the reigning Emperor's father; reſtored the noblemen who had been baniſhed to Siberia under the adminiſtration of prince Menzikof; and having concluded a peace both with Sweden and Denmark, they proceeded to the coronation of the Czar at Moſcow, on the 7th of March, 1727-8.

Prince Dolgoruki, who ſucceeded Menzikof in the poſt of prime miniſter, appeared to have no leſs ambition than his predeceſſor, contriving to get his eldeſt daughter eſpouſed to the reigning Emperor. He was congratulated thereupon, and their nuptials appointed to be celebrated; but the Czar died of the ſmall-pox, on the 29th of January, 1729-30, three days before the marriage was to have been ſolemnized; whereupon the ſenate and great officers of the crown, cauſed the princeſs Anne, ducheſs dowager of Courland, to be proclaimed Empreſs. She was the ſecond daughter of the late czar John, elder brother of Peter the Great; Catharine, her eldeſt ſiſter, having been married to Charles, duke of Mecklenburg.

The court reſiding at Moſcow on the death of the Czar, prince Dolgoruki, and three others were appointed to attend the empreſs Anne, and convoy her to Moſcow. Theſe noblemen arriving at Mittau, the capital of Courland, congratulated her on her ſucceſſion; but inſiſted on limiting the prerogatives of the crown, and veſting part of the legiſlative authority in the ſtates, which ſhe conſented to, and ſigned the capitulation they had provided for her; the principal articles of which were, that ſhe ſhould not make peace or war, or raiſe taxes, without the concurrence of the ſtates; and that ſhe ſhould not marry, appoint a ſucceſſor, or diſpoſe of any conſiderable office, without the like aſſent. But the Czarina appearing to have many friends on her arrival at Moſcow, the articles ſhe had ſigned were cancelled; and both the clergy and laity took the oaths to her majeſty in as abſolute terms as they had done to Peter the Great, without reſerve or limitation.

The ambitious Dolgoruki, his ſon, and ſeveral of their relations and friends, were ſoon after baniſhed, and their eſtates confiſcated, being principally concerned, it is ſuppoſed, in putting limitations on the prerogative, as mentioned above; but the declaration publiſhed on this occaſion, charged Dolgoruki, and his ſon, with behaving inſolently to the late Czar Peter II. endeavouring to marry him to Dolgoruki's daughter, and embezzling the public treaſure.

The empreſs Anne died in October, 1740, having nominated for her ſucceſſor prince John, an infant, ſix months old, ſon of Anthony Ulrick, duke of Brunſwick Wolfenbuttle, and of Anne his wife, daughter of Charles, duke of Mecklenburg, and of the princeſs Catharine, eldeſt daughter of the late czar John. During the minority of the infant Emperor, ſhe appointed her favourite, count Biron, duke of Courland, to be regent: but the mother of the young Emperor, the princeſs Anne of Mecklenburg, deeming herſelf much better entitled to the regency, and even to the throne itſelf, as her ſon could have no right to the Ruſſian throne but by her, ſhe ordered count Munich to take the duke of Courland priſoner, and cauſing him to be tried for high-treaſon, he was condemned to die; but his ſentence was afterwards changed to baniſhment into Siberia.

Through ſome diſguſt or other, the princeſs Anne of Mecklenburg, cauſed count Munich to be removed from all his poſts, a circumſtance that tended eventually to her own ruin. While the ſoldiery were under his command, ſhe had not much to fear from them; but he was no ſooner diſplaced, than they began to cabal in favour of the princeſs Elizabeth, the youngeſt daughter of Peter the Great, by his laſt conſort, the empreſs Catharine; and on the 5th of December, 1741, all the avenues to the palace, and the chief poſts in the city, were ſeized by the guards, who, with the friends of the princeſs, aſſembling in the palace, proclaimed her Empreſs of Ruſſia. The late regent, and her conſort, the duke of Brunſwick, and their infant ſon, were made priſoners, as were alſo counts Munich and Oſterman, the chancellor. The Dolgorukis, the duke of Courland, and other ſtate priſoners, were recalled from Siberia, and their ſentence revoked. In the mean time, counts Oſterman, Munich, and ſeveral more, that were not thought well affected to the preſent government, were tried for high treaſon, and condemned to die; but when they had been brought to the ſcaffold, and prepared for the execution, it was declared, that the reigning Empreſs had changed their ſentence into that of baniſhment.

The empreſs Elizabeth, having waged a ſucceſsful war with Sweden, and thereby greatly enhanced her power, replaced the national order of ſucceſſion to the throne of Ruſſia in her own family, by adopting the duke of Holſtein Gottorp, declaring him to be her heir, and giving him the title of grand duke of Ruſſia. He was married to the princeſs Catharina Alexowna, the daughter of Chriſtian Auguſtus, prince of Anhalt-Zerbſt, who bore him a ſon that was chriſtened by the name of Peter, and afterwards became the unfortunate Peter III.

The reign of this Empreſs may, in divers inſtances, be ſaid to have been truly glorious. She obtained a complete victory over the Swedes; and ſuch was her importance in the political ſcale of Europe, that the court of Great Britain deemed it expedient, in 1747, to court her alliance at the expence of a very conſiderable ſubſidy. A treaty was accordingly entered into, and articles ſigned by the plenipotentiaries of the reſpective monarchs. She was induced, from political, as well as private reaſons, to eſpouſe the cauſe of the houſe of Auſtria againſt the king of Pruſſia, in 1756; and, notwithſtanding the ſuperior talents that monarch diſplayed, both in the cabinet and field, her conqueſts were of ſuch importance, as threatened the deſtruction of the Pruſſian power, which, however, was prevented by her critical death, which happened on January 5, 1762.

Elizabeth was ſucceeded by Peter III. grand prince of Ruſſia, and duke of Holſtein Gottorp. He poſſeſſed the warmeſt attachment to the king of Pruſſia, from his political and perſonal character; and ſeemed to have

adopted his principles and practices, as the governing maxims of his own conduct. From these motives he is supposed to have introduced some peculiarities and innovations into the empire, which were extremely disgusting to his subjects. However that may be, a conspiracy was formed against him, which was carried on in such a manner, that this unfortunate prince knew but a short interval between the loss of his crown and his death, which happened in July, 1762. He was succeeded by his consort Catharine the II. the first remarkable occurrence in whose reign was the death of prince Ivan, son of the princess of Mecklenburg, who fell a victim to an ill concerted conspiracy, formed by a party to raise him to the imperial throne, to which, it is universally admitted, he had no legal pretence.

The transactions and event of the war between Russia and the Ottoman Porte, which commenced in 1768, and terminated in 1774, are well known from historical record. We have recounted the particulars of the same in our history of Turkey, in the first division of our work, under the article of Asia, for which the reader is referred to page 206. The part the Empress took in the dismemberment of Poland, will be shewn in our history of that kingdom.

It will be necessary to relate, that a short time before the conclusion of the war with the Turks, a rebellion broke out in Russia, which greatly alarmed the court of Petersburg, a pretender appearing in the person of a Cossac, called Pugatscheff; and assuming the name and character of the late unfortunate emperor Peter III. by his ability and address, drew after him numerous followers, which increased to such a degree, that they stood several engagements with able Russian generals, and committed great ravages in the country. They were at length, however, totally defeated; and the pretender being taken prisoner, was conducted to Moscow, in an iron cage, and there beheaded, January 21, 1775.

In justice to the present Empress, it must be acknowledged, that she has filled the throne with distinguished lustre. She has promoted science, extended commerce, and introduced many salutary reformations in the interior police of her empire, than which nothing can more effectually tend to aggrandize herself, as well as her subjects. We shall only add, that one transaction of her reign particularly redounds to her honour; this is the establishment of an armed neutrality, for the protection of the commerce of the nations not at war, from any attacks or insults from belligerent powers. This armed neutrality was acceeded to in 1780, by the kings of Sweden and Denmark, and by the States General.

The flames of war are again burst out between Russia and the Porte, and the emperor of Germany has interposed in favour of the former. Time alone can decide the event. However, our readers may be assured, that whatever transactions may occur from the commencement of the same to the close of this work, shall be minutely and faithfully inserted by way of supplement, as we have already announced with respect to events in general.

CHAP. VII.

POLAND.

SECTION I.

Origin of the Name, Extent, Situation, Boundaries, Climate, Soil, Productions, Rivers, &c.

IT is the general opinion that Poland takes its name from *Polu*, a Sclavonian word, signifying a country fit for hunting, on account of its plains, woods, wild beasts, and every kind of game.

Before the extraordinary partition of this country, the kingdom of Poland was very considerable, extending about 700 miles in length, and 680 in breadth; the situation being between 46 and 57 deg. north lat. and 16 and 34 deg. east long. and the boundaries, Livonia, part of Russia, and the Baltic Sea, to the north; another part of Russia to the east; Hungary, Turkey, and Little Tartary, to the south; and Germany to the west.

From its situation, the climate of this country is rather temperate, and the air not excessive cold; yet sometimes the lakes and rivers are so frozen, that carriages pass over them for five or six months together. The soil also is generally fertile, fit for tillage and pasture, and produces a vast quantity of corn and cattle, even enough to supply the populous nation of Holland, who yearly send vast fleets to Dantzick, to buy the corn and oxen sent down thither from the several parts of Poland. It also produces honey, wax, hemp, flax, leather, pot-ashes, salt, wood, salt-petre, vitriol, and quicksilver. With these staple commodities the inhabitants purchase those of other nations, as wines, cloths, stuffs, wrought silks, tapestry, jewels, sables, martens, tin, steel, iron ware, brandy, and spices.

This country produces also all kinds of fruits and herbs, and a good breed of horses. There are vines in many places, the grapes of which are grateful to the taste, especially if the summer and harvest be favourable; but the wine is generally very sharp when drawn off. In the mountains there are mines of lead, silver, copper, and iron; but the most considerable of all are the salt-mines in Lesser Poland, which are the chief riches of the country, and bring most money into the exchequer. They work in those mines as colliers do in our coal-pits. The salt is generally of a blueish colour, but some of it is white and transparent. They have also some veins of sal-gemmæ. The woods are well stored with hares, rabbits, squirrels, deer, foxes, bears, wolves, and boars. The Masovian forests have plenty of elks, wild asses, wild oxen, called *uri*, and buffaloes, whose flesh, when salted, the Poles esteem a great dainty. In the Ukraine there are wild horses also, whose flesh is equally esteemed. The wolf, resembling a hart, or the European lynx, called *lupus cervarius*, and by the natives *ris*, with spots on its belly and legs, affords the best furs in Poland. The quails in Podolia have green legs. It is said their flesh is unwholesome, and, if immoderately eaten, causes the cramp.

Poland is a plain flat country, rather inclining to marsh lands, so that no considerable woods or mountains are found here, except those that form the frontier to Hungary, which is a craggy ridge of 300 miles in length, and called the Crapach, or Carpathian mountains. The eastern part of the country, indeed, is full of woods, forests, lakes, marshes, and rivers, which afford a delightful prospect to that part of it which is open.

The most considerable rivers are the Vistula, the Niemen or Cronus, the Nieper or Boristhenes, the Niester or Tyras, and the Bog or Vegus; and the only lake worthy of observation is the great lake Gopto, or the White Lake, which, it is affirmed, will dye those who bathe in it of a swarthy complexion.

One of the most singular productions of Poland is manna, of which it may not be improper here to give an account. According to natural historians it is a kind of gum, which flows spontaneously from several sorts of trees, and afterwards congeals into grumes in the

the form of an eſſential ſalt. It not only proceeds from the aſh and quicken-tree, but alſo from the larix, pine, fir, oak, juniper, maple, olive, fig-tree, &c. It flows in July and Auguſt, from about the nervous fibres of the leaves, which, being dried in the air, concrete into whitiſh grains of the ſize of wheat; inſomuch, that, in Auguſt, the greater leaves of the aſh-tree look white, as if they were covered with ſnow. However, it is very ſcarce, on account of the difficulty of gathering it. The virtues of manna are well known, it being a mild laxative purge, and thought to diſſolve groſs humours, and abate their acrimony; whence it is good in catarrhs and coughs, proceeding from an acrid phlegm. It is alſo good in diſorders of the breaſt and lungs, when ſtuffed with clammy humours. It is uſed in the pleuriſy, inflammation of the lungs, and tenſion of the belly, from a thick hot bile.

SECTION II.

Deſcription of the ſeveral Provinces and principal Places of Poland.

IN treating of this country, conſidered in its utmoſt extent, prior to its diſmemberment, we ſhall divide it into the twelve following provinces and attend to each in due order. Theſe are Poland, properly ſo called; Poliſh Pruſſia, Lithuania, Samogitia, Courland, Warſovia, Polachia, Poleſia, Red Ruſſia, Podolia, Volhinia, and Ukrania. Moſt of theſe provinces are divided into diſtricts called palatinates; and the latter are again ſubdivided into ſtaroſties, or bailiwicks.

POLAND, properly ſo called, is divided in Upper, or Little Poland; and Lower, or Great Poland.

Upper, or Little Poland, contains many woods, but is fertile in ſome places, and in general well watered. There is but one mountain in Little Poland, called Mons Calvus, or Bald Mountain.

Little Poland is divided into the palatinates of Cracow, Sendomir, and Lublin. Theſe three palatinates form together the dioceſe of Cracow, which contains 1018 churches, including 11 which are collegiate.

Cracow, the metropolis of the palatinate of that name, and of the kingdom of Poland, is ſeated on a rocky bank of the river Viſtula, about the middle of the palatinate. It is very populous, and the largeſt and beſt built of any town in Poland, the houſes being of free-ſtone, four or five ſtories high, and covered with boards in the form of tiles. The public buildings are magnificent; among which are the cathedral of St. Staniſlaus; the church of St. Mary, in the grand place, ſurrounded with four rows of very fine buildings; with 50 other churches; and 17 religious houſes in the caſtle, city and ſuburbs; together with the noble, well-built monaſteries of the Jeſuits and Dominicans. The only remaining places of worſhip, differing from the ſtate, are two Greek churches, and a Jewiſh ſynagogue. There is an univerſity here which contains 11 colleges, where all kinds of ſciences are taught. This univerſity was begun by Caſimir the Great, finiſhed by Uladiſlaus Jagello, and had its privileges confirmed by pope Urban. Though the court generally reſides at Warſaw, as being more in the heart of the kingdom, Cracow is a noble, large, populous city, full of gentry and clergy, and honoured with the ſeſſion of the ſupreme court of judicature, the keeping of the royal enſigns or regalia, and the place of the king's coronation. The king's apartments are adorned with very curious paintings and ſtatues. Within the caſtle ſtands the cathedral, where the kings of Poland are crowned and interred. Here likewiſe the relics of St. Staniſlaus, the ancient biſhop and patron of the nation, are carefully kept, and highly venerated.

Near this city are ſome admirable ſalt mines, which were diſcovered in 1548. They produce a great annual revenue to the crown; and the proprietors are likewiſe obliged to make a yearly preſent to every city in Poland. The ſalt is of four kinds; and on one ſide of the mines runs a ſtream of brackiſh water, as a fine freſh one does on the other ſide.

The other towns of this palatinate are Zator, Siveria, Biecz, Sandrecz, Lelow, Czentochow, Slacovia, and Veliſca. In ſome of theſe are mines of ſilver and lead; in others collegiate churches and monaſteries.

Czentochow, on the river Warta, near the confines of Sileſia, in particular, is celebrated for remarkable good beer. Without the walls there is a monaſtery of hermits, where a picture of the Virgin Mary is depoſited, and which thoſe hermits affirm to have been painted by St. Luke himſelf. This hath drawn a great concourſe of pilgrims hither, who have made rich preſents to the hermits; yet theſe treaſures are not lodged in the monaſtery, but in a ſmall fortreſs.

The ſenators of this palatinate are the biſhop, palatine, and caſtellan of Cracow, with four other inferior caſtellans.

The juriſdiction of this palatine is very large, and extends ſeveral ways, not only over the citizens and countrymen, but alſo the nobility and gentry. The prætor, or mayor of Cracow, is named by the king; but the caſtle is principally under the command of the palatine, who has ten deputies, or burgraves, by whom, in times of peace and war, a ſtrict guard is kept, both night and day; and they muſt always be choſen out of the gentry.

The palatinate of Sendomir, or Sandomir, abounds with mines of gold, ſilver, copper, iron, lead, ſteel, and marble; and has its name from its capital.

Sendomir is pleaſant, and defended by a ſtrong caſtle on the ſouth ſide of the town, on a ſteep rock, beſides walls and outworks built by Caſimir the Great, who died here of a ſurfeit by eating too much fruit, which, about this ſpot, is reckoned the beſt in Poland. The moſt remarkable ſtructures in the town are the Dominican monaſtery, a collegiate church which is very rich, a ſchool where the Jeſuits teach, and other religious houſes. The chief court of judicature for the palatinate is kept here. The inhabitants are reckoned very polite. Here are two churches, much frequented by pilgrims, both which ſtand in the midſt of a foreſt.

The towns are Cunow, Schydlowiecz, Viaſden, Optatow, Radom, Ilza, Solecia, Bozentin, Kielcz, Chencin, Racow, Lagovia, Corzin, and Vizicca. All that can be ſaid worthy of mention concerning theſe ſeveral places is, that they produce the reſpective articles of timber, iron, ſteel, earthen ware, fiſh, &c. which tend to the advantage of the inhabitants.

The palatinate of Lublin contains many noblemen and gentlemens ſeats. It is governed by four principal perſons, the palatine, the caſtellan, and two ſenators.

The city of Lublin, from whence the palatinate receives its name, is a ſmall town, but has very great trade, and is particularly celebrated for four great annual fairs or marts, which continue a month each, and are reſorted to by merchants from many parts, both of Europe and Aſia. It is a biſhopric, ſuffragan to the archbiſhop of Cracow. The Jews ſynagogue here is the fineſt in the whole kingdom; and the city beſides contains ſeveral churches, convents, a college, and the chief tribunal for Little Poland. It is a healthy place, though ſurrounded by moraſſes, which are, indeed, its chief defence; though Caſimir the Great walled it, and ſurrounded it with a ditch. It hath likewiſe the ſecurity of a citadel, which communicates to the town by a bridge.

Caſimir is built of timber among the rocks near the Weiſſel. It is a large city, with a beautiful palace, and extenſive gardens, belonging to the archbiſhop of Gneſa. This is the town where Charles XII. king of Sweden, cauſed general Patkul to be broke alive upon the wheel.

There are three other towns in this palatinate, but of no note.

LOWER or GREAT POLAND; though ſo called, is rather ſmaller than *Little Poland*; for it did not receive its appellation of *Great* from its extent, but from having

ing been firſt ſettled into a kingdom by *Lechus the Great*, the original founder of the Poliſh monarchy. It is, in general, a level champaign country; has pleaſant rivers, lakes, ponds; and is well furniſhed with all manner of fiſh and fowl. Its hills abound with ſheep and cattle, and its vallies with corn.

The palatinate of Poſnania is ſituated to the eaſtward of Sileſia and Brandenburg.

The ſenators of this palatinate are the archbiſhop of Gneſna; the biſhop, palatine, and caſtellan of Poſnania; and ſix other caſtellans. There are ſeveral other officers in this palatinate, both civil and military. The Staroſtas, or governors of cities, have ſome of them juriſdiction, others none, as it is likewiſe all over the kingdom. Some of its towns are walled; but the houſes, in general, are of timber, except the public edifices, which are of ſtone or brick.

Poſnania, the capital, is thought to be inferior to no city of Poland, except Cracow. It is the ſee of a biſhop, ſuffragan of Gneſna; and it is defended by a good caſtle, a double wall, and a deep ditch. It is famed for its trade, well built, and has a cathedral. The biſhop's palace, and an univerſity, are in its ſuburbs, encompaſſed by a moraſs and a deep lake, but incommoded ſometimes by the overflowings of the river. There is a fine college and monaſtery in the city, in the former of which they have many ſcholars. The inhabitants make as handſome a figure in their houſes and dreſs as any in Poland: and their Staroſta, or chief magiſtrate, who is choſen annually out of the Echevins, or aldermen, is dignified with the tittle of general of Great Poland. Moſt of them are Papiſts; but here are many Jews, who have greater privileges than the citizens. The public buildings are generally of free-ſtone, of which the moſt conſiderable is the caſtle. There are three famous fairs kept in this city, much reſorted to by the German traders. In St. Magdalen's, which is the principal church of the city, is ſhewn the tomb of the duke Mieceſlaus, who introduced Chriſtianity into Poland. Here are ſeveral other churches, beſides monaſteries. The ſtreets are ſpacious, and the town-houſe a piece of fine architecture.

Beſides the capital, the only place of note in this palatinate is Fravenſtadt, which is remarkable for the victory obtained near it over the Saxons by the Swedes, which proved ſo fatal to king Auguſtus, that it permitted Charles XII. to enter Saxony, and left Poland and Lithuania to the mercy of that conqueror.

The palatinate of Kaliſch hath five ſenators, viz. the palatine, the caſtellan of Kaliſch, Land, Naklo, and Kamin.

Kaliſch, the city from whence the palatinate hath its name, lies among marſhes, and is fortified only with a brick wall, and low towers. Here are the ruins of a ſtrong caſtle, which was deſtroyed by the Tuetonic knights. It has a magnificent college of Jeſuits, and ſome religious houſes. It was taken by the Swedes during the wars of the laſt century. The Saxons and Poles defeated the Swedes near this place, in October 1706, juſt as a treaty had been ſigned, where king Auguſtus renounced the crown to king Staniſlaus, his electorate of Saxony being then over-run by the Swedes, and no other way left to relieve it.

Gneſna, or, as the Germans term it, Gniſen, is now deemed the capital of Great Poland, and was formerly the metropolis of the whole kingdom, and the reſidence of the king. It was built, as is generally reported, by king Lechus, I. founder of the monarchy, and called Gneſna, from an eagle's neſt found there, which, in the Poliſh language, is called Geneſiad. The kings of Poland were crowned, and the regalia kept here, till 1320, when they were removed to Cracow. It ſuffered very much by a dreadful fire in 1613, and has been declining ever ſince; ſo that it is now only conſiderable for being the ſee of an archbiſhop, who is primate of all Poland, legate of the Holy See, and, in caſe of the king's death, regent till a new king be choſen, whom alſo he claims the right of declaring and crowning. He can reverſe all proceedings in any of the biſhops courts; and it is death to draw a ſword in his preſence. A golden croſs is carried before him when he goes to the diet, or to the king; and when he ſits, his chaplain holds it behind his chair. His marſhal, who is a ſenator, carries a ſtaff before his coach, and ſalutes none with it but the king. He viſits no ambaſſadors, though they viſit him. During the inter-regnum, he may coin money in his own name; the revenues of the crown then belonging to him, and he having the ſame officers with the king: but at all times he has drums beating, and trumpets ſounding, within and without, before he ſits down to table; and he may viſit the king when he pleaſes. The canons muſt all be of noble birth.

There is lodged in the cathedral a great treaſure of gold, ſilver, and curious enamelled veſſels, bequeathed to it by Sigiſmund III. and ſome other kings. The tomb of one of the archbiſhops is caſed with ſilver, and the pillars are of Corinthian braſs.

The palatinate of Siradia is ſituated to the north and ſouth of the Warta, and contains

Siradia, the capital town, which is ſmall, but populous, and has a caſtle to defend it.

Wielun, which is the ſeat of the Staroſta, caſtellan, and provincial diet. And

Petricow, a tolerable well-built neat town, about 80 miles from Cracow. One of the great tribunals of the kingdom, for determining differences among the nobility, and appeals from inferior courts, ſits in this town; as does alſo a provincial court, and the ſynod of the clergy.

The palatinate of Lencicia hath five ſenators, viz. the palatine and caſtellan of Lencicia, and three other caſtellans.

The principal town, called Lencicia, has a great annual fair, and is the ſeat of one of the little diets.

Piontkum is celebrated for a fine monaſtery, and good beer.

The palatinate of Rava lies eaſt from that of Lencicia, and hath four ſenators, viz. the caſtellans of Sochaezow, Goſtinin, and Rava, and the palatine of Rava.

Rava, the capital, is ſituated in the midſt of a plain, built of wood, tolerably populous, and defended by a caſtle.

Louitz is a ſmall neat town, hath a caſtle ſurrounded by the river, is adorned with a ſtately church, and the palace of the archbiſhop of Gneſna.

Volhora is a populous town, where the biſhop of Cujavia has a noble palace.

The palatinate of Brzeſtry is fertile, and ſends five members to the diet.

In the ſuburbs of Creſwiek ſtands the church of St. Peter, built with free-ſtone, together with a college of 24 canons.

Uladiſlaw is a palatinate, the capital city of which, of the ſame name, is the ſee of a biſhop. The cathedral is an ancient Gothic ſtructure, but rich in plate, ornaments, and relics; and encompaſſed with the houſes of the canons and prebendaries, and a large free-ſchool. The chief ornament of the place is the biſhop's ſtately palace. Though the adjacent ſoil is marſhy, and ſo ſcarce of fuel, that the inhabitants ſuffer very much for want of it, yet it is fruitful in corn, and ſends great quantities to Dantzick.

The palatinate of Inowlocz, or Inowladiſlaw, is divided into three territories, and ſends four caſtellans to the diet, beſides the palatine.

The chief town of the ſame name, is ſmall, but defended by a ſtrong caſtle.

Bydgoſt is noted for a great trade in ſalmon.

Dobrin abounds with fruit and fiſh of all ſorts; and was formerly the occaſion of many quarrels between the Tuetonic knights, Pruſſia and Poland.

Ploczko, or Ploſkow, is divided into four diſtricts. Ploſkow, its chief town, has been a biſhop's ſee a long time,

time, is very populous, has a good trade, and is defended by a caſtle. It has a cathedral, with other churches and monaſteries, well endowed, eſpecially that of the Benedictines, in the ſuburbs, where, among other relics, they keep the head of St. Sigiſmund in a golden ſhrine, given by king Sigiſmund III.

Polish Prussia hath been uſually particularized by the appellation of Royal Pruſſia, on account of its belonging to the crown of Poland, and to diſtinguiſh it from Ducal Pruſſia, which belonged to the houſe of Brandenburg; but hath, for ſome time paſt been erected into a kingdom. The modern diſtinction, therefore, is into *Poliſh Pruſſia*, and the *kingdom of Pruſſia*; as his late Pruſſian majeſty, in the diſmemberment of Poland, ſeized upon the opulent, commercial, and fine cities of Dantzick, Thorn, and Elbing, which are all in *Poliſh Pruſſia*, but annexed to the dominions of Pruſſia.

Poliſh Pruſſia was formerly a diſtinct political ſtate from Poland itſelf, and no farther connected than by a perpetual alliance. In the year 1466, however, the inhabitants put themſelves under the protection of Caſimir IV. when it was expreſsly ſtipulated, that Poliſh Pruſſia ſhould have nothing to do with the kingdom of Poland, though it had with its ſovereign; and that the king ſhould perſonally, and alone, come among them, hold diets, give orders, and determine all matters relative to Poliſh Pruſſia. Some of the cities and towns of this province, and particularly Dantzick, had formerly very peculiar privileges.

The ſouthern parts of this diviſion, excepting in the neighbourhood of Dantzick, are barren, but level and open; but the other parts are over-run with mountains, lakes, and woods. The lakes yield plenty of excellent fiſh; and the woods afford wild boars, roe-bucks, game, wax, honey, and timber. This province is divided into four palatinates, viz. Pomerellia Culm, Marienburg, and Warmia.

The inhabitants of Poliſh Pruſſia have a diſtich which characterizes ſix of their principal cities and towns, and which may be thus tranſlated,

Dantzick the rich, Culm the delightful, and Ploczko the long;
Marienburg the handſome, Thorn the devout, and Elbing the ſtrong.

The Palatinate of Pomerellia had formerly princes of its own. It has now a palatine, and four provincial judges; lies in the dioceſe of Cujovia, and contains the following places.

The city of Dantzick, which is not only the capital of the palatinate, but the metropolis of Poliſh Pruſſia, is ſituated on a branch of the river Viſtula.

The inhabitants of Dantzick have frequently changed their maſters, and have ſometimes been under the protection of the Engliſh and Dutch; but they have ſhewn a greater attachment to Poland, as being leſs likely to rival them in their trade.

The city of Dantzick is large, populous and rich, carries on a vaſt trade, and hath long been conſidered not only as the chief mart and magazine of Poland, but as one of the greateſt granaries in the world; therefore, London and Amſterdam excepted, it is reputed to excel, in opulence and commerce, any other city in Europe.

This city is divided into three parts, which are governed by three diſtinct ſenators, viz. Voorſtadt, or Fore City; the Altſtadt, or Old City; and the Rechteſtadt, or the Emperor's City; all encompaſſed with high walls, ſo broad that coaches eaſily go round upon them. The fortifications are of vaſt extent; but being commanded by two hills, on the ſouth-weſt, they cannot ſtand a ſiege. A canal goes through the city, which is generally covered with merchant ſhips. It is watered by the rivers Motlaw and Rodaun, on which are ſeveral mills. One, on the Rodaun, yields the ſtate a great revenue, beſides what it brings the proprietors. The houſes are partly ſtone, and partly brick, and generally ſix or ſeven ſtories high. The public buildings are very fair. St. Mary's church is a ſtately fabric, with 48 alters, 3722 windows, and a front, made at Antwerp, that coſt 5000l. Here is a magnificent town-houſe with a very lofty ſpire. The arſenal, and exchange, the ſquare of St. Dominic, and the college, are noble ſtructures. There are 20 pariſhes in the city and ſuburbs; three magazines, well furniſhed with ammunition and other ſtores; and many granaries of ſeven and nine ſtories high, with funnels to let the corn down from one to the other, which ſaves a great deal of labour and charge. They are encompaſſed with water, ſo that ſhips lie cloſe to them to take in their lading; and no houſes are ſuffered to be near them for fear of fire. The chief export of this place is in corn brought from other parts, of which an incredible quantity is ſhipped from hence every year. The citizens have the ſole privilege of buying up the corn as ſoon as it enters the harbour. The magiſtrates ſet a price upon it; but that the country people, who are the ſellers, may not be impoſed upon, and delayed, the citizens are obliged to buy up the whole quantity which the boats bring in, let it be what it will. Though this city takes off a great quantity of the woollen manufactures of Great Britain, yet the Dutch, ſending ſo many ſhips for corn to Dantzick, which muſt go empty away if they have no goods to carry, and the freight coſting them nothing, they have the chief trade of courſe. Dantzick is the chief market to which the Dutch, and alſo the Scots, ſend their pickled herrings, which are a moſt profitable merchandize in Poland. The Dutch ſend juniper ſpirits hither, together with ſalt, ſulphur whale-fins, and train-oil. Beſides corn, of which there is not ſuch a quantity exported any where as here, the Dantzickers export pot-aſhes, ſturgeon, Poliſh linen, ſail-cloth, and great quantities of ſpruce canvas, which is uſed for ſails for ſmall ſhipping in England, and in Spain and Italy. The Dutch fetch great quantities of Poliſh ſheeps' wool from hence, which is the beſt in all the northern world, the Engliſh and Iriſh only excepted, and which they employ in their cloth manufacture. The French alſo bring ſome of it away. The Poliſh wool is exported likewiſe to Germany and Sweden. The Dantzickers have a wine of that ſort they call Tokay, but it is no other than the Poliſh wines of the mountains of Cracow and Podolia: and they import great quantities of Hollands gin, which is much drank in Poland. Some of the beſt oaken plank, for building ſhips, is brought from this city. The Dutch cargoes, beſides thoſe already mentioned, generally conſiſt of Engliſh woollen manufactures, the ſugars of the Engliſh colonies, American tobaccoes, with French ſilks, wines, and brandy. One half of the port cuſtoms belonging to the king of Poland ſince the reign of Sigiſmund Auguſtus, till his late Pruſſian majeſty converted all of them to his own emolument. The harbour of Dantzick is not deep, ſo that very large ſhips cannot come up to the city. One of the ſuburbs of Dantzick is called Scotland; and the Scotch had great privileges allowed them, in conſideration of their gallant defence of the town under one of the family of Douglas, when it was beſieged by the Poles. It is ſaid there have been uſually upwards of 30,000 Scotch pedlars at a time in Poland, ſome travelling on foot, ſome on horſeback, &c. Indeed, in the time of king Charles II. they amounted to 53,000, when Sir John Denham, and Mr. Killigrew, were ſent to number and tax them by the poll, which they did by particular licences from the king of Poland, bringing home 10,000l. ſterling, beſides defraying the expences of the journey and commiſſion.

In the great church here is a vaſt pillar, hollowed, which, it is pretended, was anciently uſed to immure eccleſiaſtics guilty of heinous crimes. As liberty of religion is publicly allowed in Dantzick, there are churches of all kinds, Lutheran, Calviniſt, and Catholic. There are beſides convents for the religious of both ſexes. The environs of this city are uncommonly beautiful.

Before the diſmemberment, though this town was under the protection of Poland, yet it was governed by its own magiſtrates in form of a republic. They had four proconſuls or burgomaſters, out of whom the king named a burgrave to repreſent him in the ſenate, and ſign ſentences of death. The ſenators continued for life; and four of them were Calviniſts. There were 100 burghers choſen to inſpect the conduct of the ſenates, and join with them in chuſing the miniſters. The magiſtrates determined all criminal cauſes without appeal, and all civil cauſes not exceeding 1000 livres. The 100 burghers, who joined with the ſenate in impoſing taxes, repreſented the grievances of the people, and maintained their privileges. When the king came hither, he was only allowed to bring a few guards, and was treated by the city for three days. They had a ſecretary always at court to take care of their intereſts, and the right of coinage. Their money, which they could coin without the king's leave, had the king's effigy on one ſide, and the city arms on the other.

Here is a college, with profeſſors in all faculties; but they do not give the degree of doctor. The juriſdiction of this city is above 40 miles round. The eſtabliſhed religion has been Lutheraniſm ſince 1525. The Calviniſts are numerous, and are allowed the freedom of their worſhip; as are all ſects in general. This city is noted for having been the birth-place of that eminent geographer Philip Cluverius.

There is an inland ſea or bay here, called the Friſchaff, famous for ſturgeon, a vaſt quantity of which is taken here, cured at Koningſberg and Dantzick, and ſent to all the trading ports of Europe, eſpecially England and Holland. Peter the Great, czar of Muſcovy, having brought a fine yacht hither from Holland, took great delight in working it in this bay; and, in order to acquire the mariner's art, did every part himſelf; being ſometimes at the helm, ſometimes before the maſt, and ſometimes at the top-maſt head, &c.

Oliva, a ſmall ſea-port, five miles north-weſt of Dantzick, is famed for a benedictine abbey, where a peace was concluded in 1660, betwixt the emperor, the king of Poland, and the elector of Brandenburgh, on one part; and the king of Sweden on the other.

The abbot's palace and gardens are very elegant; but his revenues, which amounted to 10,000 ducats) or near 5000l.) per annum, and the lands of the convent which, he enjoyed in full ſovereignty, were all ſeized by the late king of Pruſſia.

In this palatinate are five other towns, b t neither of them merit attention.

The palatinate of Culm has four ſenators, viz. the biſhops of Culm and Wormia, the palatine and caſtellan.

The city of this name was built and well fortified by the Teutonic knights. It is pleaſantly ſituated, but is much decayed ſince the Swediſh wars.

The city of Thorn, the moſt ancient of any in Poliſh Pruſſia, is likewiſe the handſomeſt and beſt built. The ſtreets are broader, and the houſes moree legant, than thoſe of Dantzick. The name is derived from the German word Thor, which ſignifies a door or gate, becauſe the Teutonic knights, by building it, opened to themſelves a door into Pruſſia; and the device on the city ſeal is a gate thrown open.

In the year 1454 this city, in conjunction with the reſt of Poliſh Pruſſia, threw off the oppreſſive yoke of the Teutonic knights, and put itſelf under the protection of Poland, on condition that it ſhould enjoy its ancient rights and privileges, which were equal to thoſe of Dantzick.

It had heretofore the right of coining money, chuſing its own magiſtrates, determining civil and criminal cauſes, ſending repreſentatives to the ſeveral diets, purchaſing fiefs and eſtates, &c. But its rights and privileges now depend entirely upon the will of the Pruſſian monarch.

The German and Poliſh languages are ſpoken here in the utmoſt purity. The territory appertaining to the city is of conſiderable extent; and at a village about ſix miles from the city, all perſons, who reſort thither, may drink as much beer as they pleaſe gratis. The town is defended by a double wall and mooat. The wooden bridge over the Viſtula is the longeſt in Europe, as half an hour is required to walk over it at a tolerable pace; and at the ſame time it is the moſt expenſive, as one third of it is ſure to be annually carried away by the floods. In fact it conſiſts, properly ſpeaking, of two bridges, as the iſland Bazar divides it in the middle. The Stadthouſe hath none in Europe which excels it, except that of Amſterdam. Great quantities of ſoap and gingerbread are made here and exported. The aſparagus, that grows wild in the neighbourhood, is not inferior to what is cultivated in other places. In this city the celebrated aſtronomer Copernicus was born in the year 1472.

The Lutheran college hath five profeſſors, with a teacher of the Poliſh language, a fine library, and a printing-houſe.

The biſhop of Culm, whoſe dioceſe and ſpiritual juriſdiction extends to this city, having, towards the end of the laſt century, eſtabliſhed an annual proceſſion with the hoſt on Corpus-Chriſti day, the year 1724 will ſcarce ever be forgot by the citizens of Thorn, for the execution of a terrible decree that year from the chancery at Warſaw, at the inſtigation of the Jeſuits, and the falſe depoſitions of their partizans; by which ſeveral Proteſtant magiſtrates, and others of note, were not only put to death, and others fined, whipped, and impriſoned, on account of a tumult, becauſe ſome of the citizens children did not kneel down at the proceſſion, but St. Mary's church was taken from the Proteſtants, and given to the Papiſts; their ſchools deſtroyed; the form of the city government utterly ſubverted; the burghers forced to ſubmit to a new ſet of magiſtrates, who were all Roman Catholics; and, in a word, the inhabitants were ſtripped of all their privileges that had been ſo dearly purchaſed, and afterwards confirmed by the peace of Oliva. During this many of the inhabitants fled to Dantzick for refuge, but thought fit to retire from thence elſewhere, leſt the Poles ſhould oblige the magiſtrates of that city to deliver them up. The Jeſuits college having been broke open and plundered in the tumult, they demanded 20,000 florins of the city, which paid down one half in hand, and mortgaged the city lands for the other; though the damage they ſuſtained did not exceed 1000 florins, and their whole college was not worth the ſum total of their demand. Mean time the commiſſion for the execution of the horrid ſentence, which even the reigning pope thought too cruel, ſtaid about a fortnight, and coſt the city 40,000 florins. Five or ſix ſoldiers were quartered upon every Proteſtant burgher, who was obliged to maintain them in luxury, on pain of being treated with inhumanity; ſo that the miſery and calamity upon this occaſion in Thorn is almoſt inexpreſſible.

The leaning tower in this town is much admired; for though the outſide is built obliquely from the ground, ſo that it ſeems ready to fall, yet the floor and ceilings within are perfectly horizontal, and the walls perpendicular to the horizon. In the univerſity library two of Cicero's epiſtles are preſerved on wax, and greatly admired by the literati.

Having deſcribed all the places worthy of note in this palatinate, we paſs to that of Marienburgh, which is an open, level, populous, and fruitful country, producing corn, cattle, graſs, &c. in abundance. The air is good. The fuel generally uſed is either turf, ſtraw, or ſtubble; and the few woods harbour very fierce wolves. The inhabitants are principally Lutherans, or Roman Catholics; and the palatinate has only two ſenators, viz. the palatine and the caſtellan of Marienburgh.

The city of Marienburgh was founded by the Teutonic knights. The caſtle, which was erected in 1281, is a brick ſtructure, fortified on one ſide with a treble

ditch, defended on the other by ſtrong ſtone walls, and ſecured by high towers at the banks. It has undergone ſeveral revolutions, and been ſubject to different powers.

Here is a magnificent church, dedicated to the Virgin Mary; but the town is meanly built, moſt of its houſes being of wood, and the inhabitants poor. The adjacent ſoil is fruitful, and well cultivated, as is the neighbouring iſland of the ſame name, formed by the river; but the dykes, to preſerve it from inundations, are very expenſive. The beſt mead in Poliſh Pruſſia is made here.

Elbing is the metropolis of the palatinate, and the only port, except Dantzick, in all Poliſh Pruſſia. It was built in 1239, by the burghers of Lubeck; had the ſame laws, privileges, and arms, as their city; and was one of the Hans-Towns, as well as a free and imperial city; and one of the moſt conſiderable on the Baltic. This city alſo has undergone various revolutions. The laſt was in the diſmemberment of Poland, by which it was ſubjected to the many calamities incidental on that event.

The city of Elbing is divided into the Old and New Towns, or rather the Upper and Lower Towns, which are both fortified, and, with Thorn and Dantzick, form a repoſitory for the archives and treaſures of Poliſh Pruſſia. Its ſtreets are broad and ſtrait, and the fortifications very regular. Its principal commerce is in ſturgeon, butter, cheeſe, mead, and corn. The Catholic and Lutheran are the two religions of the place. It is ſituated in a level country, like Holland, and is as fruitful and populous as any part of that province, Amſterdam excepted. The boors in the neighbourhood have as good houſes and apparel almoſt as the noblemen in Courland; ſo that a boor is hardly to be diſtinguiſhed, by his habit, from a burgher.

The architecture of the houſes in this city is moſt groteſque and ſingular. They terminate in a point; and almoſt all the upper ſtories are untenantable, being deſigned for granaries, and not for reſidence. It was formerly fortified in the Gothic taſte, and ſurrounded by a trench. But even theſe feeble ramparts are, in a great meaſure demoliſhed, ſince it hath become ſubject to its new maſter.

Chriſtburg is a conſiderable town, with an old caſtle, on the river Sergamen, which diſcharges itſelf into the Drauſen, oppoſite Elbing.

Stum is a ſmall town with a caſtle, where the diet of the palatinate, and a court of judicature is held.

The fourth palatinate of this country is Warmia, a biſhopric, the people of which are exempted from the royal juriſdiction, and governed by the laws of Pruſſia under their biſhop, who is a prince of the empire, the chief of the Pruſſian ſenators, and has his ſeat at Heilſberg, a ſtrong place, built in 1240, on the river Aller, north-eaſt from Elbing, and 32 miles ſouth of Koningſberg. His cathedral is at Frawenburg, on the Friſchaff, where it receives the river Schon, and has a good harbour, 10 miles north eaſt from Elbing and Pillau. The famous Copernicus was a canon of this cathedral.

The chief town of this palatinate is Braunſberg, or Braunſlaw, a populous place, much frequented, famed for a good trade, and an univerſity, or rather a college, built by cardinal Hoſius. The town has been mortgaged ſince 1667 to the electoral family of Brandenburg; but his late Pruſſian Majeſty took poſſeſſion of the whole.

Pruſſia may, in this manner, from a ſmall ſtate, become an extenſive and mighty empire, till, perhaps, it grows too unweildy to ſupport itſelf, when, like many other ſtates, it may decline as rapidly as it roſe.

When empire in its childhood firſt appears,
A watchful fate o'erſees its tender years;
Till grown more ſtrong, it thruſts and ſtretches out,
And elbows all the kingdoms round about.
The place thus made for its firſt breathing free,
It moves again for eaſe and luxury;
Till, ſwelling by degrees, it has poſſeſs'd
The greater ſpace, and now crowds up the reſt;
When from behind there ſtarts ſome petty ſtate,
And puſhes on its now unwieldy fate:
Then down the precipice of time it goes,
And ſinks in minutes what in ages roſe.

The extenſive country of LITHUANIA, which the natives themſelves call Letwa, was united to Poland in 1501. It is, in length, about 360 miles, and 340 in breadth, where broadeſt. It was formerly almoſt filled with woods, and ſtill contains many conſiderable foreſts. It abounds in honey, wax, timber, buffaloes, wild horſes, wild aſſes, pitch, tar, boars, elks, uris, woodcocks, &c.

The numerous lakes likewiſe produce great quantities of fiſh; but the great numbers of lakes and foreſts occaſion the air to be thick and foggy. Here are many flocks and herds; and buck wheat, as well as other grain, is plentiful; ſo that proviſions are cheap, though agriculture is greatly neglected: but money is very ſcarce.

The nobility affect great pomp and ſplendor, and are exceedingly fond of retaining a numerous train of domeſtics. The Roman Catholic is the eſtabliſhed religion; but Lutherans, Calviniſts, Jews, Turks, Greeks, &c. are tolerated.

Lithuania was governed by its own duke, till it was united to Poland by the marriage of its great duke Jagello to Hedwig, the dowager of Lewis, king of Poland and Hungary; but each country ſtill retained its own laws, cuſtoms, privileges, dialect, &c. In a diet held at Lublin, in the year 1569, it was more firmly compacted with Poland than before; and a decree was made, that both countries ſhould form but one ſtate under the ſame prince.

In their courts of juſtice, the tenth part of what is adjudged in all real actions goes to the judge's bar, and is immediately paid into court. The judge claims half the damages given in perſonal actions. The common people, the Germans, and burghers in the royal towns excepted, are ſlaves; and ſo exceedingly illiterate, that ſome of them even retain many of their ancient idolatrous ſuperſtitions.

The poor people here have only Monday to themſelves, and ſometimes their lords even deprive them of that. They wear a coarſe aſh-coloured habit; and, for their legs, they have buſkins of bark; and generally ſpeak the Sclavonic, which is the language uſed in all their courts of judicature. They have a great mixture of Poliſh, and alſo of the Latin, which laſt is as common here as in Poland, and ſpoke by people of all ranks, inſomuch, that Michalon, one of their authors, makes no doubt of their being deſcended from the old Romans; and the rather, becauſe the Lithuanians had, not long ſince, the ſame cuſtoms and ſuperſtitions, as burning the dead, divining by augurs, &c.

The bread they cummonly eat is a coarſe black ſort, made of rye, the footy wheat, unwinnowed, and barley-ears, all ground together. They have fleſh, fiſh, and fowl; and what cattle or poultry they think they ſhall not be able to keep in the winter, they uſually kill in autumn, and preſerve in ſalt.

In every houſe in the country they have four or five hand-mills to grind their corn. While they are at work they have a conſtant ſong. They have alſo a ſort of very long wooden trumpet, which, when they ſound, almoſt deafens bye-ſtanders.

Their peaſants have waggons or carts, all of wood, and made very light, by interweaving boughs with each other; and their coverings are commonly the ſame, not much unlike the colliers or lime-burners carts in England. The wheels are of one flat and entire piece of wood; and, as the axle-trees are never greaſed, a number of them together make an intolerable ſqueaking noiſe.

Their

Their houſes are built round, and therefore they call them towers. They are narrow, and open at top, to let out the ſmoke and ſtench; and generally covered with boards, ſtraw, or bark of trees. In theſe the people and their cattle live together, by which both often receive injury.

One of the employments of the men, in the winter, is to ſtuff beds with chopt feathers, and ſtalks that grow in the marſhes; and part of the womens buſineſs, within doors, is to weave coarſe cloth. For fear of the incurſions of the Tartars, the Lithuanians ſecure all their corn, ſtraw, ſalt meat, and, in ſhort, all their proviſions, in caves, which they dig in the foreſts, and hide the entrance with the bark and branches of trees.

The firſt palatinate of Lithuania is Vilna, which comprehends three large diſtricts, and is divided into two equal parts by the river Wilia. It has only three ſenators, viz. the biſhop, palatine, and caſtellan; and its name is derived from the capital, not only of this palatinate, but of Lithuania, viz.

Vilna, which the inhabitants call Vilenſki, and the Germans Wilde. It ſtands at the conflux of the Vilia and Wiln, and is a large populous town, with a good trade, but chiefly carried on by foreigners, the natives being poor and lazy. The houſes are ſo ſmoaky, and the inhabitants, who are ſlaves to their noblemen and their bellies, eat ſo much garlic and onions, that half of them are blind before they grow old. They are much given to quarrels, ſo that murders ſometimes enſue. The ſtreets are badly paved, dirty, and ſwarm with beggars; for here is no hoſpital. Moſt of the houſes are low, mean, and built of wood, except thoſe of ſome foreign merchants, the great duke's palace, the cathedral and churches, which are all built of ſtone; as are alſo the Bernardine monaſtery, the univerſity, and the Ruſſian company's warehouſe, where they keep their ermines, ſables, &c.

As it is the moſt conſiderable ſtaple for trade, ſo it is the ſeat of the chief court of judicature for Lithuania, which ſits yearly at this place and at Miniſk, by turns. All the inhabitants, except the members of the tribunal, are under the juriſdiction of the palatine, who is governor of the city.

Here is a ruinous old caſtle upon a hill; and another much more beautiful, of a modern ſtructure, at the lower part of the town. In the duke's palace there is a well-furniſhed arſenal, or armory, and a good library. The cathedral, dedicated to St. Staniſlaus, ſtands in the lower caſtle. It has a large ſilver tomb of St. Caſimir, who was canonized by pope Leo. X. Its revenues are conſiderable; and though the archbiſhop is a Roman Catholic, he challenges juriſdiction over all the biſhops of Poliſh Pruſſia, who are of the Greek religion; which is, however, diſputed by the biſhop of Kiow. Here is a great bell that requires 24 men to ring it, which was given by king Sigiſmund III, who alſo gave the ſilver tomb, and an altar of the ſame metal. The college here was founded in 1579, by king Stephen, with profeſſors of divinity, law, philoſophy, the Hebrew language, and philology; and honoured with the title of an univerſity by pope Gregory XIII. The town is noted for making very good guns, and other inſtruments of war, chiefly by German artificers.

The ſuburbs are as large as the town, and full of the like timber cottages, which have not partitions, but conſiſt only of one room, common to the family and their cattle. Both the caſtles are built of bricks, and flanked with towers. The fortifications are but indifferent, and its gates are only ſhut in time of war. The Proteſtants had a church and college here formerly, but were deprived of both by a decree of the diet of Poland, which, nevertheleſs, left the Greeks in poſſeſſion of their monaſteries, churches, and the free exerciſe of their religion. The town is inhabited by Poles, Ruſſians, Germans, Tartars, and other nations, as well as by the Lithuanians. The Tartars, who lie along the banks of the river Vaca, which does not run far from Vilna, have waggons for the ſervice of travellers. They live according to their own laws, without giving cauſe of complaint, and own the king of Poland for their ſovereign. Great numbers of them reſide in the villages of a valley three miles from hence, in the way to Koningſberg. Foreign merchants ſeldom come hither but in the winter, when the marſhes are frozen, and they can bring their goods on ſledges over the ſnow. There was ſo great a famine in theſe parts in 1571, that in Vilna alone there died of it no leſs than 25000. Here was a great tumult in 1581, on account of the biſhop's zeal, in burning the books of the Lutherans, Calviniſts, and Ruſſians. In 1610 the Ruſſians, to be revenged for the miſchief done by the Poles at Smolenſko, took this place, and ſet fire to it, by which 4700 houſes were reduced to aſhes, together with ſeven Catholic, and three other churches; ſo that the queen of Poland had but juſt time to eſcape, with her attendants, in boats; of which ſome, nevertheleſs, were drowned. In 1644 the ſcholars raiſed a great tumult, which could not be appeaſed till major Oginſki came with 400 ſoldiers, of whom ſeveral, together with the major himſelf, were killed in the ſkirmiſh.

Grodno, in the palatinate of Troki, the largeſt town in Lithuania next to Vilna, is ſituated on the river Niemen. Here is a fine palace, a caſtle, a college, a Jews ſynagogue, a Carmelite nunnery, three Greek and nine Roman Catholic churches. Beſides theſe here are two other palaces, the one belonging to prince Radzivil, and the other to the Sapietian family. Very few of the ſtreets of this city are paved; and a great part of this town was conſumed by fire in the year 1753. It is a place of good trade, has a provincial diet, and a court of judicature. In the firſt diviſion of Lithuania are ſeveral ſmall towns, but on no conſideration remarkable.

The ſecond diviſion of Lithuania, or Lithuanian Ruſſia, contains White Ruſſia, and is about 340 miles in length, from eaſt to weſt, and 240 in breadth, from north to ſouth. It includes Black Ruſſia, or the palatinate of Novogrodeck, and contains ſeven towns, of which we can only mention one that deſerves attention. This is Novogrodeck, a conſiderable town, 68 miles ſouth of Vilna, ſituated on a hill. Here are a provincial diet, a high court of judicature, an inferior court, a college, Roman Catholic and Greek convents, and ſeveral churches.

The palatinate of Minſki has two ſenators, viz. the palatine and caſtellan of the town of Minſki.

Minſki, the capital, is a large, well built town, defended by a deep ditch, a ſtrong caſtle, and other fortifications. It was once a dietine town, but its conſequence is now much declined.

Boriſſaw is built of timber, has a ſtrong caſtle, and is regularly fortified. As is alſo Brodzieck, 40 miles to the ſouth of Boriſlaw.

Rochaczow is a large and populous town, ſituated on the banks of the Nieper.

The palatinate of Miſciſlaw, or Miſlaw, is, for the moſt part, over-run with woods, or over-flowed with water; but what plain land it has, is generally fruitful. It likewiſe abounds with cattle of all ſorts, and excellent fowl; is divided into two large diſtricts, which are thoſe of Miſciſlaw and Modzeria; and has two ſenators, viz. the palatine and caſtellan.

Its capital, of the ſame name, is a ſmall timber-built town on the river Sos. The Ruſſians received a great defeat near it in 1514; but in 1660 they took it, and maſſacred all the inhabitants.

Mohilow is a large, well built, populous town, ſituated on the river Nieper. It is a great mart for furs, reckoned one of the ſtrongeſt towns of Lithuania, and contains a very fine college.

The palatinate of Witepſk has two ſenators, the palatine and caſtellan.

The city of Witepſk, the capital, ſituated near the conflux of the Witzhu and Dwina, is defended both by art and nature; has two ſtrong caſtles; is large and populous

populous, but built with timber. Commerce is carried on from hence to the city of Riga, by means of the Dwina.

Orſka, or Orſa, is a large timber built city, at the conflux of a river of its own name with the Nieper; is defended on one ſide by the Nieper, and on the other by palliſadoes, and a ſtrong caſtle built of ſtone, which is waſhed by the river Orſa.

The palatinate of Poloczk, or Poloczko, is divided into two diſtricts, and has two ſenators, the palatine and caſtellan of

Poloczk, the capital, which ſtands on the river Dwina, and is a large and populous town, defended by two caſtles. In 1562 John Baſilowitz, great duke of Moſcovy, took it, and carried away moſt of its inhabitants. It remained in the hands of the Ruſſians till the year 1579, when it was recovered by Stephen Bathori, who built and endowed a very fair foundation here for the Jeſuits.

The province of SAMOGICIA is of a triangular form, and ſituated between Courland, Semigallia, and the kingdom of Pruſſia. The length, from eaſt to weſt, is near 190 miles; and the greateſt breadth, from north to ſouth, about 90. The ſoil is marſhy, as the name itſelf, in the language of the country, implies. It contains many rivers and lakes, and has ſome good paſture and corn lands. Some parts are mountainous; and the woods contain prodigious ſwarms of bees. The honey is excellent, and the wax remarkable for its purity and whiteneſs.

There is a breed of horſes here which are ſmall, but ſprightly, ſwift, and hardy. Though the arable ſoil is very ſtiff, the inhabitants are ſo dull and ſtupid, that they uſe none but wooden plough-ſhares; becauſe, when one of their ſtaroſtas, or governors of bailiwicks, thought to introduce iron ſhares, in a ſeaſon which happened not ſo kindly as uſual, they imputed the cauſe of it ſolely to the change of this good tool; ſo that he was forced to let them have their wooden ſhares again, for fear of an inſurrection.

In 1404 Vitoldus, duke of Lithuania, gave this country to the Teutonic knights; but, in 1408, it was taken from them by Uladiſlaus Jagello, king of Poland; after whoſe death, in 1446, by a treaty with Poland, they were again put in poſſeſſion of the duchy: In 1525, when Albert of Brandenburg was made hereditary duke of Pruſſia, it fell to the crown of Poland; but it was almoſt ruined in the Swediſh wars.

The ordinary people here live in cottages, which ſtand, for the moſt part, near lakes and rivers, and are covered either with thatch or boards. They are low, and built longways, with the hearth in the middle. They have but mean furniture, and but one room for themſelves and cattle. The better ſort drink out of horn cups, and eat off of wooden platters. Moſt of the inhabitants differ little in manners, habit, or language, from the Lithuanians. Though Chriſtianity, which was firſt preached here in 1200, prevails in many places, yet ſome of them ſtill retain part of the old Pagan idolatry, the moſt ridiculous of any in Europe, eſpecially in the deſerts, where they worſhip a four-footed ſerpent, by the name of Givoſit. About the end of October, men, women, children, and ſervants, meet at a place appointed, where a cloth being ſpread upon ſtraw, ſeveral loaves are ſet in due order, and between every two a large pot of beer: then beaſts of divers kinds, both male and female, are brought in, and ſacrificed; after which they cut off a bit from every part, which they ſcatter about the room, and then eat and drink heartily. The peaſants of this country differ but little from thoſe of Lithuania. However, they have the following peculiarities worthy of remark. They are not ſo laborious as the Lithuanians, and conſequently have not ſuch plenty of proviſions, &c. therefore, inſtead of bread, they uſe green turnips, as large as a man's head, which grow wild without ſowing. They have a peculiar way of making mead, metheglin, and beer, by quenching ſeveral red-hot ſtones in them ſucceſſively, after it has been boiled a whole night, in order to make their bellies ſoluble. This drink they put into veſſels made of the bark of trees. They reward thoſe that drink hard with preſents of a frock, ſhirt, handkerchief, &c. They live to ſo extraordinary an age, that it is no rarity to ſee perſons here 100 or 120 years old. They are, generally ſpeaking, more robuſt, bold, and nimble, than the Lithuanians; and they plow, ſow, and harrow, all at the ſame time; ſo that the ground, having been once improved by burning, will bear crops ſeven or eight years together, without dunging. When they burn the woods on the lands, if they meet with high trees, they do not cut them down, but only prune off their ſide branches, to let in the rays of the ſun upon the ground, which they perform with great dexterity.

In the time of war they bury their corn underground, in repoſitories made for that purpoſe; previous to which they ſmoak it, which makes the corn keep ſeveral years.

This province has three ſenators, viz. the biſhop, caſtellan, and ſtaroſt.

Rozion, the capital of this province, is but an inconſiderable, ſmall, and ill built town.

Midnick is rather a better built town than Rozion, and is the ſee of a biſhop, ſuffragan to the archbiſhop of Gneſna.

That ſmall part of this province, called Poliſh Livonia, is of very little importance, and contains only one place that deſerves the name of a town, viz. Duneburg, which is a ſtrong, well fortified place, ſituated on the Dwina.

The duchy of COURLAND, called by the inhabitants Kur-Semmer, is a large track of land projecting into the ſea. The length is 200, and the greateſt breadth 80 miles. Many parts of the country are woody, and ſome ſwampy; but when thoſe ſwamps are drained, the ſoil is remarkably fertile, and yields grain, flax; paſture, &c. in abundance. This duchy is likewiſe well ſupplied with fiſh, and abounds in iron ore, minerals, quarries of ſtone, chalk, ſtucco, timber, amber, &c. with which the inhabitants trade to Riga, Libaw, Windaw, Memel, &c.

Horſes and cattle are very plentiful here: and one of their modes of agriculture is to let the water remain upon the low ground for two or three years, and then drain it, when the ſoil is found to be exceedingly enriched.

The eſtabliſhed religion in Courland is the Lutheran. Other ſects, in general, are tolerated, but excluded from holding public employments.

The nobility are diſtinguiſhed by the appellations of old and new. The former only are permitted to enjoy offices of ſtate; but neither are admitted to ſit in the diet of Poland. Both, however, have an unlimited power over their wretched tenants and vaſſals which extends even to life and death. The duke is the patron of ſome of the churches, and the nobility of others. When ſtate neceſſity requires the nobility are obliged to appear on horſeback properly armed; but they are not under any neceſſity to march beyond the frontiers. The duke is permitted to appear in all the regalia allowed to ſovereign princes in Germany, to coin money in his own name, &c. but, in extraordinary caſes, the nobility may appeal to the Ruſſian court; this country being now ſubject to Ruſſia. He keeps a court with all the proper officers of ſtate, and is able, with the aſſiſtance of his nobility, to raiſe a very conſiderable army.

In the year 1558 Ketler, the laſt great maſter of the Teutonic knights, was, by the king of Poland, made hereditary duke of Courland, on condition of his quitting Riga and Livonia, and holding the duchy as a fief of that crown. His deſcendants continued in poſſeſſion of Courland till 1737, when the family being extinct, by the death of Ferdinand, the laſt of the Ketlers, the Courlanders choſe for their duke, Erneſt Count Biron, a native, and chamberlain to the Czarina, Anna

Iwanowna; and he was afterwards inveſted by the king of Poland. In 1740, however, he was baniſhed, with all his family, to Siberia, where he continued ſome years; but at length was recalled, and reinſtated in his honours and dominions. During his diſgrace Courland was governed by four officers of ſtate; when prince Charles, of Saxony, got footing in the duchy, by means of his father, the king of Poland, till the change in the ſovereignty of Ruſſia obliged him to evacuate it. The duke Biron died about the year 1772, and was ſucceeded by his ſon.

The judges here are four captains or ſuperintendants, viz. two for Courland, properly ſo called, and two for Semigallia; but from theſe an appeal lies to the high council, in which the duke in perſon preſides; and even from this council a ſecond appeal may be made to the government of Ruſſia, if the caſe is ſufficiently important; and diſputes, between the duke and his nobles, are decided only by the empreſs of Ruſſia in perſon.

Every two years a diet is held at Mittaw, to which repreſentatives are ſent from every pariſh.

This duchy is divided into Courland Proper, on the weſt ſide, and Semigallia on the eaſt ſide of the river Muſſa; and each of theſe into two captainſhips.

The firſt captainſhip of Courland Proper is Goldingen, ſo named from its chief town, which was formerly one of the Hanſe. It ſtands on the river Wetaw, which falls into the Baltic 40 miles off, and is 70 ſouth-weſt from Riga. It is not conſiderable at preſent, but for its large juriſdiction, though it is adorned with a very fine caſtle.

Windaw, called by the inhabitants Kieſe, hath an harbour near the mouth of the Baltic. It is reckoned the capital city of a palatinate of the ſame name, has a caſtle, formerly the reſidence of the Livonian knights, and the place where the ſtates of Courland held their aſſemblies, which made it populous; but it is now much decayed, being only ſupported by building ſhips for the duke, and by its trade in pitch, tar, wax, &c. exported from it.

Libaw has a good road and harbour, where ſome of the duke of Courland's ſhips are alſo built, and poſſeſſes the greateſt trade of any of his towns.

Piltyn, or Pilten, is a palatinate, as well as the ſeat of a biſhop of Courland, whoſe gentry, being proteſtants, put themſelves formerly under the king of Poland's protection; but on his endeavouring to force a Popiſh biſhop upon them, they ſubmitted to the duke of Courland, and are the richeſt gentry in his dominions.

The captainſhip of Tuckum is ſo called from its chief town, which is about 50 miles eaſt of Goldingen.

Semigallia is the eaſtern diviſion of Courland. Mittaw, on the river Muſſa, 52 miles ſouth of Riga, is the capital of this diviſion, and, indeed, of the whole duchy, as well as the ſeat and burial place of its dukes, who have a magnificent caſtle, which is fortified by two baſtions, encompaſſed by marſhes, and has always a ſtrong garriſon. The town is alſo well fortified, though meanly built, the houſes being partly of brick, partly of timber, and ſome of mixed materials. It is large, and the ſeat of the diets of the duchy. It was ſeveral times taken by the Swedes, particularly by Guſtavus Adolphus, in 1621, and again in 1701, and alſo by the Ruſſians in 1705, but as often recovered. The Aa river, on which the caſtle ſtands, paſſes by this city to the Dwina, with a deep channel, which might be navigable, if the people of Riga had not, for their own intereſt, choaked up the mouth of it.

The town of Mittaw is not very ancient, being founded by a private gentleman of Courland, in the year 1426. It occupies at leaſt as much ground as Riga, but, as the ſtreets are more ſpacious, and the buildings more ſcattered, it cannot properly be regarded as equal in ſize. Moſt of the houſes are of wood, and very mean in their appearance. It is badly paved; and, which is very ſingular, the nobleſſe have oppoſed and prevented the duke's intention to repair this defect, from motives of caprice and obſtinacy.

Bauſke is another ſtrong town on the river Muſſa, or Pluſſa, with a caſtle built on a rock, which has a large garriſon. It was taken by the Swedes in 1701, with the King of Poland's magazines, valued at 300,000 crowns; and he demanded 60,000 from the duchy, beſides vaſt quantities of proviſions. In 1705 the Czar ſurprized this town by ſtratagem, and forced the Swediſh garriſon in the caſtle to ſurrender, juſt after a victory he had obtained over them near Muhrendorf, in this duchy. The Swedes repoſſeſſed it, but quitted it, with the whole duchy, in 1709, after levying great ſums from the inhabitants.

This duchy was an exact reſemblance of Poland in miniature; the ſame ariſtocrary, the ſame turbulence, the ſame political evils exiſted in both. Poland was firſt diſmembered and divided, Courland afterwards inveſted on one ſide by Pruſſia, between which and the empire of Ruſſia, this little province ſhared the fate of its feudal parent, from the ambition and avidity of aſpiring monarchs. The rights of humanity, of juſtice, and of liberty, have been ſo trampled on and deſpiſed in the partition of Poland, that no future action, of a ſimilar nature, can ſurprize, in the preſent age. The duke is a lover of letters, and has nobly founded an academy in Mittaw, which is now compleated, and where profeſſors are entertained, at his own expence, for the inſtruction of the young nobility and perſons of condition in the duchy. This is a very laudable foundation, and does him great honour.

The province of WARSOVIA, or the duchy of WARSAW, is the moſt conſiderable part of the king of Poland's dominions, being the regal reſidence, and the part where the moſt conſiderable of the nobility reſide. It is about 120 miles in length, from ſouth-weſt to north-eaſt, and about 90 in breadth. It has the benefit of ſeveral navigable rivers, eſpecially the Weiſſel, which runs through the ſouth part; and the Bog, which paſſes quite acroſs from eaſt to weſt. The country is plain and fruitful, yielding plenty of corn, cattle, fiſh, and fowl. It was formerly governed by princes of its own, but, in 1526, fell to the king of Poland. It is divided into three palatinates, of which Maſovia Proper is ſubject to the biſhop of Poſen, and has eight ſenators.

The capital of Maſovia is Warſaw, which is a large, handſome, populous, trading city, defended by a double wall and ditch. The kings of Poland uſually keep their court here, in a noble large ſquare palace, built by Sigiſmund III. and beautified by his ſucceſſors; and the grand diets of the kingdom have their ſeſſions here. The city is divided into four parts, viz. the old and new towns, the ſuburbs of Cracow, and the Brag. The chief church, dedicated to St. John the Baptiſt, is very fine; as are the arſenal, the caſtle, the market place, and other public buildings. There is a wooden bridge of excellent workmanſhip over the river; and bevond it the king's palace, called Viaſdow, where the general diet meets. It was built by Uladiſlaus VII. and ſtands amidſt delicate gardens and groves: and not far from it, in the ſuburb called Cracow, there is a ſmall chapel, erected by the king of Poland, in token of a victory gained over the Moſcovites; wherein is a ſepulchral monument of Demetrius Suiſcious, great duke of Moſcovy, who, being taken priſoner, died a captive in Poland.

Goods are brought to this city by the neighbouring rivers, and ſent from hence to Dantzick. The king of Sweden took poſſeſſion of this city in 1704, put a garriſon into the caſtle next year, when he demanded 2400 florins a week for their ſubſiſtence: but, in 1706, king Auguſtus recovered both the town and caſtle. The town paid him 50,000 rixdollars to be exempted from plunder. In 1705 the Swedes defeated the Saxon and Lithuanians near this city, when the Saxon general Patkul was taken priſoner; and next year Staniſlaus, king Auguſtus's rival, was crowned here with his queen. In 1707 the Moſcovites plundered the palaces and gardens

dens of the king and nobility here, and ſent the ſtatues, &c. to Moſcow. Next year a plague raged here, that carried off vaſt numbers; and a fire broke out, which continued burning nine days, and almoſt reduced the whole city to aſhes. In 1712 king Auguſtus returned hither, and held a general diet, which re-acknowledged his title; and in 1715 he ordered this city to be fortified with intrenchments, to prevent ſurprize by the Swedes, and their confederates.

A French writer ſays, he obſerved the ſame politeneſs here as at Paris: that the king maintains a ſet of French comedians, and frequently gives balls and concerts, with noble feaſts, for the entertainment of the nobility: and that the ladies, eſpecially, are paſſionately fond of muſic and plays; are very amiable, witty, and ſprightly; and have a moſt delicate taſte for every thing that paſſes under the name of diverſion.

About half a league from this city, near the village of Wola, there is a plain, where the nobles meet, and encamp in tents, for the election of a king: and about a league from the city there is another palace, that was built by king John Sobieſki, with the name of Villa Nova.

Czerſko, or Czeſtochow, is a ſmall city, the capital of its palatinate, and deemed the ſtrongeſt city in this part of the country, it having a fortreſs, wherein is kept that rich treaſure called the Virgin's; and the nobility ſend their beſt effects hither in time of war. It was beſieged, in vain, by Charles Guſtavus, king of Sweden.

There are three other towns in this palatinate; one of which only deſerves notice, viz. Pultovia, being the reſidence of the biſhop of Poloczko. The town is walled and well built, with ſtately public edifices, and a ſtrong caſtle.

The chief places in the province of Polachia, are Auguſtaw, a handſome town on a lake, founded and named, from king Sigiſmund, Auguſtine.

Bielez, a large town on the river Biela, where the Jews carry on a great trade.

Bialyſtock, a ſmall town, of which great part was deſtroyed by fire in the year 1753. In the neighbourhood is a very fine ſeat and gardens, belonging to the Bonicki family.

Tykocin is a conſiderable town, with a handſome caſtle, on the river Narew. In 1705, in this town, Auguſtus II. king of Poland, inſtituted the order of the White Eagle.

The palatinate of Polesia is overgrown with woods, and has many lakes and pools. It has two ſenators, the palatine and caſtellan.

Brieſcia, the capital, is fortified with a caſtle, built on a rock, and waſhed by the river Muchavecz. Here is an academy, the moſt famous in Europe for Jews, who frequent it from Italy, Germany, Moravia, Sileſia, &c. and take degrees. Without the city there is a royal palace of modern architecture, with variety of pleaſant gardens.

Pinſko is a pretty large town. The inhabitants are very induſtrious, make ſeveral trading journies into Ruſſia and Germany, and are generally of the Greek perſuaſion, there being a biſhop of that ſect reſident among them. This town has ſuffered much by the ravages of the Coſſacks.

Biala is famed for a palace belonging to prince Radxivil, which is now a Gymnaſium, or college for the inſtruction of youth.

Red Russia is near 180 miles in length, and upwards of 100 in breadth, fertile in ſome parts, but mountainous in others, and, in general, well watered through the whole.

Red Ruſſia is divided into three palatinates, viz. Lemberg, Chelm, and Belz.

The palatinate of Lemberg has nine ſenators.

Lemberg, or Leopold, the capital, is a large opulent city, ſituated among hills on the river Peltew. It is the ſee of an archbiſhop, who is deemed both a ſpiritual and temporal lord. This city is large, well built and fortified, having two caſtles, one within the walls, and one without, on a riſing ground, that commands the town; both which, together with the city, were founded by Leo, duke of Ruſſia, about anno 1289. The churches are generally fair and well built, and abound with coſtly ornaments. Here is an academy, ſupplied by profeſſors from that of Cracow, where learned men are much encouraged. The Armenian Catholics here are wholly governed by their own prelate. They enjoy great privileges, on account of the conſiderable commerce they maintain with the Perſians and other eaſtern nations. They are not only provided with fiſh for their own conſumption, from the many ports belonging to it, and from the neighbouring rivers, but ſalt great quantities for exportation. Barbels are taken in great numbers in Roxolania. Here is kept a very famous winter fair, to which the Hungarian, Moldavian, and Turkiſh merchants reſort in great numbers.

Javarow is famous for a natural bath, whoſe virtues are deſcribed by a Poliſh phyſician, named Sixtus Leo.

Premiſlaw is a populous, pleaſant, trading, well built city, and an epiſcopal ſee, on the river Saa, 53 miles weſt from Lemberg. The Ruſſians have a biſhop here, and the Jeſuits had a college. The city is defended by good ſtrong walls, and a caſtle built on a rock on the other ſide of the river. It has ſeveral famous yearly fairs. The king has a very ſpacious park near it, full of all kinds of wild beaſts, and ſtrongly walled in, that they may do no miſchief. The country abounds with caſtles, to keep off the Turks and Tartars, the chief of which is ſaid to be that called Craſſici, built on the river Saa.

Jaroſlaw is defended by a caſtle, and famed for a fair on Lady-day the moſt famous in Poland, frequented by merchants, with their goods, from Perſia, Conſtantinople, Venice, Ruſſia, and Holland. There are uſually brought hither at that time, 400,000 black cattle, and 200,000 horſes. There is a college here, and without the town a ſtately nunnery.

Reſovia has a ſtrong caſtle, an annual fair, and a linen manufactory, carried on by the deſcendants of the Germans, whom Caſimir the Great took priſoners, and ſettled here to manage it.

Lencut has a ſtrong caſtle, and ſeveral magnificent churches.

The ſouth-eaſt part of Red Ruſſia is called Pocutia or the diſtrict of Halicz.

Halicz was once the metropolis of a kingdom, then the capital of a duke, and afterwards the ſee of an archbiſhop. Now it is greatly fallen from its ancient ſplendor, though it is ſtill a large town. The caſtle is ſtrong, the houſes are of wood, and the inhabitants are remarkably clowniſh.

Coloni is a town on the river Prut, much frequented on account of the fine ſalt, with which it furniſhes all the reſt of Red Ruſſia and Lithuania, there being many ſprings here, and none at all in theſe provinces, except only in the diſtrict of Premiſlaw.

Croſna is the ſtaple of Hungary, whoſe wines, and other merchandize, are brought hither, and diſpoſed of at theſe fairs, which are more frequented than thoſe of their neighbourhood.

Sniatyn had formerly fairs, but has ſince much declined.

The palatinate of Chelm contains the town of Chelm, from which it receives its name. It is the ſee of a biſhop, though not the reſidence.

Kraſnoſtow has a court of judicature, and is the reſidence of the biſhop of Chelm, and of a ſtaroſta.

The palatinate of Belz contains Horodla, where a provincial diet and court of judicature are held, and a ſtaroſta reſides.

Rava is a ſmall town, where king Auguſtus entertained the czar Peter the Great, in the year 1698, for three days ſucceſſively.

Belzel is a conſiderable town, from which the palatinate receives its name. Here a palatine, caſtellan,

and ſtaroſta reſide; and a provincial diet and a court of judicature are held.

Zamoſki is a town ſtrongly fortified, has many conſiderable privileges, contains a charitable foundation called Mons-Pietatis, and ſeveral churches, and was originally founded by the celebrated Zamoſki, great chancellor of Poland, in a very pleaſant plain on the banks of the Veſne.

The principal places of the province of PODOLIA are the following:

The city of Caminiec Podolſki, the capital, is a populous, well built city, ſurrounded with high rocks, beſides being fortified with walls, a deep, broad, and ſteep ditch, filled with water by the river which ſurrounds it, and by a very ſtrong caſtle; ſo that it is the ſtrongeſt place on this ſide, and uſed to be reckoned one of the keys of Poland. In the reign of king Sigiſmund III. it was taken by the Coſſacks. It has been attacked ſeveral times by the Walachians, Turks, and Tartars. In 1669 it ſuffered much by fire; and in 1672 was taken by the Turks, who kept poſſeſſion of it, and thereby often made inroads into Poland, and carried away vaſt numbers of captives, till it was agreed to be ſurrendered by the peace at Carlowitz, in the year 1699, and evacuated next ſpring to the Poles, when the diet reſolved, that this town and Podolia ſhould be free from taxes for 10 years. It is the ſee of two biſhops, one a Papiſt, the other an Armenian. The Greeks of Podolia pleaded to be reſtored to their churches, but were denied.

The Lower Podolia, which is the eaſt part, and alſo called the palatinate of Braclaw, from its chief town on the river Bog, was taken by the Turks in 1672, but reſtored by the treaty above mentioned in 1699.

Winnicza has a court of juſtice and a college.

Human was beſieged and taken in 1675, by the Turks, who committed great barbarities here, contrary to the capitulation, raviſhed the fair ſex, murdered the old people and young children, and carried into ſlavery all that were able to walk.

The province of VOLAINIA is divided into the Upper and Lower Palatinates.

The Upper, which is alſo called the palatinate of Luſuc, or Lucko, from its chief town, is a plentiful country, near 200 miles in length, and 100 in breadth. Its chief town ſtands on the river Ster, now a lake, which encompaſſes part of the caſtle, 90 miles north-eaſt from Lemberg. It is a large city, and the ſee of a biſhop, ſuffragan to the archbiſhop of Gneſna; but is chiefly inhabited by Jews, Armenians, and other eaſtern people, who traffic in theſe countries. The cathedral and chapter-houſe are in one of the caſtles, there being two built on hills near this city. Here alſo reſides a Ruſſian biſhop.

Pilaveze is a ſmall city on the river Bog, two leagues from Chmielnich.

Krzemence, the capital of the diſtrict of Cremen, is a ſmall city on a hill, near the river Icua, with a wooden caſtle, founded on a rock, and mud walls. It has been often plundered by the Tartars.

Ulodimer, or Woldximiers, is the reſidence of a Ruſſian biſhop, with a conſiderable juriſdiction.

Brodi is a town with ſtrong fortifications, has a collegiate church, and a public academy.

Olika is a town, with the title of a duchy, belonging to the family of Radzivil, adorned with a fine cathedral, and an academy for all ſorts of art and ſciences.

Conſtantinow, adorned and defended by a well fortified caſtle, ſtands near the ſource of the river Slucz, 75 miles north from Caminiec.

The Lower Volhinia commonly called the palatinate of Kiow, together with Lower Podolia, comprehended in the Ukraine, lies eaſt from the Upper Volhinia; and the river Boriſthenes, or the Nieper, paſſes through the middle of it, from north-weſt to ſouth-eaſt, dividing it into two parts, of which only the weſtern is now ſubject to Poland; the eaſtern being under the Ruſſians. The former is fruitful; but the latter, which, however, abounds with ſalt-petre, is a mere deſert, by reaſon of the neighbourhood of the Tartars.

UKRANIA is a large country, bounded on the north by part of Poland and Ruſſia, on the ſouth by Little Tartary, on the eaſt by the Ockzakow-Tartars, and on the weſt by Moldavia. The name Ukrain is Sclavonic, and ſignifies a frontier, which it really is againſt the Turks and Tartars. This is the country of the Coſſacks, who have their name from Koſa, a ſcythe, their uſual weapon; or Coſa, which, in the Ruſſian language, ſignifies free-booter, or plunderer. They were originally a crew of diſſolute rovers, that aſſembled together, from the frontiers of Ruſſia, Volhinia, and Podolia, to practiſe piracy on the Black Sea. Their chief habitation was betwixt the rivers Nieſter and Nieper; but they extended themſelves a great way eaſt from the latter. The Coſſack language is a dialect of the Poliſh. They are vigorous, hardy, brave, and very jealous of their liberty; fickle and wavering; but ſocial, chearful, and ſprightly. Their forces conſiſt entirely of cavalry; and they are, in ſhort, a powerful people. Their common people are of the Greek church; but the better ſort are generally Romans, or Proteſtants. Their firſt conſiderable appearance, as an united body, was in 1548, in the reign of Sigiſmund I, king of Poland; when they called themſelves volunteers, and aſſembled to the number of 6000, for defence of the country againſt the Turks and Tartars, whom they frequently intercepted at the paſſes of the Nieper, when returning with their prey. Being ſoon joined by multitudes to ſhare their booty, they could, with ſhallow boats, paſs thoſe rocks in the mouth of the Boriſthenes, that hinder the navigation from the Ukrain to the Black Sea; and, during the ſummer, they roved over the ſea, and its coaſts, making deſcents upon Natolia, and pillaging and ſpoiling wherever they came, even to the walls of Conſtantinople. Stephen Bathori, king of Poland, formed them into an orderly militia; and, intending to uſe them againſt the Tartars, gave them the town and territory of Trethimirow in this palatinate, which they made their magazine; appointed a general over them, and gave them many privileges; and for ſome time they did the Poles great ſervice, by oppoſing the Tartars: yet being ſenſible of their ſtrength, they began to ſet up for themſelves; and in the year 1589, rebelled; but their general being taken and executed, it was for a time quieted. About the year 1600 they were ſo powerful, that the Poles were forced to raiſe a large army againſt them, who often worſted them, and took their generals; but ſtill they continued mutinous; wherefore their privileges were taken away; and they continued in a ſtate of enmity till about the year 1640, when king Uladiſlaus VI. making war upon the Tartars, collected them together, and ſet over them for a general Chmielniſki, who was afterwards a better and formidable enemy to Poland; for the Coſſacks being oppreſſed by the Popiſh nobility, their landlords, and, on complaint, receiving no redreſs, aſſembled in vaſt numbers; and, calling in the Tartars, furiouſly attacked the Poles: but king John Caſimir made ſuch a ſtand againſt them, that, in 1649, the Tartars accepted a peace. Chmielniſki, having obliged the prince of Moldavia to join him, it produced another war in 1651, wherein the Tartars and Coſſacks were worſted; and ſince that time they have not been ſo conſiderable.

In 1677 this country was reſigned by the Poles to the Turks, with liberty to the Coſſacks of this part to chuſe their own general, or prince, dependent on the ſultan, who kept poſſeſſion of it till the year 1699, when, by the peace of Carlowits, it was reſtored to the Poles. The only towns of note, on the weſt ſide of the Nieper, are,

Trethimirow, or the Nieper, a ſtrong place, and defended by a caſtle.

Ozykaſſy, which uſed to be the chief retreat of the Coſſacks, ſtands near the ſame river. It was burnt by the Poles in 1636, but has been ſince repaired.

SECTION. III.

Perſons, Diſpoſitions, Ranks, Dreſs, Diet, Houſes, Religion, Diſeaſes; Ceremonies baptiſmal and matrimonial; Cuſtoms, Bull and Bear hunting, &c.

THE Poles, in their perſons in general, are tall, well proportioned, and comely. Their complexion is fair, and their hair commonly of a pale yellow. They enjoy good conſtitutions, and have a healthful look. They are characteriſed, upon the whole, as brave, honeſt, and hoſpitable; but the common people are very illiterate and bigotted.

With reſpect to the ſuperior people of Poland, like thoſe of Ruſſia, they are rather ſatisfied with a trifling and ſuperficial knowledge of things, than to carry their literary purſuits to any great height.

The Poles, like moſt of the northern nations, and like all governments where the feudal laws, or at leaſt their remains, prevail, are divided into four diſtinct claſſes, viz. nobles; clergymen and lawyers; merchants and burghers; farmers, labourers, ſoldiers, &c.

Though Poland has its princes, counts, and barons, yet the whole body of the nobility are on a level, excepting the difference that ariſes from the public poſts they enjoy. Here all who are of noble extraction call one another brothers. They have many conſiderable privileges, power of life and death over their peaſants and vaſſals, pay no taxes, are ſubject to none but the king, may chuſe whom they pleaſe for their king, and in a word, lay their king under what reſtraint they pleaſe. In ſhort, they are almoſt independent: but if they engage in trade, they forfeit their nobility.

The Poliſh clergy, in general, are illiterate and bigotted; and ſome of the monks profligate to a degree. The Poliſh clergy have vaſt ſway; and it has been chiefly owing to their influence and conduct, that the peaſants here have been reduced to ſuch a ſtate of wretched ſlavery.

The only traders of Poland, who have any ſkill in mercantile affairs, are the citizens of Dantzick, and the Jews who are ſcattered throughout the kingdom. The Poliſh mechanics are very aukward; and the artiſans, in general, are but little acquainted with modern improvements. A recent writer ſays, there are undoubtedly men of good natural talents among the citizens and trading part of the Poliſh nation; but, in the firſt place, they are kept very poor by the Jews, who, being protected by the nobility, carry on almoſt all the inland trade of the kingdom: ſecondly, they are not properly inſtructed in their reſpective trades; and, thirdly, they are kept in a ſtate of oppreſſion; and are, in many reſpects, denied the common rights of mankind. The farmers and labourers, who form the bulk of the people, are in a moſt deplorable and wretched ſituation. The ſituation of the negroes, in many of our Weſt-India plantations, is ſuperior to theirs. They have no other ideas but thoſe of tyranny and ſlavery. The wretchedneſs of their ſituation makes them indolent and careleſs about life, as they have reflection enough to perceive, that coarſe food and raiment are all they can expect: but thoſe among them, to whom nature has given any talents, have ſenſibility enough, at times, to feel the weight of their oppreſſion, which deſtroys all kind of emulation, and, through reſentment, prevents them from doing any more for their oppreſſors, than they are forced to do by acts of violence.

The Poles cut the hair of their heads ſhort, and ſhave their beards, leaving only large whiſkers. They wear a veſt, which reaches down to the middle of the leg, and a kind of gown over it, lined with fur, and girded with a ſaſh; but the ſleeves ſit cloſe to their arms. They have fur caps; but neither ſtocks or neckcloths; and their ſhirts are without collars or wriſtbands. Their breeches are wide, and make but one piece with their ſtockings. They have no ſhoes; in lieu of which they wear Turkey leather boots, with their ſoles, and deep iron heels, bent like a half-moon. They carry a pole-axe, and a ſabre or cutlaſs by their ſide. On horſeback they wear a ſhort cloak, covered with furs, both within and without. Perſons of rank wear ſables, and the ſkins of tygers, leopards, &c. The peaſants commonly wear a ſheep ſkin, with the wool on, in winter; and, in ſummer, a thick coarſe cloth, inſtead of boots, buſkins, and ſhoes, made of the bark of trees. The habit of the women much reſembles that of the men, being a ſimple Polonaiſe, or long robe, edged with fur. But ſome perſons of quality, of both ſexes, affect the French or Engliſh modes of dreſs.

Their diet is generally freſh meat, fowl, and fiſh: and they drink the ſtrongeſt of Rheniſh, French, Spaniſh, Italian and Hungarian wines; brandy, aniſeed-water, and other ſpirits. Their ſauces, &c. are ſo enriched with ſpices, that ſome of the nobility ſpend great ſums in that commodity: and their uſual breakfaſt is a hot pot of beer, with eggs, ſugar and ginger. They hang the carcaſes of elks at their gates till they ſtink, then dreſs and eat them, as a great curioſity, to be met with no where but at the tables of their chief nobility; yet their butcher's meat is delicious, and they have plenty of good fiſh. When they are invited to another's table, they muſt carry their ſpoons, knives, &c. with them; and their linen too, if they would be cleanly: for they have no napkins, but a broad piece of ſtarched linen, ſewed round the table-cloth, that their ſervants may not ſteal it. The ladies carry napkins with them, and put up as much ſweetmeats and dried fruits as they pleaſe. The maſters reach meat from the table to the ſervants, who eat it as they ſtand by the chairs: and the maſter of the feaſt is reckoned a niggard, if he does not make his gueſts drunk.

It is the cuſtom for the maſter of the houſe, and his intimates, to drink the beſt wine; while the other gueſts, that are invited, are obliged to put up with the common ſort.

Bumpers are much in faſhion here; nor will they eaſily excuſe any perſon from pledging them.

The houſes are generally low, for they ſeldom lie above ſtairs. Some of them are of brick and ſtone, but the greateſt part of wood. The kitchen is on one ſide of the court, the ſtable on another, the dwelling-houſe is on a third, and the gate in the front. The richer ſort having hangings of tapeſtry, or arras, and beds with taffata curtains; but ſeldom any accommodation to lodge ſtrangers.

The inhabitants of Poland were converted from Paganiſm to Chriſtianity, by Aldebert, archbiſhop of Gneſna, about the year 964, and ever ſince the religion of the church of Rome hath been predominant here, except in Red Ruſſia, where many of the people adhere to the Greek church. Some of the Greek church ſubmit to that of Rome, but have their worſhip in Greek. They have alſo Arminians, who comply with the church of Rome, but have their worſhip in their own language.

The king, though a Papiſt, was obliged by his coronation oath, to tolerate Lutheraniſm in Poliſh Pruſſia, where there are whole cities of Lutherans, as Dantzick, Elbing, Thorn, and Marienburg; and ſome Calveniſts; eſpecially in the Ducal Pruſſia. Fauſtus Socinus was of this nation; and his followers, from him called Socinians, grew very numerous in the laſt century: but king John Caſimir made an edict againſt them, which was enforced by his ſucceſſor, king John Sobieſki, who drove them quite out of the kingdom. The generality of the Papiſts here are great bigots, and their intereſt is ſtrengthened by the preſidencies of their biſhops in the grand and petty diets. The inferior clergy have a place alſo in all courts of judicature; and the great ſecretary of the kingdom is always a churchman. The regular clergy, as they call the monks, are more eſteemed than the ſecular; and the mendicant friars have the privilege to enter the private

room of any houſe without knocking at the door. The ſecular clergy are generally rich, but diſſolute. The inferior clergy ſeldom attend their office in the church, but give poor ſcholars two-pence a day to officiate for them; nor do the biſhops correct the inferior clergy for their miſbehaviour.

The common people may be guilty of inebrity, without rebuke, on their faſt days, provided they abſtain from fleſh, &c. and they will not eat butter and cheeſe on ſuch days, though the Pope gives them a diſpenſation. At the elevation of the hoſt the people knock their heads againſt the pavement, or benches, hard enough to be heard at a diſtance. Their churches are fine, and well adorned; and the prieſts affect rich veſtments. The prieſts at Leopold have a cape they wear at maſs, embroidered ſo thick with pearls and jewels, that it is a perfect burden. In winter the women of rank, and ſome of the men, have furred bags in the churches, that they may preſerve their feet from the exceſſive cold.

The language of the Poles is a dialect of the Sclavonic, and is both harſh and inharmonious, from the vaſt number of conſonants in it. The Lithuanians, and Livonians, have a language full of corrupted Latin words: but the Ruſſian and German tongues are underſtood in the provinces bordering on thoſe countries.

Moſt of the diſeaſes of the Poles proceed from their drunkenneſs, to which they are ſo addicted, that they have a proverb, ſignifying, "That a man may as well drink water as wine, if he does not feel the effects of drinking." The diſtemper peculiar to the Poles, is that called the Plica; in which the hair of the head is matted together and entangled in one night's time, in ſpite of all care to prevent it. If it be cut off, it occaſions a dimneſs of ſight, if not a total loſs of it, together with an eruption of puſtules all over the body, and pains in the head and limbs; yet foreigners, who have been infected with it, ſay, they have cut off their hair without any bad conſequence. The Poles are not much troubled with other diſeaſes; and ſcurvy, malignant fevers, and pleuriſies, are ſeldom of ſuch ill conſequence here as in other countries.

The baptiſmal and matrimonial ceremonies in Poland, are the ſame as in other Roman Catholic countries; but the funerals of the people of quality are ſo pompous and magnificent, that they look more like triumphs. The corpſe is carried in a hearſe or chariot, drawn by ſix horſes all covered with black. The coffin has a large black velvet pall over it, with a croſs of red ſattin in the middle, and ſix long black ſilk taſſels, ſupported by ſix of the deceaſed's domeſtics in cloſe mourning. Several prieſts, monks and others, walk before the hearſe with wax tapers; and immediately before it comes three men on horſeback, who carry the arms of the deceaſed; one his ſword, another his lance, and the third his dart. As ſoon as the funeral ſervice is over, they ride furiouſly into the church, break the arms of the deceaſed upon the coffin, and the body is interred; after which there is a feaſt, where both clergy and laity drink to exceſs. When women of quality mourn, they wear coarſe black ſtuff; and their linen is not much better than canvas; and the greater the quality, the coarſer are the mourning weeds. When the king dies, he is laid on a bed of ſtate, and a certain number of ſenators, eccleſiaſtical and temporal, are appointed to attend his corpſe. The public defrays the funeral expences out of the revenue of the crown. The queen has the ſame honours paid her, when ſhe dies, as the king; and all the ſenators, deputies, &c. that repair to the diet for the election of a king, muſt be in black.

By the laws of Poland, the eſtate of the father is equally divided among the children, except any of them go into a monaſtery, in which caſe their parts are divided amongſt the reſt; and the younger children here, as in other Popiſh countries, are encouraged by their parents to take the vow upon them, that their eſtates may be preſerved entirely to the eldeſt ſon.

The method of hunting bulls and bears in Poland is this. They ſurround the wild bulls with a great number of horſemen, of whom every one rides up and darts an arrow at him, upon which the creature purſues him, during which another darts him behind; whereupon he faces about to purſue the latter; and thus by turns they ſo harraſs him, that the beaſt, being quite tired with purſuing ſo many aſſailants, falls down, and is eaſily taken. Another way of taking them, is by felling a great number of trees, and thereby enclоſing them, when each hunter, having his poſts, darts at him; and as the bull runs towards his enemy, the hunter from behind gives him his death-wound; but if he breaks through the enclоſure, the next hunter holds out a piece of red cloth, againſt which the beaſt having an antipathy, he forthwith leaves that perſon, and runs at another, who, being provided for him, commonly kills him. When they hunt for bears, they take thoſe of the biggeſt ſize with nets; and, when they have hampered him, all the hunters ride about him, and having pinned down his head and feet with great wooden forks they ſo bind him about with ſtrong hempen cords, that he is not able to ſtir; then they roll him into a great wooden cheſt. The knots of the cords are ſo contrived, that with one pull they may be untied. The bear is kept thus till they have a mind to hunt him, and then they let him out of a trap door made for the purpoſe.

SECTION IV.

Government of Poland, Power of the ſuperior Claſs, honorary Inſtitutions, &c.

AS the partitioning powers, at the diſmemberment of the provinces of Poland, proceeded to change the conſtitution and government, under pretence of amending them, the general forms cannot be aſcertained. We can, therefore, only relate that mode which, in ſome degree, ſubſiſts in thoſe parts which may now be termed the dominions of the king of Poland.

The government of Poland, in fact, differs little from an ariſtocracy. The king is elected by the nobility and clergy; immediately after which he ſigns the *pacta conventa* of the kingdom, by which he engages to introduce no foreigners into the army or government; ſo that as his power is circumſcribed within very narrow bounds, he is, in effect, no more than the prince or chief regent in a free commonwealth; ſince he can do nothing without the bounds of that authority which the laws of the land have given him, and the nobles take care to maintain.

For the adminiſtration of juſtice, civil and criminal, ſeveral courts are held in Poland; but the moſt conſiderable are the parliaments, compoſed of a certain number of gentlemen, clergy, and laity, who are choſen in each palatinate; the lay members once in four years, and the eccleſiaſtical once in two years. Of theſe parliaments there are two for the kingdom, and one for the duchy. Thoſe for the kingdom ſit at Lublin, in Upper, and Petricow in Lower Poland; and that for the duchy is held one year at Vilna, and the other year at Minſki, or Novogrodeck, by turns. Theſe courts receive appeals from inferior courts, and from them lies no appeal, except to the king and ſenate.

A king of Poland can neither marry, nor divorce a wife, without the conſent of the republic. If he marries after his coronation, the queen cannot be crowned without his aſking their conſent; nor even then, unleſs ſhe be a Roman Catholic. When ſhe is to be crowned, the king muſt conduct her to the church, and preſent her to the archbiſhop of Gneſna, or the biſhop who anoints her with the conſecrated oil, and puts the crown upon her head, and the ſceptre into her right hand, and the globe of gold into her left. The queens of Poland have no officers but a marſhal and a chancellor, neither of whom are ſenators, but only judges of the differences that happen among her domeſtics. They anſwer the addreſſes that are made to the queen when

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an ambaſſador makes her a compliment in his maſter's name, or when a preſent is made to her at the marriage of a maid of honour. The king furniſhes the queen with money to defray the charge of her houſehold; but, after his death, ſhe muſt maintain herſelf, and all her retinue, with the revenue which the king beſtows upon her, with the conſent of the republic, both for her dowry, and for her marriage preſent. Theſe revenues are called the Reformation, and conſiſt of the reverſion of a certain number of ſtaroſties, which ſhe cannot enjoy till they become vacant by the death of the preſent poſſeſſors; and ſometimes thoſe who poſſeſs the ſtaroſties that are in her reformation, outlive her: but if the king dies before the queen's reformation be ſettled upon her, the republic allows her a yearly penſion out of the crown lands.

The titles of the king are, king of Poland, great duke of Lithuania, duke of Ruſſia, Pruſſia, Maſſovia, Samogitia, Kiovia, Volhinia Podolia, Polachia, Livonia, Smolenſko, Severia, and Czernichovia.

All his revenue is clear to himſelf; for he pays no troops, nor even his own guards; all the public expences being provided for by the ſenate: and all the officers of the houſehold are Poliſh gentlemen, who ſerve without ſalary, in expectation of ſome office.

A king of Poland may remit fines and capital puniſhments; and, upon invaſions or rebellions, can ſummon the nobility to his ſtandard. He can engage mercenary troops, diſband armies, and puniſh thoſe who tranſgreſs their duty. The king may nominate the great officers of ſtate, make eccleſiaſtical, military, and civil promotions; but all are accountable for their conduct to the ſenate; neither can the king diſplace them when once appointed. All the laws, leagues, negociations, and embaſſies, muſt be in his name, and paſs under his ſeal; as do all letters patent, &c.

The ſenate conſiſts of 16 biſhops, beſides the primate, who is chief, and about 130 laymen named by the king, and are for life; viz. the ten great officers of ſtate of the kingdom of Poland and duchy of Lithuania; to whom are added, the palatines and the leſſer ſenators, who are the caſtellans and lieutenants of the palatinates, and the deputies of the nobility. They are created by the king, after they have taken an oath to preſerve the liberties of the republic, by virtue whereof they controul the king, when he invades their privileges: and as this court is looked upon to be the bulwark of the commonwealth, againſt the attempts of the king, therefore four of the ſenators are always about his perſon, on pretence of being his counſellors; though, in truth, they are but ſpies on him. None of the ſenators can go out of the kingdom without leave of the republic. In the general diets they ſit on the right and left hand of the king, according to their dignity, and not according to the ſeniority of their reception; and it is they who, without the king, approve and ratify all the conſtitutions which the nobility propoſe to them by their deputies: ſo that the ſenators are, as it were, mediators between the king and the nobility, to preſerve and defend the authority of the republic.

The chief ſecular ſenators are, in number, 36, viz. 32 palatines, who are, properly, governors of provinces; three caſtellans, viz. of Cracow, Vilna, and Troki; and the ſtaroſt of Samogitia. It is obſerved, that tho' the quality of caſtellan and ſtaroſta is inferior to that of palatine, theſe four laſt mentioned poſſeſs almoſt the firſt rank among the lay ſenators. The office of a palatine is to lead the troops of his palatinate to the army, to preſide in the aſſemblies of the nobility in his province, to ſet a price upon goods and merchandize, to ſee that the weights and meaſures be not altered, and to judge and defend the Jews. He has a vice-palatine under him, who muſt take an oath to him, and who ought to have an eſtate in the land, which they call Poſſeſſionatus.

The caſtellans are the next in dignity to the palatines; and there are two ſorts of them in the kingdom, who are uſually diſtinguiſhed by the title of great caſtellans, and petty or ſub-caſtellans. They are all ſenators, lieutenants, or deputies of the palatines, and heads of the nobility, in their reſpective juriſdictions.

The Poliſh diets are of two kinds, viz. either ordinary or extraordinary. The ordinary diets meet every ſecond year; but the extraordinary diets only upon particular occaſions, when ſummoned by the king; but one diſſenting voice renders all their deliberations ineffectual.

Every gentleman is a ſovereign prince in his own eſtate, and has power of life and death over his tenants, who are perfect ſlaves, without laws or privileges to protect them. They dare not leave their maſter's lands to go to another's, unleſs he violates their wives or daughters; ſo that they are often glad of that plea. If a gentleman actually kills one of his own ſlaves, he only pays 15 livres; and if he kills another's, he is only obliged to furniſh another, or as much money as will buy one, and to maintain the deceaſed's family. If one gentleman kills another, he cannot be executed without the king's conſent; ſo that they frequently eſcape. No ſoldiers can be quartered upon the gentry; and if any officer does it, he is ſentenced to die, or elſe declared infamous by the diet: nor can the king himſelf lodge at a nobleman's houſe without aſking his leave. Mean time their houſes are ſuch ſanctuaries for delinquents, that, though they may be arreſted there, they cannot be taken from thence without the maſter's leave. By the conſtitution of Poland, the gentry cannot be arreſted till convicted by juſtice; ſo that he muſt be firſt ſummoned to the tribunal, where he is to be tried. If he does not appear, he is declared contumacious; and if he does appear, and is convicted, he is then arreſted, and impriſoned, in order to be afterwards ſentenced, according to the laws and the nature of his crime. If a foreigner dies without iſſue, his eſtate falls not to the king, but to the lord of the manor. The product of the lands of the gentry may be exported without paying cuſtom; and a certificate, upon oath, exempts the purchaſer from paying it. Neither the king or the republic confers the title of prince on any but the ſons of the royal family; and though five or ſix of the chief families have, perhaps, the title of princes of the empire, it gives them no ſort of precedency. When their gentry travel into France or Germany, they aſſume the title of counts and barons, that they may have the eaſier acceſs to perſons of quality; eſpecially in Germany, where they ſcarce think any one a gentleman under a baron, and conſequently, not worthy of their converſation.

They never had any order of knighthood before that of the immaculate Conception, erected by Sigiſmund III. with ſome privileges above the reſt of the gentry, who ſo much deſpiſed it, that the order ſoon came to nothing. King Auguſtus, in 1705, created that called the order of the White Eagle, in remembrance of his happily meeting the diet of Lithuania, when the Swedes and Staniſlaus thought to have intercepted him. The badge is a white eagle, crowned with diamonds. He conferred it on ſeveral lords: but the ſenators are diſtinguiſhed by wearing a golden croſs, with a badge in the middle of it.

The king inſtituted the order of Staniſlaus in 1765. The badge is a gold croſs enamelled red; and on the centre of it is a medallion, with the image of St. Staniſlaus, enamelled in proper colours. Many of the grandees have ſuch large territories, that they can raiſe from 5000 to 10,000 men apiece, and maintain them, which makes them ſo proud, that when great mens law ſuits are decided by the diet, or other tribunals, the execution of the ſentence muſt be left to the longeſt ſword; for the grandees ſometimes raiſe five or ſix hundred men of a ſide, plunder and burn one another's towns, beſides caſtles, and fight it out, rather than ſubmit to the ſentence of a bench of judges. They eſteem themſelves, eſpecially the ſenators, above any German prince, want nothing of ſovereign power but the liberty of coining money, which is reſerved to the republic,

republic; and ſome of them are hereditary ſovereigns of cities with which the king has nothing to do.

SECTION V.

Commerce, Trade, Manufactures, Coin, Revenues, Reſources, and Armament of Poland.

THE commerce and trade of Poland, generally conſidered, are neither various in articles, or extenſive in degree. In the interior parts ſome linen and woollen cloths, and hard wares, are manufactured; but commerce is confined to the city of Dantzick, and a few other towns on the Viſtula and Baltic. Dantzick, in particular, is an excellent port; and there is a navigation by the Viſtula from thence to the interior parts of the kingdom, whereby all kinds of merchandize may be imported and exported with great facility.

The coins of Poland are the gold ducat, which is worth about 4s. 3d. the ſilver dollar of Dantzick, which is worth about 4s. 6d. the rix-dollar of Thorn, which is worth about 4s. 5d. and the rix-dollar of Sigiſmund III. and Uladiſlaus IV. which is worth about 4s. 6d.

Notwithſtanding the circumſcribed power of the king of Poland, with reſpect to his political prerogative, the revenues of his dominions are adequate to a ſplendid maintenance; ſince, as before obſerved, he pays no troops, or officers of ſtate. By the diſmemberment, Poland, indeed, loſt near half her annual income. To ſupply this deficiency, however, it was found neceſſary to new model and increaſe the taxes, not only to make up the king's revenue, but to keep up a ſtanding army, for the defence of theſe parts of the kingdom which the partitioning powers ſuffered the king to retain.

By the ancient laws of Poland, the nobility, upon all great occaſions, were to take the field on horſeback, together with their adherents; and when this rule was properly carried into execution, a body of 100,000 men might be raiſed. This army was always called Poſpolite; but, from a variety of cauſes, it uſually moved with great difficulty, and was generally without diſcipline, ſubordination, or experience. The Poliſh army, however, of late years, hath not been ſo numerous; yet, previous to the late diſmemberment, the peace eſtabliſhment was 36,000 men; that is, 24,000 for Poland, and 12,000 for Lithuania, two-thirds of which were cavalry. The two bodies of troops that form the Poliſh army are commanded by two generals, who are independent of each other: and though they are named by the king, they are not obliged to give an account of their operations but to the republic, and have an abſolute authority over the troops. The colonels are likewiſe abſolute maſters of their regiments; and it is their buſineſs to find ſubſiſtence for them, and to pay them as well as they can; but being rarely paid themſelves, they deſtroy the country, and ruin the farmers, to ſatisfy their avarice, and that of their troops. The Poliſh nobility appear with more magnificence in the fields than in their towns; their tents being more elegantly ornamented than their houſes. The cavalry, which is the greateſt part of the army, is chiefly compoſed of gentlemen. They have fine horſes, and their ſaddles, bridles, &c. are richly ornamented. The very contraſt to their cavalry is their infantry; for as much as the former is magnificently ornamented, the latter is badly cloathed, badly armed, and often without uniforms. The corps is recruited from among the meaneſt of the people, and they reſemble an army of vagabond Tartars. The Poliſh troops have but very little diſcipline among them. They attack with great fury; but if they are repulſed, they immediately retire with great precipitation, and there is the greateſt difficulty in rallying them.

The martial, as well as the commercial, ſpirit of the Poliſh nation, has, doubtleſs, been greatly checked by its reſpective invaders, who find it expedient to keep up ſuch armies as ſhall not only overawe the people they have ſubjected, but totally diſcourage them from attempting to introduce any reformation among them, either civil or military. Hence the very languid ſtate of what is called the kingdom of Poland.

HISTORY OF POLAND.

THE origin of the Poles, like that of many other nations, is enveloped in obſcurity. The ancient Poles are repreſented by Tacitus, the Roman hiſtorian, who gives a ſhort account of them, as a rude and barbarous people, living by robbery and plunder, and rambling from place to place, almoſt in a ſtate of nature, wholly negligent of cultivation in every ſenſe and degree. The firſt perſon we read of that maintained any ſuperiority over them, was Lechus, who aſſumed the title of duke about the year 550. From that period they were under divers petty chiefs, till the year 700, when they gave the ſovereign command to Cracus, the founder of the city of Cracow. On failure of iſſue in his line, (the laſt of which was Caſimir I.) the Poles elected to the ſupreme command, in 830, a peaſant, named Piaſtus, who, living to a great age, and ruling with honour to himſelf, and advantage to the people, every native of Poland, who has, from his time, been elected king, is called, in commemoration of him, a Piaſt. The title of Duke was retained from the laſt mentioned period till the year 999, when Boleſlaus aſſumed the title of king, conquered Moravia, Pruſſia, and Bohemia, and rendered them tributary to Poland. Boleſlaus II. marrying the heireſs of Red Ruſſia, annexed that province to Poland in 1059.

The kings of Poland, among whom was Caſimir III. were abſolute ſovereigns, until the reign of Lewis anno 1370, when the Poles inſiſted on limiting the prerogative; probably becauſe Lewis was king alſo of Hungary, and they ſuſpected he would favour his native country to their prejudice. Lewis being ſucceeded by his daughter and heireſs, Hedwigis, anno 1382, ſhe married Uladiſlaus V. great duke of Lithuania, on condition he ſhould become a Chriſtian, and their iſſue ſhould ſucceed both to the crown of Poland and to the duchy of Lithuania, which have been united ever ſince.

Uladiſlaus, their ſon, ſucceeded them, and was alſo king of Hungary. This prince was killed in a battle with Amurath, the Turkiſh emperor, and leaving no iſſue, was ſucceeded by his brother Caſimir IV. between whom and the knights of the Teutonic order, who had been placed in Pruſſia by the Pope, there were continual wars; until it was agreed, that the knights ſhould remain poſſeſſed of Eaſtern or Ducal Pruſſia, the grand maſter taking an oath of fealty to the king of Poland. In this reign the repreſentatives of the ſeveral palatinates, or provinces, were firſt ſummoned to ſit in the diet, or aſſembly of the ſtates; the great officers of the crown and dignified clergy only enjoying that privilege till then. In this reign alſo the learning of Latin was ſo much encouraged, that it became the language of the common people. Sigiſmund ſucceeded to the crown, anno 1507, in whoſe reign Luther's doctrine was received at Dantzick, and ſome other towns in the north of Poland.

In the reign of Sigiſmund II. the Ruſſians invaded Livonia, then poſſeſſed by the Teutonic knights, who called in the Poles to their aſſiſtance. Other Provinces called in the Swedes; and theſe three powers contended for the dominion of Livonia many years.

Henry of Valois, duke of Anjou, was elected king of Poland in 1574; but his brother Charles, the French king dying, he quitted Poland, and ſucceeded to the crown of France anno 1577.

Stephen Bathori, prince of Tranſilvania, was elected king of Poland on the abdication of Henry. In his reign the ſupreme courts of juſtice were firſt erected; before which time the king and council were the laſt reſort in caſes of appeal.

Sigiſmund

Sigiſmund III. ſon of John, king of Sweden, was elected king on his renouncing Lutheraniſm, anno 1587.

Uladiſlaus, his ſon, ſucceeded him, anno 1632; and invading Ruſſia, took the capital city of Moſcow; and, on a treaty that enſued, he obliged the Ruſſians to confirm the provinces of Smolenſko and Zermigof to Poland.

Uladiſlaus leaving no iſſue, was ſucceeded by his brother, John Caſimir, anno 1648, though he was then a cardinal. In this reign the old Coſſacks being diſobliged, renounced their allegiance to the Poles, and became ſubjects to the Ruſſians and Turks.

Charles Guſtavus, king of Sweden, conquered Poland, but loſt it again in ſix months; after which John Caſimir introduced an army of 30,000 Germans to defend the kingdom againſt the Swedes; but the Poles ſuſpecting he intended to render himſelf abſolute, depoſed him; whereupon he retired into France, and was made abbot of the abby of St. Germains.

Michael Wilnoweiſki being elected anno 1670, the Turks conquered Podolia in his reign; but were defeated by John Sobieſki, who was elected on the death of Wilnoweiſki. This prince raiſed the ſiege of Vienna anno 1683, and, after, a glorious reign, died in 1696.

Upon the death of Sobieſki, there appeared a great many candidates for the throne; but the prince of Conti had the greateſt number of electors for him, and was declared king by the primate. The reſt of the candidates, however, joining Auguſtus, elector of Saxony, and making his party much ſuperior to that of the French, the elector was proclaimed king, anno 1697, and the prince of Conti obliged to return to France.

We have already related, in our hiſtory of Sweden, the manner in which Auguſtus was driven from the throne of Poland, by the celebrated Charles XII. (who procured the advancement of Staniſlaus,) and afterwards reſtored by the czar Peter the Great; and ſhall therefore, proceed to obſerve, that Auguſtus was not fully confirmed on the throne, which he held upon precarious terms, till the year 1712. The Poles, naturally attached to Staniſlaus, were perpetually forming conſpiracies and plots againſt Auguſtus, who was obliged to maintain his authority by means of his Saxon guards.

In 1725 his natural ſon, prince Maurice, afterwards the famous count Saxe, was choſen duke of Courland; but Auguſtus was not able to maintain him in that dignity, againſt the power of Ruſſia, and the jealouſy of the Poles.

In 1733, Auguſtus III. died; and his death having been expected ſome time, the emiſſaries of France had bribed ſeveral of the leading men in favour of Staniſlaus, whoſe daughter the French king had married. On the other hand, the emperor and Ruſſia made intereſt to advance Auguſtus, the ſon of the late king, to the throne, who was the only legitimate iſſue of his late Poliſh majeſty.

The French having gained over the primate to their intereſt, he ſent circular letters to the ſeveral palatines, requiring them to take ſuch meaſures as might exclude all foreigners from the Poliſh throne; by which he intended to recommend Staniſlaus, and exclude the elector of Saxony. Staniſlaus was actually re-elected to the throne by a conſiderable party, of which the prince primate was at the head; but Auguſtus, entering Poland with a powerful army of Saxons and Ruſſians, compelled his rival to retreat into Dantzick, from whence he eſcaped, with great difficulty, into France.

The king of Poland entered into a confederacy with Bavaria, Pruſſia, and the French, againſt the houſe of Auſtria, in 1740, in hopes of coming in for a ſhare of the hereditary dominions of the late emperor Charles VI. in which he did not ſucceed. He afterwards changed ſides, and entered into an alliance with the empreſs queen againſt Pruſſia, in which he was defeated, the capital of his German dominions plundered, and he was forced to fly into Bohemia. But in this great diſtreſs he appears to have been ſo little in favour with his ſubjects the Poles, that they gave him no manner of aſſiſtance or countenance, but left him to make the beſt peace he could with Pruſſia.

Auguſtus III. died at Dreſden in 1763, when count Staniſlaus Poniatowſki was unanimouſly choſen king, by the name of Staniſlaus Auguſtus. He was born in 1732, and crowned king of Poland in 1764. While a private nobleman, he reſided ſome time in London, and was choſen a member of the royal ſociety. As he was peculiarly favoured by the empreſs of Ruſſia, and ſome Proteſtant powers, the papers which he ſigned at the time of his election, were deemed too favourable to the Proteſtants in general, and the Greeks in particular. Hence the army, which the empreſs of Ruſſia had in Poland, furniſhed a pretence for various confederacies to be formed againſt the king by the Roman Catholics; and the conſpiring nobles, at length, were induced to throw off all allegiance to the ſovereign, and put themſelves under the protection of the Grand Seignior. This ſtep occaſioned the Ottoman Porte to declare war againſt Ruſſia, and invade Poland with a powerful army. Hurried on by blind zeal, the confederates precipitated the ruin of their devoted country; and ſome of the neighbouring powers, invited by their incautious enthuſiaſm, took an advantage of this civil war, and diſmembered this once powerful kingdom. So far was diſſimulation uſed in the diſmemberment, or partitioning of Poland, (as the powers concerned think proper to term it,) that they all expreſsly deny having had the leaſt intention to ſeize any of the Poliſh provinces, or in any wiſe to divide that country. In the act of renunciation, tranſmitted to the court of Warſaw in the year 1764, and ſealed with the ſeal of the Ruſſian empire, the empreſs of Ruſſia ſays, "She did by no means arrogate, either to herſelf, her heirs and ſucceſſors, or to her empire, any right or claim to the diſtricts or territories which were actually in poſſeſſion, or ſubject to the authority of the kingdom of Poland, or great dutchy of Lithuania; but that, on the contrary, her ſaid majeſty would guarantee to the ſaid kingdom of Poland, and dutchy of Lithuania, all the immunities, land, territories, and diſtricts, which the ſaid kingdom and dutchy ought by right to poſſeſs, or did now actually poſſeſs; and would at all times, and for ever, maintain them in the full and free enjoyment thereof, againſt the attempts of all and every perſon or perſons who ſhould at any time, or on any pretext, endeavour to diſpoſeſs them of the ſame."

The king of Pruſſia, in the ſame year, ſigned an act, in which he declared, "That he had no claims, formed no pretenſions on Poland, or any part thereof; and that he renounced all claims on that kingdom, either as king of Pruſſia, elector of Brandenburg, or duke of Pomerania." In the ſame inſtrument he guarantees the rights and territories of Poland againſt every other power whatever. The empreſs queen of Hungary likewiſe, in the year, 1765, wrote a letter, with her own hand, to the king of Poland, in which ſhe gave him the ſtrongeſt aſſurances, "That her friendſhip for him and the republic was firm and unalterable; that the motion of her troops ought not to alarm him; that ſhe had never entertained a thought of ſeizing any part of his dominions, nor would even ſuffer any other power to do it."

Since theſe illuſive declarations were made, and fallacious proteſtations given, the partitioning powers publiſhed each a manifeſto, in which they reſpectively laid claim to certain of the Poliſh territories. In theſe pretenſions the king of Pruſſia ſhewed himſelf a deep politician, by contriving to lay claim to the moſt valuable ſhare, and thereby obtaining the richeſt, moſt populous, and moſt commercial parts. In the year 1770 the reſpective powers threw off the maſk, and began to avow their intentions. The Pruſſian conſul, having received his inſtructions, took occaſion to quarrel

with the magiſtrates of Dantzick, and having been palpably the aggreſſor, was, according to thoſe inſtructions, the firſt to complain. The king of Pruſſia pretended to be highly offended; but, inſtead of coming to an explanation, or hearing both parties, he ſuddenly ſurpriſed the city with a ſtrong body of troops, fined the magiſtrates 100,000 ducats for what he termed their inſolence, ſeized upon 1000 men to recruit his army, and having thus executed his intentions firſt, he began very calmly to argue the matter with the magiſtrates afterwards; and having coolly remonſtrated with them on their imprudence, as he called it, told them to do ſo no more, and he would freely forgive them.

This, however, was a trifling prelude to what was to follow; for, the enſuing year, the Pruſſian troops entered Great Poland, and carried off from that province and its neighbourhood above 12,000 families. About the latter end of the ſame year his Pruſſian majeſty publiſhed an edict, commanding, under the moſt ſevere penalties, that all perſons ſhould take in payment for forage, proviſions, corn, horſes, &c. the money offered by his troops and commiſſaries. This money was either ſilver bearing the impreſſion of Poland, and worth only one third of its nominal value, or ducats ſtruck in imitation of Dutch ducats, but above 17 per cent. inferior in value to the real ducats of Holland. With this very baſe money he bought up a ſufficient quantity of forage and proviſions to ſtock his magazines, and ſupply his army for two years; and the poor inhabitants, after having been thus obliged to part from their property much below its value, were, through neceſſity, compelled to come to re-purchaſe corn from thoſe magazines, and to pay good ſubſtantial money for it; for the Pruſſian commiſſaries abſolutely refuſed to receive again the ſame coin which they had paid. From this curious, though not very honeſt manœuvre, the king of Pruſſia cleared 7,000,000 dollars. The country being thus ſtripped of money and proviſions, the next plan of his Pruſſian majeſty was to clear it of its inhabitants. To increaſe the population of his own dominions, at the expence of Poland, had long been his aim. To this end he enacted, that every city, town, village, &c. in the places which his troops poſſeſſed, ſhould furniſh a certain number of marriageable young women; and the parents were ordered to give as a portion, a feather-bed, four pillows, a cow, two hogs, and three ducats in gold. This cruel order was rigorouſly executed. The parents were ſtripped to ſupply extorted portions for the children raviſhed from their arms. The young women were inhumanly dragged from their parents, their friends, and their connections; and being bound hand and foot like criminals, were carried off, in ſpite of the lamentations of themſelves and relations, in carts, waggons, &c. After this cruel exertion of arbitrary power, the exactions from the abbies, convents, cathedrals, nobles, &c. were ſo great and unreaſonable that the nobles fled from their eſtates, and retired into foreign countries, and the prieſts abandoned their churches. At length the treaty of partition was declared, and poſſeſſion taken, by the reſpective powers, of the provinces uſurped; when Poliſh Pruſſia, and ſome diſtricts bordering upon Brandenburg, were allotted to the king of Pruſſia: almoſt all the ſouth-eaſtern parts of the kingdom, with the rich ſalt-works of the crown, fell to the empreſs queen of Hungary; and the empreſs of Ruſſia took poſſeſſion of a large territory about Mohilow. This violent diſmemberment and partition of Poland, has juſtly been conſidered as the firſt great breach in the modern political ſyſtem of Europe.

CHAP. VIII.

KINGDOM OF PRUSSIA.

AS Pruſſia, ſo called from the Boruſſi, the ancient inhabitants of the country, has, from the commencement of the preſent century, become a formidable power upon the continent of Europe, we ſhall, for the information of our readers, preſent, in one point of view, all the territories under the dominion of the Pruſſian monarch, arranging them, with reſpect to name and ſituation, in the following order, and deſcribing them as they progreſſively occur. The diviſions and ſituations are as follow.

Ducal, now Regal Pruſſia	Situated in	Poland.
Brandenburg		Upper Saxony.
Pruſſian Pomerania		
Swediſh ditto		
Magdeburg		Lower Saxony.
Halberſtadt		
Glatz		Bohemia.
Minden		Duchy of Weſtphalia.
Ravenſburg		
Lingen		
Cleves		
Meurs		
Mark		
Eaſt Friesland		Circle of Weſtphalia.
Lippe		
Odlick		
Tacklenburg		
Gelder		Netherlands.
Neufchatel		Switzerland.
Part of Sileſia		
The countries lately diſmembered from Poland.		

PRUSSIA, formerly termed DUCAL, but now REGAL PRUSSIA, is bounded on the north by part of Samogitia, on the ſouth by Maſovia and Poland Proper, on the eaſt by part of Lithuania, and on the weſt by Poliſh Pruſſia and the Baltic; the length being about 160, and the breadth about 112 miles.

Autumn, in this country, is uſually wet, and winter ſevere; yet the air is, in general, wholeſome, being purified by high winds.

The chief productions of Pruſſia are corn, flax, hemp, fruit, hops, paſturage, game, foxes, cattle, horſes, ſheep, deer, bears, wolves, lynxes, wild boars, &c.

The Baltic, with the rivers and lakes, plentifully ſupply the inhabitants with fiſh; and, on the ſhore of the former, great quantities of amber are found, encloſed in which are often ſeen ſpiders, flies, gnats, minerals, leaves, fiſhes, frogs, ants, drops of water, pieces of wood, &c. Pope thus comments on this wonderful peculiarity.

> Pretty in amber to obſerve the forms
> Of hair, of ſtraws, of dirt, of grubs, of worms.
> The things, we know, are neither rich or rare;
> But wonder how the devil they got there.

This very remarkable ſubſtance is deſcribed by an eminent natural hiſtorian in the following words.

"Amber is a hard bituminous ſubſtance, brittle, ſomewhat tranſparent, and of a yellow, or citrine colour; though ſometimes it is whitiſh, and ſometimes brown. The taſte is ſomewhat acrid, and bituminous, with a little aſtringency. The ſmell, when warm, is fragrant and bituminous; and, when rubbed, it will attract

tract ſtraws and bits of ſticks by its electrical virtue. It is found in large quantities in Pruſſia, which is the country where it is chiefly got, particularly in the Baltic Sea, near the ſhore of Sodavia, where it is found ſwimming upon the water, and is taken in nets. However, this bitumen is not a production of the ſea; for its water only ſerves to waſh it off from the bowels of the earth, and remove it to places near the ſhore. The veins of this bitumen have been found, by the order of the King of Pruſſia. In digging for them, they firſt met with ſand, which, being taken away, a ſtratum of clay appeared; and ſtill deeper there was the mineral of vitriol, which being expoſed to the open air, it was covered with an efflorescence of green vitriol. Still deeper there was a ſandy mineral, out of which, with proper inſtruments, they got amber in various places. By this means, in the Marche, near Kuſtrin, as alſo in the Track of Stolpen and Dantzick, it was met with among ſand, and found collected in heaps; whence it appears they were greatly miſtaken, who took it for the roſin of trees, that dropped from them into the ſea. It ſeems to proceed from a bituminous foſſile wood, by the aſſiſtance of the ſubterranean heat; which, at firſt, is probably like petroleum, and, after paſſing through the mineral of vitriol, by the mixing therewith, becomes coagulated into a hard body. There is no doubt that it has been liquid, becauſe it is often found in a round form, containing ſeveral ſorts of inſects: beſides, the oil which is obtained from amber is, for virtue and ſmell, like petroleum. Charlton, who was a very great naturaliſt, has ſometimes found real petroleum included in pieces of amber, which is a farther reaſon to prove what is aſſerted. The greateſt plenty of this bitumen is found near the ſhore of Sudavia, after a violent north wind, attended with a tempeſt. Sometimes amber is ſo tranſparent, as to ſerve to make burning glaſſes, one of which is kept in the cabinet of the Landgrave of Heſſe Caſſel. Amber, properly prepared, becomes a medicine for opening the obſtructions of the bowels, and promoting all ſorts of excretions; and conſequently is a very uſeful remedy in chronical diſeaſes. It is likewiſe ſaid to be very efficacious in curing cold diſorders of the brain, and particularly in pains of the head, ſleepy and convulſive diſeaſes, as well as in hyſteric and hypochondriac fits. The doſe is from a ſcruple to a dram in a poached egg, or any other proper vehicle. The volatile ſalt of amber is diuretic, and accounted a ſpecific in hyſteric and convulſive diſeaſes. The doſe is from 30 grains to 10. The oil is recommended in nervous diſorders, particularly in the gout, palſy, and catarrhs, by anointing the parts therewith. It is given inwardly from two to twenty drops.

A kind of manna is likewiſe found here; and an inſect, of whoſe eggs that beautiful red colour called St. John's blood is made. Wood, pit-coal, wax, honey, pitch, &c. abounds; and of the aſhes of ſome kinds of wood glaſs is made. Independent of lakes and canals, ſeveral fine rivers water the country, which afford good inland navigation. Great damages, however, are ſometimes done by their inundations.

Previous to the year 1719, the inhabitants of Pruſſia (Ducal Pruſſia only) capable of bearing arms, amounted to 635,998 perſons. Since that period, 17,000 Saltzburghers, and the ſame number of German, Swiſs, and French coloniſts, have ſettled in this country; and theſe emigrants have, ſubſequent to their coming into this kingdom, erected and founded 11 towns, 400 villages, 50 churches, 86 ſeats, and 1000 ſchools: hence the number of inhabitants at the preſent time muſt be deemed very conſiderable.

Moſt religions are tolerated: the Lutherans and Calviniſts, however, prevail. In the 13th century the German knights of the Teutonic order made a conqueſt of the whole country, in which they committed the moſt inhuman barbarities; for, inſtead of converting, which they pretended was their view, they extirpated the natives, and put the Germans in their place.

In 1454, one half of Pruſſia revolted from the knights, and put itſelf under the protection of Poland: This occaſioned an almoſt continual war betwixt that country and the order, till the year 1525, when, by a treaty concluded at Cracow, it was agreed that Albert, Margrave of Brandenburg, the 34th and laſt maſter of the Teutonic order, ſhould have the eaſtern part, under the title of a dutchy, and that it ſhould deſcend to his and his brother's male heirs as a fief of Poland; but in 1657, the elector Frederick William had the ſovereignty confirmed to him and his heirs, on condition of its returning to the Poles in caſe of the failure of heirs male. In 1701, Ducal Pruſſia was raiſed to a kingdom by the elector Frederick, who was, in a ſhort time after, univerſally acknowledged as king of Pruſſia. At the time of his coronation at Koningſberg, he inſtituted the order of the Black Eagle. The enſign is a gold croſs like that of Malta, enamelled with blue, and worn at the end of a broad orange-coloured ribbon, which paſſes over the left ſhoulder. The ſovereign is grand maſter; and the number of knights are always thirty.

Another order is that of Merit, founded by his late Pruſſian Majeſty, in the year 1740. The mark is a golden croſs, with eight points, enamelled with azure, and on the uppermoſt point is the letter F crowned; on the three lowermoſt points this motto, *For Merit*; and on the four other points, which form a St. Andrew's croſs, are ſo many ſpread eagles in gold. This ſtar is fixed to a black ribbon, which they put about their necks, and it hangs down their breaſts.

The late king of Pruſſia brought the trade of this country into a very flouriſhing ſituation, by the inſtitution of an excellent police. The imports are trivial, and the exports many, conſequently the balance is greatly in favour of the country. The manufactures, exports, &c. being iron work, paper, copper, braſs, linen, gold lace, ſilver ditto, naval ſtores, fiſh, oatmeal, tallow, glaſs, gunpowder, cloth, camblet, ſilk, ſtockings, amber, linſeed, hempſeed, mead, caviar, &c.

This country alone brings his Pruſſian majeſty a very conſiderable revenue, the ſingle article of amber producing 26,000 dollars annually. The other revenues ariſe from the crown demeſnes, duties, cuſtoms, tolls, ſubſidies, &c. The king of Pruſſia is abſolute in this as well as in all his other dominions, in political, civil, eccleſiaſtical, and feudal matters.

The country is governed by a regency, conſiſting of four great officers of ſtate, viz. the great maſter, burgrave, chancellor and marſhal. Theſe are aſſiſted by counſellors of ſtate, deputies from the nobles, and deputies from the commons. Here are likewiſe a board of commerce, a board of navigation, a college of war, a demeſne chamber, and ſeveral tribunals of juſtice.

The military eſtabliſhment here, as in all other parts of his Pruſſian majeſty's dominions, is very conſiderable. Each regiment is quartered upon a particular diſtrict; and all the young men of that diſtrict being regiſtered, they are obliged to join the regiment whenever commanded ſo to do.

This country is now divided into the provinces of Smaland, Nantangan, Oberland, and Little Lithuania.

The province or circle of Smaland lies near the gulph of Courland, and is celebrated for the vaſt quantities of amber which are found upon the coaſt. The principal places of this province or circle are,

Konigſberg, or Koningſberg, the capital not only of this province, but of the whole kingdom of Pruſſia; and is ſituated on the river Pregel, in 54 deg. 42 min. north lat. and 21 deg. 35 min. eaſt long. It is well fortified, has ſeven bridges over the Pregel, and was founded by Offocartus, or Premiſlaus I. king of Bohemia, in the year 1255, when that king came to the aſſiſtance of the Teutonic knights againſt the Pagan Smalanders. It conſiſts properly of three towns, formed by ſo many branches of the river, with the reſpective

ſuburbs

ſuburbs to each. It is a ſpacious city, very populous, and contains a great number of ſtreets and houſes; but the former are laid out without elegance, and the latter erected without taſte. Here is an academy founded by one of the firſt dukes of Pruſſia. There is nothing worth obſervation in it, except the original ſafe-conduct (paſs-port) given by Charles V. to Martin Luther, when he attended the diet of Worms in 1521, and ſigned by the emperor's hand. This merits preſervation. Koningſberg has a conſiderable trade in hemp and flax; but it is ſeven German, or 35 Engliſh miles from Pillaw, the ſea-port at the mouth of the river Pregel, ſo that only very ſmall veſſels can come up to the town. In the city and ſuburbs are many gardens, public and private, which are great embelliſhments to it. The citadel, called Frederickſburg, erected in 1657, is a regular fortification, of a ſquare form, and ſurrounded by broad ditches. This city was formerly a Hans Town, and its trade is ſtill conſiderable; and near the palace is the Collegium Fredericianum. Beſides the ſeveral hoſpitals and almſhouſes, here is a charitable fund, from which above 800 perſons receive weekly penſions.

Pillaw is a well fortified town, with an excellent harbour, ſituated at the mouth of the bay or lake called the Freſche-Hoff, 30 miles to the weſt of Koningſberg. The larger veſſels, conſigned to Koningſberg, deliver and take in their cargoes here, as the Freſche-Hoff hath not a ſufficient depth of water to carry them up to Koningſberg; hence Pillaw is a place of conſiderable trade; and the town and harbour are defended by a ſtrong fort, well planted with cannon. The peninſula in which Pillaw is ſituated, is, from its fertility and pleaſantneſs, termed the Paradiſe of Pruſſia.

Wogram is a ſmall village in the neighbourhood of Pillaw, where ſturgeons are boiled and packed up, and caviare is made of their roes; the greateſt part being exported to England.

The Curiſche Nerung, or peninſula Curonenſis, a narrow ſlip of land, which ſeparates the Baltic Sea from the bay called Curiſche-Hoff, is a barren, narrow, ſandy track, of which a late traveller thus makes mention. "The road lies over a ſpit of ſand about 83 miles in length, and not more than a ſingle one in breadth in many places; and in none does it exceed three. This extraordinary bank of ſand terminates a little to the northward of the town (Koningſberg) from which it is ſeparated by a haven of near half a mile in breadth. When the weather is fine, and the ſea ſmooth, one may drive along with great pleaſure, as the ſands, cloſe to the margin of the water, are hard and firm. Unhappily for me, it not only blew very hard, but the wind being weſterly, drove the waves a long way higher on the beach than uſual. I landed on the ſand about two in the afternoon, and reached the firſt poſt-houſe, as night cloſed in. A more terrible one I hardly ever remember: it not only rained without intermiſſion, but the wind, which had increaſed the whole day, blew a hurricane. The ſea being driven by its fury a long way beyond the uſual bounds, compelled the poſtillions to drive through the very ſurf, which many times completely covered the fore wheels of the carriage, and roared like thunder in my ears. In ſuch a ſituation I could not take much repoſe, and more than once apprehended I ſhould have been inevitably overturned into the ſea; the ſides of the little ſand hills, which bound the ſhore, being ſo ſhelving and ſteep, that it was with the utmoſt precaution and care the carriage was prevented from turning over. Morning came moſt welcome after ſuch a night; and about eight o'clock I got to a miſerable naſty hovel called an inn, where I found the poor inhabitants employed in boiling pumpkins, which appeared to be one chief article of their food. The women looked more like witches than human creatures, without any ſort of head-dreſs except their hair, and were ſcarcely covered to the knees. Here, among horſes, in a large ſtable, I took my breakfaſt very compoſedly. I reached the ſouthern termination of the Sound, where it joins the continent, about noon, and gladly found myſelf once more on firm ground, after having driven two and twenty hours along the ſhore of the Baltic, and often amidſt its very waves."

Great and Little Frederick's canals, ſituated near Walau, at the conflux of the Pregel and Alle, much facilitate the inland navigation of the kingdom. They belonged to the Waldenburg family till the year 1713, when the king of Pruſſia purchaſed the property of the canals, and their reſpective tolls.

The province, or circle of Nantangan, adjoins to Smaland, is fertile and populous, and contains the following places:

Angerburg, which is ſurrounded by paliſadoes, and defended by a ſtrong caſtle, ſituated on a lake, where the river Angerhap has its ſource, is celebrated only for its church, which is capacious, beautiful, and well endowed.

Raſtenburg, a handſome town, with a caſtle on the river Guleer, is encloſed with a wall and rampart.

Gardawen, on the river Omet, has two caſtles to defend it, and an elegant palace with fine gardens. It was founded in 1325; and in its vicinity is a lake, which contained a floating iſland that once afforded paſturage for an hundred head of cattle; but now it is ſeparated, and the reſpective parts daily diminiſh by the waſhing of the waters. As the neighbouring people pretended to prognoſticate the nature of approaching weather from the motions of this iſland, it was termed the Gardawen Almanac.

The province, or circle of Oberland, is fertile, but leſs populous than it has been. It contains the following places:

Oſterode, remarkable only for its ſalt-works.

Holland is a well fortified, handſome town, near the river Weeſke. It is defended by a caſtle, and has a free fiſhery on the Drauſen lake; contains ſome excellent ſalt-works, a magazine for corn, forage, &c. and has ſeveral fine ſeats in its neighbourhood.

Mohrungen is a well fortified town.

Marienwarden is a conſiderable town, neatly built, and pleaſantly ſituated near the Viſtula, and on the borders of Pomerania. The cathedral is a ſtately Gothic ſtructure, and the palace not much inferior. The trade is conſiderable, and the ſalt-works important; and for corn and forage there is a great magazine. The czar Peter the Great had an interview with Frederick I. king of Pruſſia, at this place, in the year 1709.

The province of Little Lithuania is 144 miles in length, and, in general, about 50 in breadth. It is very woody, and was almoſt depopulated by the peſtilence in 1710; but king Frederick William reſtored it, by encouraging a great number of foreigners to ſettle in it, ſince when it has been extremely well cultivated, and abounds with all the neceſſaries of life.

Memel is a well fortified town, on the lake Curiſche-Hoff, about 80 miles from Koningſberg. The trade, which is conſiderable, conſiſts chiefly in flax, linſeed, thread, and hemp. Here are likewiſe a brewery, and a ſoap manufactory, with a ſalt factory, royal magazine, and a ſtrong citadel to defend the whole.

Tilſet is famed for the cattle fed, and the excellent butter made in its neighbourhood. This town contains a ſalt factory, and is defended by a caſtle.

Inſterburg is a town ſituated at the conflux of the Inſter, with the Angerhap, is defended by a caſtle, contains a grainery, ſalt factory, and high court, and has a conſiderable trade for beer and corn.

Stallupehenen is a ſmall new built town, with a charter granted in the year 1722. The inhabitants carry on a great trade in cattle; but wood is ſcarce, and freſh water ſcarcer ſtill.

Ragnit is a ſmall town, ſurrounded by palliſadoes, and defended by a ſtrong caſtle.

BRANDENBURG has Poland on the eaſt, Lunenberg on the weſt, Pomerania on the north, and Sileſia, with the

the electorate of Saxony, on the ſouth. Its length is 200 miles, and its greateſt breadth about 100. In winter the climate is exceedingly cold, and the ſoil in general not fruitful, as it is, in a great meaſure, ſandy; though under the late reigns a variety of methods have been taken to improve it. The chief productions are buck-wheat, millet, flax, woad, tobacco, herbs, allum, ſalt-petre, amber, iron, ſtone, &c. Abundance of cattle and ſheep are bred here; and the woods not only ſupply the inhabitants with fuel, but with timber, charcoal, tar, and wood-aſhes, not only for domeſtic uſes, but exportation. The ſilk manufactory is likewiſe carried on here with great ſucceſs.

The principal rivers of Brandenburg are the Elbe, Warta, Order, Havel, and Spree.

The rivers and lakes abound with fiſh, and are united by canals.

His late Pruſſian Majeſty greatly increaſed not only the manufactures, but the number of people, villages, and even towns in his dominions, and more particularly in the Brandenburg territories.

The electorate of Brandenburg is divided into three parts, viz. The New Marck, The Middle Marck, and the Alt or Old Marck.

The climate is very cold, and the winter ſharp for ſeven or eight months; but they have plenty of firing. It is not very fruitful, by reaſon of its cold and watry ſoil; but it has large foreſts abounding with deer. The Old Marck has plenty of herbs and fruits; and the New Marck ſome corn and paſture, wherein are fed great flocks of ſheep, and ſome black cattle. They boaſt, indeed, in ſome parts, of their wine; but the Saxons deſpiſe it to a proverb. The country people are generally poor. They are much given to drinking and feaſting, yet they are univerſally acknowledged to be very brave. The commodities are chiefly exported by the Elbe and the Oder, betwixt which there is a communication by a canal, which ſaves their paying toll in the Sound. The country is watered by ſeveral good rivers; and has many lakes, the chief of which is the Ukerzee, and are the beſt ſtocked with fiſh of any in Germany.

The New Marck is about 100 miles in compaſs. It belonged to the knights of the Teutonic order till the 13th century, when it was purchaſed by the Brandenburg family; but they had not peaceable poſſeſſion of it till the 16th. This diviſion of the Pruſſian dominions abounds more than any of the others in corn and paſture, and has vineyards on the banks of the Oder, but they are of no great account. Sometimes the boors find here quantities of old coin, and precious ſtones, which they ſell for trifles.

The principal places in the New Marck are

Cuſtrin, or Kuſtrim, its capital. It was but a fiſhing village till 1537, when it was walled with ſtone, and otherwiſe fortified, and is accounted the key of the New Marck. Guſtavus Adolphus beſieged it in vain in 1631. It is ſtrong both by art and nature, being ſituated in a marſh, at the conflux of the Oder and Warta. It has an arſenal well furniſhed, and a very ſtrong citadel. The burghers have neat houſes, well furniſhed; and the market-place is the beſt in all the marquiſate. Beſides the town-council there is a council of the regency, and a court of bailiwick.

Falkenburg is only noted for its ſtrong caſtle.

Dieſſen is another town with a ſtrong fortreſs, near the Poliſh frontier, at the conflux of the rivers Netze and Trage. On the Poliſh ſide it is defended by a large marſh, which reaches almoſt a muſquet-ſhot from the town. The fortification is a regular pentagon, with ditches. The Swedes took it by the treachery of one of the inhabitants in 1639, but reſtored it by the peace in 1656.

Landſperg, on the river Warta, is very conveniently ſituated, having a manufacture, which conſiſts much in caſting of iron ordnance.

Sunneberg, or Sonneberg, was the reſidence of the bailiffs of the order of Malta, till the elector ſeized it in the 16th century, and aſſumed the power to preſent their bailiffs, and diſpoſe of their officers of power.

Schwedt, upon the Oder, is the appendage of one of the ſons of the family, who has a pleaſant garden and palace here; and from hence Philip, great uncle to the late king of Pruſſia, was denominated prince of Brandenburg Schwedt.

The Middle Marck lies in the middle of the marquiſate, and is the largeſt of the three diviſions, containing about 100 miles from the banks of the Elbe to the Oder.

The chief towns are

Lebus, on the Oder, which was formerly a biſhopric, founded by Miceſlaus, the firſt Chriſtian prince of Poland, about the year 965. It embraced the reformation in 1555; and in 1628, it was united to the dominions of Brandenburg, by the elector, who was its biſhop, and, as ſuch, chancellor of the univerſity of Franckfort. The ſee, which has ſince been ſecularized, was ſuffragan to the archbiſhop of Gneſna, in Poland. The town ſtands between two hills, on one of which are the ruins of the old caſtle of the biſhop, which was burnt.

Franckfort, on the Oder, is about 253 miles north-weſt of Vienna. The Oder, over which there is a large timber bridge, divides it into two parts. In 1379 the elector Sigiſmund gave it great privileges, upon its entering into the league of the Hans Towns: and Joachim I. founded an univerſity here in 1506, ſupplying it with learned profeſſors from Leipſic; ſince which time it has bred many learned men. The Proteſtant religion was eſtabliſhed here in 1538. It was once a free and imperial city; but now exempt, and not ſo important as formerly. Nevertheleſs it has a conſiderable trade, chiefly in linen, cloth and felts, by the Oder, and the canal betwixt that river and the Elbe; and has three great fairs a year. The ſtreets are wide, the houſes well built, and the market-place ſpacious and ſtately. This city has ſtood the ſhock of various revolutions. It was put under the ban of the empire by the emperor Charles IV. and, to pacify him, the inhabitants were forced to pay him down 12,000 marks of ſilver. In 1631 the Swedes took it by ſtorm, when they put all the inhabitants to the ſword, to revenge the maſſacre of 2000 Swedes, whom the emperor's general, count Tilly, had inhumanly put to death. However, it was reſtored to the elector by the peace of Weſtphalia. Without the gates there are the ruins of an ancient Carthuſian monaſtery, of which Johannes ab Indagine, who is ſaid to have wrote 300 tracts on various ſubjects, was prior.

Munchenburg is a ſmall town, inhabited chiefly by the deſcendants of thoſe French Proteſtants who left their country on the repeal of the edict of Nantz.

Furſtenwald contains an electoral palace, and is the ſeat of a bailiwick.

Berlin is not only the capital of the electorate of Brandenburg, but of the whole Pruſſian dominions, and may, with juſtice, be deemed one of the fineſt and largeſt cities of Germany. It is the royal reſidence, conſiſts of five towns united together, and has received aſtoniſhing improvements of late years. The ſtreets are handſome, long, and capacious. Here are ſome very elegant ſquares, and many fine palaces. One of the principal public edifices is the royal palace, a prodigious pile, but irregular, as it was erected at different times, and by various architects. It is decorated with admirable paintings, and beautiful tapeſtry, and furniſhed with a greater quantity of plate than any other court in Europe. It contains likewiſe a fine cabinet of rarities, natural and artificial, an excellent collection of medals, a diſpenſary, and one of the fineſt libraries in Europe. Among the other principal ſtructures are the council-houſe, Calviniſt gymnaſium, great garriſon church, provincial council-houſe, Jews ſynagogue, and royal magazine. In the laſt mentioned place a great quantity of rough wool is kept, to be regularly delivered out to poor manufacturers, that it

may be ſpun and wove, and afterwards dyed and ſold by the managers of the Orphan-houſe at Potzdam, to which charity the profits are appropriated. In Berlin is a fine hoſpital, in which above 800 children are educated gratis. The Lutheran gymnaſium, or School of Athletic Exerciſes, is ſituated in the Grey Cloiſter; and at the King's Gate is the court of cadets, in which young noblemen and gentlemen are inſtructed in all the exerciſes neceſſary to qualify them for a military life. All the above, except the royal palace, are in Berlin, properly ſo called. The palace itſelf is in the quarter called Old Coln; and in the ſuburbs are the magnificent garden of count Reuſſen, the beautiful houſe and garden called Monbijou, and the houſe and garden of Belvidere. The hoſpital of invalids is a ſtately and magnificent building, and above 1000 perſons are maintained in it, conſiſting of officers and ſoldiers, with their wives and children; and theſe, beſides lodging and fuel, have a certain weekly allowance of money, bread, &c. There are ſeveral bridges over the river Spree, and, in particular, one which is elegant and magnificent: it conſiſts of five arches, and has a fine metal ſtatue on it of the great elector Frederick William. In the magnificent and noble Calviniſt church of Old Coln, is the burial-place of the royal family, near which are the riding academy, the royal ſtables, a ſchool of exerciſes, and many other buildings, public and private. In the ſugar-houſes of Berlin as much ſugar is refined as ſerves the whole Pruſſian dominions. Many other manufactures are carried on here, particularly one of porcelain, inferior in no reſpect to that of Meiſſen, except in the paintings. The great population and improvement of this city, as well as other parts of the Pruſſian dominions, have been aſcribed to the emigration and influence of the French refugees, who introduced a variety of arts, manufactures, &c. before unknown in the Pruſſian territories. The canals cut to Berlin from the Havel, the Oder, and the Elbe greatly promote the trade of the city, and ſupply the inhabitants with plenty of fiſh; and as the late king of Pruſſia always made a point of embelliſhing and aggrandizing this metropolis, it is no wonder that it ſhould be the admiration of all who viſit it. The following inſtitutions add to the beauty of the capital, as well as to the benefit of the inhabitants, viz. the academy of ſciences, the academy of belles lettres, the college of phyſic annd ſurgery, the anatomical theatre, the tapeſtry manufactory, the opera-houſe, the arſenal, ſeveral well regulated hoſpitals, and many Lutheran, Calviniſt, and two Roman Catholic churches.

Independent of theſe there are a variety of pleaſant gardens, walks, &c.

The police of Berlin is well regulated, and the inhabitants more ſecure from the depredations of robbers than in moſt other cities. Round the environs are many pleaſant villages, canals, pleaſure houſes, gardens, &c. Among the palaces in the vicinity, belonging to the ſovereign, are thoſe of Schoenhauſen and Charlottenburg. The firſt is about the diſtance of two miles from Berlin, ſituated on the river Panka, which waters its fine gardens.

Charlottenburg ſtands on the Spree, ſo that one may go to it in a boat; though the common way is through the park, at the end of the great walk from the new town. When the king is here, all the road hither from Berlin is lighted with lamps on both ſides. It was formerly called Lutzenburg, and but a ſmall village, till the electreſs wife to Frederick I. charmed with the ſituation of it, began to build here; and after her death the works were carried on by the elector, who cauſed the place to be called Charlottenburg, in remembrance of his conſort, whoſe name was Sophia Charlotte. This caſtle, or palace, is one of the moſt conſiderable ſtructures in Germany, the apartments being grand and ſplendid, and the furniture very rich. There is one cloſet furniſhed with the choiceſt porcelain, and another with luſtres, a tea table, and all its equipage, of ſolid gold. It has a ſumptuous chapel, adorned on every ſide with gold and painting; and a moſt beautiful garden next to the river, with one of the moſt magnificent orangeries in Europe; not only for the number and diſpoſition of its trees, but the greatneſs of the building, where they are kept all the winter.

Oranjeburg, ſo called by its founder Frederick I. n honour of his mother, who was born princeſs of Orange, is delightfully ſituated near the Spree, about 16 miles north-weſt of Berlin. The apartments of this palace are grand. The rich furniture has been removed to Berlin; and its fine porcelain, which was not to be matched in Europe, paſſed into the hands of the elector of Saxony. The miles from hence to Berlin, and from thence to Potzdam, are diſtinguiſhed by mile-ſtones. Near this ſeat lies a ſmall city of the ſame name, ſurrounded by beautiful meadows, watered and divided by many canals drawn out of the Havel, and bounded by woods, acroſs which are cut ſeveral long viſtas.

Spandaw is of no more note than from being uſed as a priſon for ſtate criminals.

Brandenburg is a very ancient city, and gave name to, and was formerly the metropolis of the Marquiſate. It ſtands on the banks of the Havel, which divides it into the Old or Upper Town, and that called the New. In the great church are many monuments of princes. The ſtreets of the Upper Town are built croſs-ways, and centre in a fine market-place, where is a Statua Rolandina, which was an image ſet up in many German cities, as a teſtimonial of the great privileges granted them by the emperors. This town is well ſupplied with fiſh from a neighbouring lake 10 miles long. It lies in the road from Berlin to Magdeburg; has a conſiderable trade, and a garriſon conſiſting of a battalion of grenadiers. Though it has no fortification except a few round towers along the walls of the New Town, yet it is ſtrong by its ſituation among marſhes; and has a hill on one ſide covered with vineyards, on the top of which is St. Mary's, an handſome church, formerly one of the richeſt abbies, and beſt built churches of Germany. It has two high ſquare towers, which are ſeen a great way off. Though the walls are very ancient, the ſtreets are, for the moſt part, handſome and regular. The Havel brings great boats hither from the Elbe, with all ſorts of merchandize, from the towns on that river.

The Alt, or Old Marck, called, by ſome authors, The Galilee of Germany, becauſe it abounds in fruits and herbs, is divided into four petty provinces, called Oſtland on the eaſt, Zurmunland on the weſt, Angerland on the ſouth, and Zenland on the north. The Elbe ſeparates it on the eaſt from Preignitz. The chief places are

Stendal, or Stendel, a Hans Town, well built, and ſtrongly fortified. The courts of civil judicature for the Old Marck are held here. The inhabitants have a pretty good trade in corn and linen cloth, and make a good profit by travellers, it being in the road from Magdeburg and Erfurt, to Hamburg and Lubeck.

Soltwedel is a large town on the weſt ſide of Jetze, a little below its conflux with the Dune. This city, and the neighbouring territory, had formerly princes of their own, who did great things againſt the Huns. It is divided into the old and new Towns. Their chief trade is in beer, which they export. It was anciently known by the name of Heliopolis.

Gardeleben, or Gardelegen, in Latin Gardelegii, which name ſome derive from the pleaſent gardens in the neighbourhood, where there is an old fort, called in their language Iron Jaws.

Tangermund, or Angermund, on the Elbe, at the mouth of the Anger, was firſt a caſtle built by the emperor Charles IV. who bought this Marck, and reſided here. It fell ſometime after into the hands of the dukes of Pomerania, from whom the elector Frederick I. took it in 1420. It is a place of pretty good trade in corn and other commodities, conveyed to Hamburg, and other places, by the Elbe.

Oſterburg

Oſterburg is noted for a good corn market.

Werben, in 1631, was taken by the Swedes; after which Guſtavus Adolphus ordered the caſtle, which commands the town, to be built, thinking it might be made one of the ſtrongeſt places in Germany. In 1636 it was taken by the Imperialiſts and Saxons, who were forced that ſame year to ſurrender it again to the Swedes. Next year the Imperialiſts retook it; but in 1640, the Brandenburghers got poſſeſſion of their fort; and, upon a ſuſpenſion of arms next year, between them and the Swedes, wherein it was agreed that it ſhould be demoliſhed, the elector's peaſants pulled it down.

Havelburg, in 946, was made a biſhopric, ſuffragan to Magdeburg, and its biſhop reſided ar Witſtock, a town of Preignitz, but aboliſhed at the reformation; ſince which the religion here has been Lutheran.

Potzdam is a large town, ſituated on an iſland about four miles to the ſouth-weſt of Berlin. The caſtle built here firſt rendered it conſiderable, ſince which the town has continually increaſed, and received a variety of embelliſhments. It contains many ſtrait ſtreets, with canals in the middle, and trees on each ſide. The palace is magnificent, and the houſes in the vicinity very beautiful. Before the caſtle is a ſquare adorned with Roman columns, which hath a very fine garden. The garriſon is exerciſed in the æra in the front, and near it a large foreſt paled in for hunting. The foreſt itſelf contains a royal ſeat, with viſtas in form of a ſtar. About the town are alſo many vineyards; and the market-place contains a ſtately obeliſk of variegated Sileſian marble, with a pedeſtal of white marble, and marble buſts of the kings on each ſide. Two thouſand ſoldiers children are maintained, cloathed, and educated, in the orphan-houſe. Here is a foundery, manufactories for velvet, ſilk, gold and ſilver lace, &c. Several elegant churches, one of which contains a fine ſet of chimes; and ſtables for the horſe-guards, of which, with the foot guards, and other battalions, the garriſon conſiſts.

Not far from Potzdam is the palace of Sans-Souci, on the top of a mountain, from whence there is a delightful landſcape, comprizing a view of the town, neighbouring country, rivers, lakes, woods, vineyards, groves, &c. The palace, though not very capacious, is magnificent; and the furniture, though not ſuperb, elegant. The paintings, ſtatues, gardens, &c. contribute to make the whole a moſt delightful place. The ſmall but excellent library is kept in an apartment wainſcoted with cedar, and adorned with foliage of gold; and the elevated ſpot on which the palace is ſituated, has plantations of vineyards, and is cut into terraces.

Excluſive of the above principal diviſions, Brandenburg contains ſome other inferior diſtricts, circles, and towns, beſides ſeveral villages, hamlets, &c. All that can be ſaid, in general, of theſe is, that ſome of them have nunneries for ladies of the Proteſtant profeſſion, and others carry on conſiderable traffic.

PRUSSIAN POMERANIA is above 200 miles in length, and from 50 to 80 in breadth. The ſoil, in many parts, is ſandy and barren; and the arable lands, near the ſhore, are frequently overwhelmed with ſand; yet, in other parts, there is corn enough both for conſumption and export; beſides good paſtures filled with cattle; and many large woods and foreſts, which abound with deer, wild boars, hares, foxes, wolves, wild horſes, wild bulls, &c. and fowls of all ſorts. Here are alſo beavers; and ſuch plenty of water fowl, that they reckon 20 ſorts of ducks. They have great plenty of ſalt and freſh water fiſh, particularly ſalmon, and very large lampreys, eſpecially in the bay of Stetin, and lake of Laſſen. About Grypſwald and Rugen, they have good herring fiſhing; and, in the lake Madduje, near Colbatz, there is a large broad fiſh called Muſcum, found no where elſe in Germany. There are many fair and fertile meadows betwixt the branches of the Oder, and great quantities of fruit of all kinds. They have no wine of their own growth, but excellent mum, and beer of ſeveral ſorts, particularly the bitter beer of Stetin, the mum of Grypſwald, and the ſtout of Wollin, which mariners tranſport; and as there are ſcarce any mountains in the country, it has no mines, but ſome few of iron in the Upper Pomerania. It abounds with amber, eſpecially on the coaſts of Brandenburg Pomerania, where it is not only thrown up by the ſea, and found among the ſea-weeds and ſands, but alſo dug out of the rocks and mines. There is a particular lake in this country, that communicates with the ſea, where they gather it in nets when the ſea begins to flow, and ſometimes draw up pieces as big as a man's fiſt. At firſt taking up it is ſoft, but ſoon hardens, by the air, into a ſtony ſubſtance. It is of ſeveral colours, white, yellow, black, and red. The ſort found in Pomerania is a dark yellow. It is ſuppoſed to be an oil diſtilled from rocks, like petroleum; and that the inſects which are ſometimes found encloſed in it, are entangled there while it is liquid; and that which is taken in the ſea, and in the adjoining lakes and rivers, is broke off from ſome rock or vein under ground, by floods and tempeſts. In ſome places it is found in a matrix of wood, which the ſkilful know at firſt ſight.

The people are reckoned as ſtout and nimble as any in Germany; but charged, on the other hand, with being intemperate, credulous, and prodigal. The character is given of the ancient inhabitants, that they were ſtrangers to deceit or robbery, locked up nothing, were hoſpitable to all ſtrangers, and ſo kind to one another, that there were no beggars among them.

The nobles of this duchy, as well as the ſeveral towns, had formerly very particular privileges, which his late Pruſſian majeſty greatly abridged. The inhabitants are principally of German and Sclavonian deſcent, a dialect of the latter being the language of the country. Lutheraniſm is the eſtabliſhed religion; but Calviniſts and Roman Catholics are tolerated.

The duchy contains an univerſity, ſeveral colleges, grammar ſchools, &c. Here are ſeveral manufactories; and great commerce is carried on by means of the Baltic and ſeveral navigable rivers. It was formerly conſidered as divided into Anterior and Hinder Pomerania; but it is moſt ſuitable to conſider the whole under the diſtinct heads of Pruſſian Pomerania, and what hath been uſually called Swediſh Pomerania; tho' all the former, and the greateſt part of the latter, belong to the king of Pruſſia.

In Pruſſian Pomerania the principal places are as follow:

Stetin, or Old Stetin, a capacious and handſome town, and very ſtrongly fortified, contains many manufactories, hath great trade, and exports prodigious quantities of corn, timber, linen, and naval ſtores.

The proſpect of the river, and the iſlands formed by it, is very agreeable; and the neighbouring hills have a very romantic appearance. The principal buildings are the colleges for education, college of phyſicians, tribunals of juſtice, board of health, chamber of commerce, court of admiralty, royal gymnaſium, or ſchool of exerciſe, ſuperintendency, arſenal, caſtle, free-ſchool, and dock.

Though this town is ſituated 40 miles from the ſea, ſhips of conſiderable burden come up to it; and ſmaller veſſels may go much higher.

The inhabitants are remarkable for their courteous behaviour, and have been celebrated for the valiant defence of their city againſt the Imperialiſts, who beſieged it four months, in 1659, in vain; and again in 1677, when it held out five months, from July to December, againſt Frederick William the Great, then elector of Brandenburg; who, after one of the moſt remarkable ſieges that had been known in Europe, whereby moſt of the city was burnt to the ground, at the expence of an immenſe quantity of warlike ammunition, and the garriſon reduced from 3000 men to 700, was obliged to grant it very honourable terms of capitulation.

The burghers were even more reſolute, if poſſible, in the defence of the town, than the Swediſh garriſon:

riſon: for, on the 15th of Auguſt, when moſt of their ſhips in the river had been ſunk and ſhattered, and the cathedral, with many of the houſes, burnt, the elector offered them honourable terms, which they refuſed. On the 22d, when the town had ſuffered much more, he took pity of the inhabitants, and made them another offer; but they were obſtinate, made it death for any to talk of a ſurrender, ſecured their wives and children in places prepared for them under-ground, and made vigorous ſallies, but were repulſed. The 6th of September he ſent a trumpeter to forwarn them of their danger, and to offer them larger privileges than they had; but they ſtill refuſed. He ſummoned them again on the 22d, after being joined by 8000 Danes, but to no purpoſe. The elector, having undermined their wall, filled the ditch, &c. ſummoned them again on the 1ſt of November, and threatened their ruin if they refuſed his new offers; but they replied they would hold out to the end of the year, and hoped to have the ſame terms then: and though the town was in ruins, and 1400 citizens killed, beſides ſoldiers, they continued reſolute, and made vigorous ſallies. On the 20th, and alſo on the 30th of that month, there were quarrels betwixt the garriſon, which was for capitulating, and the burghers, that oppoſed it; in which ſeveral fell on both ſides. The king of Sweden having ſent the town a new charter, the elector ſummoned them again, December 19, and offered to confirm their new privileges, with an exemption from taxes for many years; but ſtill they refuſed, and made ſeveral ſallies; but next day, finding no hopes of relief, they propoſed an honourable capitulation, which, if not granted, they declared they would die ſword in hand, and be buried in the ruins of the city. The elector generouſly complied, and ratified all the privileges granted them by their new charter: but the burghers, inſiſting on too high terms for the garriſon, hoſtilities were renewed with vigour on both ſides, till the 26th, when they accepted the elector's terms, who, on the 6th of January following, entered the town in triumph. He continued their magiſtrates, who, with the judges and miniſters, ſwore fealty to him; and, of his own accord, exempted their fiſhery from taxes for eight years, on condition that they ſhould rebuild their churches; and he promiſed to rebuild the great one himſelf. He alſo continued the univerſity, the ſchools, and religion, as they were. The beſieged had a fine train of artillery, but wanted powder, ſalt, and wood.

Politz is remarkable only for its hop trade.

Anklam, or Anclam, was formerly called Tanglim. Some authors will have it to be the ſeat of the Angli, mentioned by Tacitus, who advanced from hence to the Elbe, and from thence to the iſland of Great-Britain. It made a good figure once among the Hans Towns. It is advantageouſly ſituated amidſt good arable lands, and excellent paſture, with the convenience of fiſhing, and of exporting their commodities abroad by the river Pene. It has four pariſh churches, and a yearly fair on the ſecond Sunday after the birth of our lady. It ſuffered by ſeveral fires in the 14th century, when its churches, with a monaſtery and a town-houſe, were burnt; but the town was rebuilt with more beauty.

Paſſewalck has two parochial, and two other churches. There is an excellent ſort of beer brewed here. It is a provoſtſhip, with ſpiritual juriſdiction over 10 pariſhes. When Pomerania and the Marquiſate were under different ſovereigns, this place, being on the confines of both, was frequently a bone of contention.

Gartz, one of the paſſes of the Order, was walled in 1258, by Barnimus I. duke of Pomerania. It has eight pariſhes under its juriſdiction, and ſeveral yearly fairs. It was a great ſufferer during the long wars in Germany; for its ſituation rendered it always a place of importance to the poſſeſſor.

Ukermunde ſtands where the Uker river falls into Groſs Haff. It was walled in 1190; and Bogiſlaus III. duke of Pomerania, cauſed a caſtle to be built here. In 1469 it was beſieged by the elector of Brandenburg, aſſiſted by the Mecklenburgers, but they were obliged to abandon it. There is a fine walk of fair trees from hence through the middle of a great foreſt, which goes almoſt 20 miles, and within a league of Stetin.

Dermin has a tolerable trade by means of ſome neighbouring lakes.

Trepts has three annual fairs, and is defended by a ſtrong caſtle.

Stolpe is a fortified town, with an ancient caſtle. Its agreeable ſituation, in a valley on a river of the ſame name, tempted the dukes of Pomerania to build a caſtle here; and therefore ſome of them are, in ſeveral hiſtories, ſtiled dukes of Stolpe.

At Verchen, on the lake of Cummerio, is a convent of ladies.

Penkum is a remarkable pleaſant town.

Griffenhagen, on the Oder, is pleaſantly ſituated, and gives name to a circle.

Dam ſome time ſince fell to decay; but a ſteel manufactory, after being eſtabliſhed, has, in ſome meaſure, revived it.

The iſle of Uſedom is about ſix miles in length, abounds with wild boars, deer, and hares, and was the park where the dukes of Pomerania kept their game. In 1630 the Swedes, to the number of 3000, landed here, and took it without reſiſtance; but, in 1637, 2000 Imperialiſts came upon it by ſurprize, and put them to the ſword; and finding their countrymen were preparing to re-take it with veng ance, they conſumed all the proviſions that were in the iſland, and then abandoned it.

The iſle of Wollin is 25 miles long, 15 where broadeſt, and is divided by the Swin from Uſedom. The town was built out of the ruins of Julinum, formerly one of the largeſt cities in Europe, next to Conſtantinople, being inhabited by Danes, Swedes, Ruſſians, Jews, and merchants of all nations, who had their ſeparate ſtreets, and houſes of exchange; and ſaid to have been ſo powerful, as ſingly to maintain a war againſt Denmark, and to have taken its king Suinorte priſoner three ſeveral times: but, having been partly deſtroyed by lightning, and partly by the arms of Woldemar, king of Denmark, it was, in 1170 totally demoliſhed, and has been but an inconſiderable town ever ſince, its commerce having been tranſferred to Lubeck and Dantzick.

Stargard, on the Ihna, is a capacious, handſome town, containing ſeveral churches, in one of which the Calviniſts are allowed the exerciſe of their religion. Here are, beſides a college, a free-ſchool, a houſe of correction, various manufactures, and a conſiderable trade. The ſtreets of this town are crowded with ſoldiery, and nothing is ſeen but regiments. The poſtillions, the friſſeurs, and the very peaſants, are all military.

Camin is a conſiderable town, has a foundation for ladies, a provoſtſhip, and three yearly fairs, by which, with its commerce and fiſheries, it is likely to become opulent.

Belgarden, or Belgart, is a little town, with a good trade. In ſome public acts, it is called Belgrad, and Belgradia. It is a very ancient town, of which we find no certain account till the preaching of the goſpel in theſe parts, which was about the 11th century. It was heretofore very conſiderable, both for the number and valour of its inhabitants; but has greatly ſuffered by wars and conflagrations. Near the above-mentioned are ſeveral towns, or their remains; but none of them deſerve particular deſcription.

Coſlin is a very pleaſant town, with a good air, and the uſual reſidence of the biſhop of Camin. It being but a league from the Baltic, the inhabitants can eaſily export their corn, and import what commodities they want from abroad. The Friſche Hoffe lake is a treaſure to them; for they often, in the winter, bring up

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1000 weight of fiſh there, at one draught of the net. It is not only ſurrounded with the tides at high water, but has a ſtream called Neſenbach, which turns mills for ſeveral uſes. The adjacent country is fruitful, and interſperſed with ſeveral little hills, on which ſtood formerly Popiſh chapels, much frequented by pilgrims. In 1480 it was roughly treated by Bogiſlaus X. duke of Pomerania, for a mutiny of the inhabitants. Here are a pariſh church, and two others, one of which, near the caſtle, was heretofore a nunnery. There is alſo a college, which has ſent forth ſome eminent profeſſors. On St. Simon and St. Jude's day, in 1504, the town was burnt down, but ſoon rebuilt; and in 1535 it ſuffered very much by peſtilence. Here are three annual fairs.

Corlin is the capital of a bailiwick near Belgard, and has a very good caſtle on the river Perſant. At the entrance of the town there is a wooden bridge over a river, formed by the conflux of three ſmaller ones. It is a very pleaſant place, and has belonged to the biſhops of Camin ever ſince 1240. It has two annual fairs. In 1643 it held out againſt a ſiege by the Imperialiſts.

Colberg, or Colburg, is the capital of that part called the duchy of Caſſubia, and ſtands at the mouth of the Perſant, near the Baltic ſhore. Salt is made here, of which great quantities are ſent abroad, to the great emolument of the town, and increaſe of the revenue of the Pruſſian monarch, to whom the town came by the treaty of Munſter. Its harbour is defended by a ſtrong caſtle. It hath ſome trade; contains four churches, one of which is collegiate; has a foundation for ladies, and a grammar ſchool.

Near the above are Frederickſburg, a market-town, which gives name to a bailiwick; Gulzo, a market-town, which gives name to a diſtrict; and Naugarten, a ſmall town, ſituated on a lake, from which a lordſhip receives its appellation.

SWEDISH POMERANIA comprehends the iſland of Rugen, which has already been deſcribed in our account of Sweden; the iſland of Hiddenſee, which is remarkable only for a light-houſe; a few ſmaller iſlands, of too little importance to merit mention; and ſome places on the continent, the principal of which are as follow:

Stralſund, the largeſt and richeſt town in Swediſh Pomerania, the ſixth in rank of the Hans Towns, and a free imperial city, ſtands near the banks of the ſea, over againſt the iſland of Rugen. The moſt authentic account of it is, that being for the moſt part deſtroyed, it was magnificently rebuilt, enlarged, and peopled with Germans, by Jaromar, the prince of Rugen, about 1209; and that moſt of it being afterwards burnt by the Danes, the ſituation was altered by his ſon about 1230, when it was rebuilt, ſoon grew populous, and was fortified. In the civil wars of Germany, count Wallenſtein, the imperial general, beſieged it in vain; not long after which, the citizens put themſelves under the protection of Guſtavus Adolphus, king of Sweden. The elector of Brandenburg took it in 1678, after deſtroying 1500 houſes, by bombs, in one night's time. In 1711 the kings of Poland and Denmark beſieged it in vain. In 1715 the king of Sweden, Charles XII. arrived here from his long confinement in Turkey, after his defeat at Pultowa, animated the garriſon to hold out a vigorous ſiege againſt the kings of Denmark and Pruſſia, aſſiſted by the Ruſſians and Saxons; but, notwithſtanding his continually ſupplying them with men and proviſions from the iſle of Rugen, the town was forced to ſurrender on terms, after four months ſiege. It was, however, by the treaty of peace in 1720, relinquiſhed again to the Swedes.

It enjoys great privileges, the chief of which are, that the magiſtrates are empowered to determine all cauſes among themſelves without an appeal; to coin money, and raiſe troops for ſea and land ſervice; to make leagues and confederacies for advancing their trade; to chuſe what prince of the empire they pleaſe for their protector; and, in caſe of a naval war by the empire, they are not obliged to venture their ſhips any farther than is conſiſtent with the ſafety of the city; nor are they obliged to give more than they pleaſe in the contributions which the other towns in the duchy are taxed at. It ſuffered much by a fire in 1680, as well as by ſieges, but is now a flouriſhing city. It lies in a ſort of peninſula, formed by the ſea and the lake Franeken. The ſea, from hence to Rugen, is about a mile over; and there are ſix gates, with as many bridges, leading to them from the city, to which the merchant-ſhips in the harbour are faſtened. On the land ſide it is regularly fortified with bulwarks and fiſh-ponds, two muſquet-ſhots in breadth, beſides large ditches, and natural marſhes, only paſſable by four cauſeways and bridges, leading from four gates, and all fortified; which make approaches to it very difficult. It has an excellent haven, where ſhips come up into the very town; and is ſo well ſituated for trade, that it has a very great and advantageous commerce both by ſea and land: for it is to be obſerved, that here begins the export of thoſe ſtaple commodities which all Europe ſends for to the Baltic, as corn, and naval ſtores, viz. hemp, flax, &c. but eſpecially corn, of which great quantities are exported, this being the firſt city in the Baltic, to which the Dutch trade for it. Here are alſo great quantities of honey, wax, tar, pitch, roſin, hides, tallow, and linen, eſpecially canvas, of which a good ſort is made here. The ſtreets are broad, and the buildings beautiful, the private houſes being of ſtone, and uniform.

Barth ſtands on a ſmall bay, 10 miles from Stralſund. It gives name to a ſmall principality, and is celebrated for an excellent kind of beer. It is defended by a ſtrong caſtle; and has a foundation for ladies, firſt began in 1733.

Kenz, a ſmall village in the neighbourhood of Barth, is much frequented for its mineral waters.

Trebeſis is an old but important frontier town, with a caſtle and bailiwick. About the cloſe of the 12th century, Ratibor, duke of Pomerania, took it from the people of Rugen, and converted them to Chriſtianity.

Grieffswalde is ſituated at the bottom of a gulph oppoſite to the iſle of Rugen. It is conſiderable, handſomely built, ſtrongly fortified, poſſeſſes a good trade, has great privileges, and produces a large revenue. Here are an univerſity, a grammar ſchool, and German ſeminary; and the three paſtors of the town are theological profeſſors. In the neighbourhood are ſalt ſprings, which are not of any utility for want of fuel. The town has a good harbour, with many ſhips belonging to it. Here are two annual fairs.

Wolgaſt, a town near the river Pene, has a pretty good trade. It gives name to a county and lordſhip, as it did anciently to a duchy; and ſeveral of the dukes of Pomerania are interred in its parochial church.

Grotſkow is a town on the river Pene, and a capital of a county of the ſame name. Upon the death of its laſt count without iſſue, the dukes of Pomerania, to whom it devolved, ſeized it, and had the inveſtiture thereof by the emperor; but it afterwards belonged to the Swedes, though now to the king of Pruſſia.

This town was the firſt in theſe parts that received Chriſtianity, upon its being preached by Orton, biſhop of Bamberg, called the apoſtle of Pomerania, who built a church here in the room of its Pagan temple; and it was then a town of ſome eminence; but it was taken and plundered by the Danes, and the people of Rugen, in 1357; and, after the demolition of its caſtle, by the inhabitants of Stralſund and Gripſwald, in 1368, it greatly dwindled. Here was once alſo a collegiate church, on whoſe ſynod ſeveral pariſhes depended, as to ſpiritual juriſdiction, which are now ſhared between Wolgaſt and Gripſwald; and Grotſkow itſelf depends now on the ſynod of Gripſwald.

Loytz ſtands on the Pene river, between Grotſkow and Demain. The Pomeranians took it firſt from the counts of Grotſkow, and afterwards from the princes of Mecklenburg. It has four annual fairs.

In Swediſh Pomerania, as in the diviſions of the Pruſſian dominions in general, are many towns and villages, too inconſiderable to merit inſertion.

MAGDEBURG is a level country, watered by the Elbe; in ſome places woody, in others marſhy or ſandy; but, in moſt parts, ſo exceedingly rich in ſalt, as to be capable of ſupplying all Germany with that commodity. It was formerly an archbiſhopric, erected at the requeſt of the emperor Otho I. with ſubjection to none in ſpirituals but the pope; and its prelate was primate of all Germany till the reformation, when the canons, having embraced Luther's doctrine, choſe the elector of Brandenburg's ſon adminiſtrator of the archbiſhopric; after which it remained in the adminiſtration of a ſecular prince till 1648, when it was eſtabliſhed by the treaty of Munſter, that, after the death of the then adminiſtrator, the whole country ſhould devolve on the elector of Brandenburg as a ſecular eſtate, and a dukedom. It is accordingly now ſubject to that elector.

Magdeburg, the capital, ſtands on the Elbe. It is as ancient a city as moſt in Germany. The name ſignifies Maiden Town, which ſome aſcribe to the worſhip paid in it to Venus, till her image and temple were deſtroyed by order of Charlemagne, who, charmed with its ſituation, built St. Stephen's church there, with its treaſure, together with a fort, to awe the Saxons. The town was firſt built about the year 940, by Otho I. who made it imperial, and was enlarged by his empreſs Edgitha, daughter to our SIXON king Edmund, who, ſome ſay, founded it; but others, with more probability, that ſhe received it from him as a part of her dowry in marriage. The firſt tournaments in Germany were appointed here by the emperor Henry the Fowler, to which none were admitted but thoſe of noble extraction, and unblemiſhed reputation.

The ſituation of this city is very fine, having an outlet on all ſides to ſpacious plains, that are very fruitful in corn, as well as an inlet of riches by the river Elbe: but there are few towns in Germany that have ſuffered ſo much as this, by war, ſieges, ravages, and fire. It was the greateſt ſufferer in that called the thirty years war; becauſe, for ſo long a time, Germany was ravaged on all ſides: for, in 1631, the emperor's general, count Tilly, took it by ſtorm, after a long ſiege, maſſacred the inhabitants in a moſt barbarous manner, and burnt and deſtroyed the whole town, except the cathedral, and a few inconſiderable houſes, or rather cottages, of fiſhermen; ſo that 16 churches and chapels, many of them covered with lead, and one with copper, were reduced to aſhes; and of 40,000 burghers, not above 400 eſcaped, and theſe had no ſupport, the general having ordered his ſoldiers to ſpare neither age or ſex.

The electors of Brandenburg have ſince repaired its fortifications, which having been carried on many years, are very ſtrong. They have alſo rebuilt one ſtately church. The Jeſuits have alſo a very fine church; the three religions being tolerated here, according to the treaty of Weſtphalia; and the town is populous, extenſive, and has a flouriſhing trade. The cathedral, a magnificent ſtructure, built after the Engliſh model, was founded in 1210, by Archbiſhop Albert I. and dedicated (as the former that was burnt) to St Maurice. Here is that called Otho's chapel, where he is repreſented in Baſſo Relievo over the altar, with his empreſs Edgitha, and the figures of 19 caſks of gold, which had been ſpent by them upon the former cathedral. This church has 49 altars; and the high altar in the choir is of one ſtone of divers colours, curiouſly wrought, nine Hamburg ells long, four broad, and one thick. Behind the high altar are the tombs of the emperor Otho, and the empreſs Edgitha, whoſe bones were removed hither from the ruins of the old cathedral. In the front of the choir there is a fine marble ſtatue of St. Maurice, the patron of the church, having a ſhield in one hand, with the Imperial eagle; and, in the other, the ſtandard with which the citizens march to the field in time of war. Among other ornaments are the ſtatues of the five wiſe virgins ſmiling, and the five fooliſh ones lamenting; both well executed. In the ruins of the cloyſter of the Auguſtin friars, in which order Martin Luther was one, there are a chamber, bedſtead, and table, which appear, by an inſcription over the door, in German verſe, to have belonged to that reformer. The elector Frederic I. built a houſe in this city, which faces the great ſquare before the cathedral, and is oppoſite to the citadel he built, which is divided from it by the Elbe.

This river brings up a great many merchant ſhips from Holland, Hamburg, &c. to the quay of Magdeburg, and forms an iſland before the town, which has ſome works of earth caſt up, with ſeveral houſes, and large wharehouſes of fir timber for building ſhips, that is carried to Hamburg, and there bought up by divers merchants. The iſland is joined both to the country and the town, by two bridges. Over againſt the town houſe there is incloſed, in a ſort of cage, an equeſtrian ſtatue, erected by the city in honour of Otho, accompanied with the ſtatues of his two wives, Edgitha and Adelais; and ſeveral figures of armed men, holding the arms of his chief hereditary domains. In the great market-place there is the ſtatue of Roland, of the ſame nature with thoſe Charlemagne cauſed to be ſet up in all the towns which he either founded or repaired. An academy of cadets is erected in this, as well as Berlin, and other towns, where young gentlemen are inſtructed in the rudiments of war. The great ſquare before the elector's palace, has few equal to it for extent, and fine houſes that encompaſs it, which are all uniform, and three ſtories high. There is an arſenal full of cannon and ſmall arms; and though not ſo magnificent as that of Berlin, may be ranked among the chief elſewhere. The chapter of Magdeburg meets in the cathedral, is on the ſame footing as before the reformation; and the canons muſt all prove their nobility; though this is a punctilio with which the elector, who confers all its dignities, ſometimes diſpenſes.

Halle, a large town, received its name from the ſalt-pits, diſcovered here previous to the birth of our Saviour, which were beſtowed by the emperor Otho the Great, on the archbiſhopric of Magdeburg. His ſon, named likewiſe Otho, gave the place a charter, called it Halle, and made it an imperial city. The town contains four ſalt ſprings, many boiling houſes, &c. The toll of the ſalt brings a very conſiderable revenue to the king of Pruſſia. The renters of the boiling houſes, are called plarmers, and muſt be freemen of the city; but the workmen are termed hallers; and theſe ſtill retain the Sclavonic dreſs, cuſtoms, manners, language, &c. The principal part of the ſalt made here is conveyed by the Elbe to Brandenburg, Pomerania, Sileſia, Pruſſia, Franconia, &c. where it is diſpoſed of by the king's factors. Theſe ſalt ſprings, and the univerſity, have rendered Halle a flouriſhing place. The univerſity was founded in 1694, by Frederic I. king of Pruſſia. From that period to the preſent, the increaſe of the ſtudents has been amazing. They have not only been eminent in point of dignity, but their proficiency in the various departments of the belles lettres.

This univerſity is ſuperior to that of Leipſic, with reſpect to the abilities of the profeſſors, the diſcipline of the ſtudents, and the cheapneſs of living. In the tower of Halle are a library, conſiſting of above 10,000 volumes, a Lutheran and Calviniſt gymnaſium, a free ſecular Calviniſt nunnery, three Lutheran churches, many Calviniſt churches, a Popiſh chapel, a Jews ſynagogue, ſeveral chapels, hoſpitals, &c.

The magiſtrates have large eſtates, an extenſive juriſdiction, great power, and many privileges. The orphan houſe is a laudible inſtitution, and the correction and workhouſe are of infinite utility. The inhabitants carry on various manufactories for gloves, ſtuffs, fuſtians, flannel, porcelain, gold, ribbons, metal buttons, ſilk ſtockings, woollen ſtockings, cloths, linen, tobacco pipes, ſilver, ſtarch, red and yellow leather, &c.

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In the environs of the town are many plantations of mulberry-trees, for the purpoſe of feeding ſilk-worms, and the improvement of the ſilk manufactory. The German language is ſpoken here in its utmoſt purity, and the manners of the inhabitants are courteous and polite.

Glauche, near Halle, is in the ſame bailiwick, is celebrated for an orphan-houſe, in which 200 orphans are conſtantly maintained and educated, and many other perſons occaſionally relieved. In the ſchool are taught Hebrew, Greek, Latin, French, theology, logic, mathematics, phyſic, geography, hiſtory, writing, arithmetic, ſinging, and epiſtolary correſpondence. Here are two inſpectors, 50 preceptors, a diſpenſary, laboratory, muſeum, printing-preſſes, &c. Excluſive of the preceptors, officers, and orphans, on the foundation, above an hundred other ſtudents, and poor ſcholars, are allowed their dinner and ſupper, inſomuch that with perſons occaſionally admitted, near 700 perſons eat together in one large hall. Independent of the above, here are four German ſchools, under the direction of two inſpectors, and 110 preceptors. Near the orphan houſe is an academy, where young gentlemen are taught at their own expence, every polite and uſeful branch of erudition.

There are other towns in the duchy of Magdeburg; ſome of which have ſalt ſprings, ſome coal and copper mines, and others carry on trade and manufactures; but they are, in general, too inconſiderable to merit particular deſcription.

HALBERSTADT is a ſmall province, 30 miles in length, and 35 in breadth, has a good ſoil, yields plenty of corn, and the foreſts have ſtore of veniſon. The largeſt park is the Hackel, in the middle of the country. The north-weſt part is full of fens and marſhes, through which dykes and roads are caſt up towards Brunſwic, Helmſtadt, &c.

Halberſtadt, its principal town, which gives name to the country, was heretofore an imperial city. It ſtands on the river Hotheim, or Hotteim, 25 miles ſouth-weſt of Magdeburg. It was made a biſhopric by Charlemagne in 780, when the ſee was transferred hither from Oſterwick. Hiſtorians give an account of 48 of their biſhops, moſt of them as being of the houſe of Brunſwic, and more remarkable for being ſoldiers than ſcholars. Their 15th biſhop, Ramhard, defeated the emperor Henry V. in the woods of Welfo. Their 18th, Utric, was routed by Henry the Lion, duke of Brunſwic, who took and burnt the town, with the citizens and clergy that fled to the cathedral. Their 29th, Albert of Brunſwic, fought 20 battles, and gained moſt of them, over his rivals, who were ſet up againſt him by the popes. The 31ſt was Albert, a great philoſopher, who being defeated by Gerard the Eloquent, biſhop of Hildeſheim, it occaſioned a jeſt here, that rhetoric was too hard for logic. Their 44th, Henry Julius, of Brunſwic, was choſen when but two years old, on condition, that the dean and chapter ſhould have the government for 12 years, and pay their infant-biſhop an annuity. In 1591 he introduced Luther's reformation. He was ſucceeded by his three ſons, one after the other; the laſt of whom, Chriſtian, took part with the Proteſtants in the civil wars of Germany, and was a great, but unfortunate warrior. Their 48th, and laſt biſhop, was Leopold William, of Auſtria, who being put in by the Imperialiſts, reſtored Popery: but the Swedes, retaking the town, reſtored Lutheraniſm, and kept poſſeſſion of both city and dioceſe, till the biſhopric was ſecularized, and given to the elector of Brandenburg by the treaty of Weſtphalia; and now it bears the title of a principality.

The town is well built, the ſtreets ſtrait and uniform, and many of the buildings compact and ſtately: but the moſt remarkable is an inn, called the Commis, or factory, reckoned the largeſt in Europe, and to have the beſt accommodations for ſtrangers; ſo that in the time of the civil war, Wallenſtein, the emperor's general, kept his court in it for ſome months, and found lodgings in it for all his attendants and guards. The trade here is inconſiderable, by reaſon of the ſmallneſs of the river; but as it is the ſeat of the regency of the principality, and of the courts of juſtice, it is much frequented. Its cathedral, which is a free-ſtone pile, adorned with remarkable ſtatues, belongs to a chapter, wherein the Catholics and Proteſtants are equally admitted, and both are allowed their public worſhip. Behind its choir there is an image of the Virgin Mary, with 72 titles of honour. The Catholics have ſeveral convents in the town, of which that of the Recollects is the moſt beautiful, and their church is very fine. Upon the whole, it is a ſtrong and populous city, has ſix gates and a town houſe. The houſes which are on the hill, or about it, are called the town; thoſe below it, the ſuburbs. On the top of an hill, in an eſplanade, ſtand two churches, with the canons houſes.

Gruningen is a ſmall town with a large caſtle, formerly the reſidence of the biſhops of Halberſtadt. Here is a curious chapel, gilt all over the inſide, with fine galleries, &c. This town gives name to a bailiwick, as does Aſcherſleben, a town on the Bode, containing a Benedictine nunnery, and a convent of Auguſtine monks.

Aſcherſleben, on the Erne, is the ſecond town in the province, and contains three churches, one of which is common both to Lutherans and Calviniſts.

Weferlingen, on the Aller, is a market town, and contains a Lutheran abbey.

Ermſleben, on the Selke, gives name to a circle and bailiwick. Dardeſſen is a walled town on a hill. Zilly is a ſmall town which gives name to a bailiwick. Horenburg, on the Ilſe, does the ſame, and is likewiſe celebrated for its hop trade. Oſterwick, on the Ilſe, has ſeveral woollen manufactories: and Reinſtein, formerly a ſtrong caſtle, gives name to a county and circle.

GLATZ has for its boundaries Sileſia, Moravia, and Bohemia, and is ſeparated from them all by mountains almoſt inacceſſible, ſo that it is a country very difficult to be entered. Its length is about 30 miles, and its breadth 20, beautifully diverſified with villages, hills, dales, meadows, fields, ſtreams, &c. and produces wheat, paſture, wood, quarry-ſtones, jaſper, cornelians, game, fiſh, pit-coal, marble, topazes, mineral waters, &c. It is watered by ſeveral ſtreams, particularly the Neyſz; and is, upon the whole, an exceeding fertile and plentiful country.

Since Glatz became ſubject to Pruſſia, the diets have been diſcontinued. It was not conquered by the Pruſſian monarch, but ceded to him in the year 1742, by the queen of Hungary. For the government of Glatz there is a regency; but an appeal, in either civil or eccleſiaſtical matters, lies to the courts at Berlin; and the offices are ſubordinate to the war and domain chambers at Breſlaw. The language is German. The principal manufactures are thread and cotton; but the favourite employments of the inhabitants are tillage and grazing. The people, in general, were Roman Catholics, till the country came into the poſſeſſion of the king of Pruſſia; ſince which Lutheraniſm has been eſtabliſhed. The principal places are the following:

Glatz, the capital, is ſituated near the Neyſz, on the declivity of a hill. It is well fortified; contains an old caſtle, which has been much improved by the Pruſſians; and a new one, which they have lately erected. The latter is admirably ſituated on a hill, oppoſite to the former, with a river between them. Here are commodious barracks for the garriſon; and the adjacent country may be laid under water by means of ſluices. The town contains a college, two convents, ſeveral churches, and enjoys a tolerable trade. From the ſummit of the old citadel the country may be ſeen, which, as well as the town, has been greatly improved ſince the Pruſſians became poſſeſſed of it.

Laudec, on the Biela, contains ſome warm baths.

Habelſchwerdt is a walled town on the Neyſz.

Reinerz is an open town, remarkable for a mineral ſpring, and its manufactures of cloth, pluſh, and paper.

Wimſchelburg is ſurrounded by walls, and has a great trade in thread and woollen; as Neurode, a little open town, has for cloth, ſtuffs, and ſnuff; and Hunſdorff, a ſmall town, is remarkable for a copper mine.

In this province there is a high mountain, which ſerves as a weather-glaſs to the whole country:

For by the clouds that on its head appear,
The wiſer ſwains predict when ſtorms are near;
And, from th' appearance of its top, explain
When ſnows will fall, or tell th' approach of rain.

MINDEN, which was given to the elector of Brandenburg at the treaty of Munſter, lies betwixt Oſnaburg and Schaumburg, and is 20 miles from eaſt to weſt, and 25 from north to ſouth. The ſouthern parts abound with corn, of which they export a great quantity; but the northern are full of woods and hills, and have plenty of game.

The capital, of the ſame name, is a neat, well fortified town, on the weſt ſide of the Weſer, 30 miles eaſt of Oſnaburg. It was made a biſhopric by Charlemagne, and continued ſo as ſuffragan to the archbiſhop of Cologne, till 1638, when it was ſecularized by the treaty of Munſter. In Charlemagne's time a caſtle was built at the foot of its bridge over the Weſer, of which ſome remains, with other antiquities, are yet viſible. In 1529 the reformation took place here with ſuch vehemence that the chapter was obliged to leave the city; for which the inhabitants were, in 1538, put under the ban of the empire; and in 1547, they were, in conſequence, obliged to ſurrender their town to Charles V. They were almoſt ever afterwards in continual troubles and revolutions, on the ſcore of religion, during the wars in Germany. The city was taken by the Imperialiſts under count Tilly, in 1628; and by the duke of Brunſwic Lunenburg, in 1634. It was taken the firſt time by ſtorm, when Tilly put near 3000 men, ſoldiers and inhabitants, to the ſword. In 1636 the Swedes undertook to protect the Proteſtant inhabitants againſt the perſecution of the chapter, and kept poſſeſſion of it on that account till 1650, when, in purſuance of the treaties of Weſtphalia, this once imperial city, and one of the Hans Towns alſo, was delivered to the elector of Brandenburg, who keeps a garriſon here. The majority of the inhabitants are Proteſtants; but the cathedral, a noble and large, though dark ſtructure, which is ſaid to have been king Wittikind's palace, who, on his converſion, turned it into a church, is in the poſſeſſion of the Roman Catholics; as are likewiſe the churches of St. John and St. Simeon, with a large monaſtery adjoining to the latter. This place is noted for a particular ſort of pale beer, much eſteemed in Germany, ſomewhat like oat-ale. It is a walled town, defended by ſome half-moons, but commanded by a neighbouring hill. It has two chapters, one of canons, and the other of canoneſſes, into which the ladies muſt make proof of their nobility to be admitted.

Minden has ſuffered greatly by war, and has ſeveral times been beſieged and taken. Upon the plain in its vicinity, a memorable battle was fought between the French, and the confederate army, under prince Ferdinand of Brunſwick, on the 1ſt of Auguſt, 1759. The allies on that day advanced towards the centre of the French army, which was compoſed almoſt wholly of horſe; but it was the flower of their cavalry, who anticipated the ſhock of the allies by beginning the engagement. The brunt of the battle was almoſt wholly ſuſtained by the Engliſh infantry and ſome corps of Hanoverians, which ſtood the reiterated charges of ſo many bodies of horſe, the ſtrength and glory of the French armies, with a reſolution, ſteadineſs, and expertneſs in their manœuvres, which were never exceeded, or, perhaps, never equalled. They cut to pieces, or entirely routed, theſe bodies. Two brigades of foot attempted to ſupport them, but they vaniſhed before the Engliſh infantry. Waldegrave's and Kingſley's regiments diſtinguiſhed themſelves in a particular manner this day; nor were their commanders leſs diſtinguiſhed. The enemy's horſe, which compoſed their centre, being entirely diſcomfited, and their right having made no ſort of impreſſion, they thought of nothing but a retreat. At this point of time the prince ſent orders to lord George Sackville, who commanded the whole Britiſh, and ſeveral brigades of German cavalry, to advance. But the orders were not ſufficiently preciſe, or they were not ſufficiently underſtood by the Engliſh commander; ſo that during the delay occaſioned in waiting for explanations, the critical minute paſſed away. The Britiſh cavalry loſt their ſhare in the glory of the action, and the victory was leſs deciſive than it would otherwiſe have been. The loſs of the French, in this action, amounted to about 7000 men, killed, wounded, and taken; among whom were ſeveral officers of conſiderable rank. The loſs of the allies did not exceed 2000, about 1200 of which were Engliſh; for as the Engliſh had the greateſt glory in the action, ſo they were the greateſt ſufferers.

Peterſhagen was a ſmall village till 1722, when it obtained the privileges of a town. It has a Lutheran church, a brewery, diſtillery, and is defended by a caſtle.

Hanſberg gives name to a diſtrict; has a brewery, diſtillery, three vaſſals ſeats, royal farm, and caſtle. In 1722 it was made a city and magiſtracy.

Lubeck is a fortified town, inhabited by Lutherans; the magiſtrates having both civil and criminal juriſdiction within the diſtrict. Here are a ſchool, alms-houſe, ſugar-houſe, chapter-houſe, &c. The trade conſiſts of cattle, yarn, woollen, linen, beer, and ſpirits.

RAVENSBURG lies ſouth from Oſnaburg and Minden, north-weſt from Lippe, and north from Rheda, is 38 miles long, and 40 broad. It belongs to the king of Pruſſia; is moſtly rocky and mountainous, and has its name from its capital, which is ſituated, together with its ſtrong fort, on a hill near the River Heſſel, 18 miles ſouth of Oſnaburg. Here it may be proper to obſerve, that moſt of the ancient ſeats of the German princes and nobility are thus ſituated upon hills, which is the reaſon that ſo many counties and lordſhips of Germany terminate in berg, i. e. a hill; as the reaſon why ſo many of its towns end in burg, or borch, is, becauſe both theſe monoſyllables ſignify a town. The other towns in this province are

Bielvelt, or Bielfeldt, formerly a Hans Town, 10 miles ſouth eaſt of Ravenſburg, at the bottom of a great hill and defended by the impregnable fort of Sparenburg. It made a brave reſiſtance againſt the French, when they attacked it from a neighbouring hill with granades and fire-balls; for the burghers covered their houſes with webs of linen (their chief manufacture) dipped in milk, which prevented their doing much damage. Their linen is bleached on the adjacent hills, where it is watched by boys, who, on the approach of travellers in the night-time, make a hideous howl. The town lies in the road from Minden to Munſter.

Hervoden, or Herfurt, is a pleaſantly ſituated town, and famed for the manufacture of linen, 22 miles ſouth-eaſt from Oſnaburg. It is a pretty large place, and divided into three parts, called the Old Town, the New Town, and Radewich, by the rivers Elſa, Aa, and Werne. It was formerly an imperial city; but it is ill built, and chiefly noted for a famous nunnery founded in 832, the abbeſs of which formerly held this city in ſubjection, till Anne, counteſs of Limburg, and abbeſs of this nunnery, gave up the city to William, duke of Juliers, in the year 1547. The eſtate belonging to it was formerly a county, and converted in the year 790, to the uſe of a friars convent, where this abbey now ſtands. It embraced the reformation about two centuries ago; and is, perhaps, the only one of its kind in Europe; becauſe the abbeſs and all the nuns are Calviniſts. One abbeſs was the learned princeſs Elizabeth, of the Palatine family, ſiſter to the princeſs Sophia of Hanover, whoſe literary correſpondence with

with M. Deſcartes, that great man has publiſhed in his works, which ſhew that ſhe was the miracle of her ſex. Conſiderable eſtates, in the neighbourhood of this city, belong to it. There is alſo another nunnery on a hill, near the town, which is a ſort of nurſery to the abbey, and where the young ladies are taught needle-work, &c. It was founded in the year 1101, and is under the immediate direction of a deaconeſs, with a treaſureſs, and all the officers that belong to collegiate churches; but otherwiſe ſubject to the abbeſs of Hervoden, who, as princeſs of the empire, has all the hereditary offices common to electors. She has her ſeat at the diet among the prelates of the Rhine; and ſhe has princes, or counts, for vaſſals, who pay her homage, by kneeling at the foot of her throne, in preſenting her with gold and ſilver. The revenue of this abbey is worth about 3000l. a year. There are no vows, or unreaſonable reſtraints, impoſed on the nuns, who commonly are ladies of the firſt quality. The king of Pruſſia, as count of Ravenſburg, is protector of the abbey. He has alſo a garriſon in the town.

Engeren, thought to have been the capital of the Angrivari, was the reſidence of king Wittikind, who founded the collegiate church of St. Denys, and was buried in it.

Ulotowe, on the Weſer, is the capital of an ancient barony, with a caſtle, which was formerly count Waldeck's, and lies convenient for trade.

Schideſche is a ſmall hamlet, with a foundation for 17 Roman Catholic, Lutheran, and Calviniſt ladies.

Verſmold is a ſmall town, where a conſiderable linen trade is carried on; and Bunde is another ſmall town, famed likewiſe for its linen manufactory, and alſo for a mineral ſpring.

LINGEN is ſituated between the biſhoprics of Munſter and Oſnaburg, has a fertile ſoil, and produces plenty of pit-coal and ſtone. Calviniſm is the eſtabliſhed religion; but there are many Lutherans and Roman Catholics. On the death of William III. king of England, the whole country was ſeized by the king of Pruſſia, and incorporated with Tecklenburg.

The principal places are Lingen, the metropolis, which ſtands on the river Ems. It came to William, prince of Orange, by his lady the heireſs. The Ems here is very broad, and bears large veſſels, that get into the ſea near Embden. It once had a caſtle, and other fortifications; but the former was blown up many years ago by the magazine's taking fire; and of the latter there only remain its ditch, and a draw-bridge at each gate. The ſands about this place keep the air dry, and free from fogs. King William erected an academy here; beſides which he founded five places in a Latin ſchool for poor ſcholars, and did every thing he could to promote the Proteſtant religion in this country, which was at that time entirely Popiſh; but the profeſſors of it were obliged to have their marriages and baptiſms in the Proteſtant church; and a prieſt could not lie here one night without leave from the magiſtrates, as a puniſhment for the revolt whereto they excited the people about the year 1674, which was ſuppreſſed by the prince of Orange in perſon. There is a good library at the academy, together with a printing-houſe.

Rheda is a ſmall town, with a caſtle, near the Ems: and Ibbenbukren is an inconſiderable town; but near it are quarries of ſtone, and ſeveral coal-pits.

The duchy of CLEVES is, in general, fertile, pleaſant, and well watered by the Rhine, Roer, Empſer, Lippe, Iſſel, &c. Dykes are cut as a ſecurity againſt inundations; and the country abounds in corn, fruits, black cattle, game, fiſh, and horſes.

The inhabitants are fond of trade; and the rivers and lakes afford them many commercial opportunities. The moſt remarkable places are

Cleves, the metropolis, which has its name from its ſituation, being, for the moſt part, among cliffs, and on the declivity of a hill, between the Rhine and the Maeſe, in one of the fineſt countries of Germany. It is thought, by Cluverius, and others, to have been the ancient Colonia Ulpia Trajana: and over the ſouth gate of the town there is an inſcription, denoting, that Julius Cæſar founded a caſtle here; that Auguſtus garriſoned it; that Ulpius Trajanus made it a colony; and Ælius Adrianus a city. It is now ſmall, but pleaſant, well built, and well peopled, having ſeveral fine houſes belonging to perſons of quality; but thoſe of the ordinary burghers are mean. The caſtle is large, delightfully ſeated on the top of a hill, but irregular, and not very ſtrong. From an ancient Gothic ſtructure, called the Swan Tower, there is a noble proſpect of the neighbouring country, and, in particular, of the Rhine, which lies three miles from it to the north, and there divides itſelf into two branches, both commanded by the fort Schenk. There are ſtately apartments in the caſtle, which was the palace of their ancient dukes, and where the king of Pruſſia reſides when he comes to the city, which ſubſiſts chiefly by the reſidence of his deputies, who govern the duchy, and by the meeting of the ſtates, who aſſemble in the caſtle. The governors of the country, and the magiſtrates of the city, are Calviniſts, and have a large handſome church, beſides the chapel of the caſtle: but the public churches here, and in moſt parts of the duchy, are in the poſſeſſion of the Papiſts, by virtue of an agreement with the dukes of Newburg and Juliers, who was thereupon obliged to allow the Proteſtants a liberty in their dominions. The river Hel, which runs by the foot of the caſtle, is navigable, by ſmall veſſels, to the Rhine. On the weſt ſide of the city are thoſe called prince Maurice of Naſſau's parks, with many pleaſant canals, fine water works, grottos, &c. Above them lies the high hill of Sternberg, from whence may be ſeen Utrecht, though 50 miles off, with near 40 other cities and great towns, 12 of which are ſeen through ſo many walks cut in the woods. The prince's houſe ſtands in a wood on the eaſt ſide; and, among other rarities, has a noble collection of old Roman urns, and divers other monuments of antiquity. Beſides the great church, a monaſtery of Capuchins, and another of Franciſcans, are the only public buildings in the city. On the road, two leagues from this city, there is the palace of Moiland, where the late king of Pruſſia reſided in 1734, as he returned from the Imperial army on the Rhine; and from hence to Santen, which is five leagues, there is one continued range of walks.

Emmerick, or Embrick, is a large, rich, beautiful town, pleaſantly ſituated on the eaſt ſide of the Rhine, four miles eaſt of Cleves; it is very ancient, one of the Hans Towns, and has a pretty good trade. It was formerly poſſeſſed by the Dutch; but, on the emperor's perſuaſion, they reſigned it to the duke of Cleves in 1600, on condition that the Spaniards ſhould reſtore Rhinberg to the elector of Cologne; which they not performing, the Dutch repoſſeſſed it, and fortified this, and ſeveral other towns of the duchy, as a frontier againſt the Spaniards: but they afterwards reſtored them to the elector of Brandenburg. It was taken by the French in 1672; but reſtored, in 1674, to the elector, who had mortgaged it to the Dutch. Over againſt it, in the Rhine, there is a large iſland, at the corner of which, next to the town, there was a fort, which commanded the river. The governor and magiſtrates, and many of the burghers, are Calviniſts, and have a church here; but the reſt are poſſeſſed by the Papiſts according to agreement.

Rees, nine miles higher, on the ſame ſide of the Rhine, was a fortified town, and taken and reſtored by the French in the ſame manner as Emmerick, but lately diſmantled. The Proteſtants have a church here, where they have preſerved an excellent ſculpture in gilt wood, containing the hiſtory of the life of Chriſt.

Santen, 9 miles weſt of Weſel, and 13 from Cleves, in a valley between hills, half a league from the Rhine, is a large town, ſo ancient, that Cluverius ſuppoſed it to be the Vetera Caſtra of Tacitus, which was for ſome time the reſidence of Julius Cæſar. The place is much decayed;

decayed; but has a great church, like a cathedral, with 30 fine altars, and the gospel history carved exquisitely in timber; fine altars, abundance of reliques, and, as the priests say, a MS. by St. Paul's own hand. The town is walled, but has no fortifications. This was the place where the provisional treaty was made in 1614, for the partition of the succession of Juliers, Berg, and Cleves, between the families of Brandenburg and Newburg.

Calcar, on the river Men, between Santen and Cleves, was built and fortified by the dukes of Cleves, for a defence against any sudden invasion from Cologne or Gelderland. It soon grew populous and rich, by a trade in linen: but since one of its dukes built a vast granary here, for the boors to bring their corn to, it has been more considerable for making malt and beer. Its most stately buildings are the town house, St. Nicholas's church, and a monastery of Dominicans; the latter of which has a good library. It has a strong castle, and a fine market-place; but the streets are narrow; and it is surrounded with water and morasses. The road from hence to Cleves is through a barren country, in which are some castles.

Between this town and Santen stands Marienboom, a rich monastery, with a Latin inscription on the wall next the road, expressing their gratitude to Frederick William, elector of Brandenburg, for accepting their great collection of MSS. in 1650, instead of turning them out, and secularizing their revenues.

Wesel, called Nether Wesel, to distinguish it from Upper Wesel, in the electorate of Treves, stands on the east side of the Rhine, near the mouth of the river Lippe, 10 miles east of Santen, and 18 south-east of Cleves. It was formerly a Hans Town, and also imperial, but exempted, by the dukes of Cleves, from the contributions paid by those towns to the military chest of the empire, according to the Matricula. It is populous, and well seated for trade. It grew rich by the concourse of merchants who fled hither from the persecution in the Spanish Netherlands, and was garrisoned by the Dutch, to whom it was mortgaged by the elector of Brandenburg; but taken and plundered by the French in 1672, when they also exacted heavy contributions from the inhabitants, which forced many of them to retire; but it was restored, in 1674, to the elector, after the French had dismantled it. Though the place submits to the king of Prussia as its sovereign, it is governed by its own laws. Both the town, and its two suburbs, are full of soldiers, and well fortified, after the modern way. As the place has been fortifying during a long space of time, it may well be reckoned one of the strongest towns in Europe. It has a good citadel towards the Rhine; a small harbour for vessels that trade on that river; an arsenal, well stored with all necessaries for defence or destruction; and several churches and monasteries. The porch of the great church is remarkable for the birth of Peregrine Bertie (afterwards earl of Lindsey) whose mother, the duchess dowager of Suffolk, and Mr. Bertie, her husband, being forced to fly beyond sea, from queen Mary's persecution, were reduced to such difficulties here, because they durst not make themselves known, that they could not get any better accommodation. There is an hospital in this town, founded, and richly endowed, by a chancellor of this duchy and his son, for the aged and decrepid. The country from hence to Duisburg is a plain, and a gravelly soil.

Duisburg was formerly an Imperial city, and one of the Hans Towns; has a Protestant university, a commandry of the Teutonic order, two monasteries, a nunnery, and two parish churches, and is well fortified. The other towns in this duchy are inconsiderable.

MEURS is a little principality, watered by the Rhine, and yields plenty of corn, cattle, and venison. On the death of the last count, and his daughter, Walpurgis, it came to the house of Nassau; and, on the death of William III. king of Great Britain, to the electoral house of Brandenburg. As prince of Meurs, the king of Prussia has a seat and voice in the college of the princes of the empire, and the diets of the circle. The revenue is considerable; and the only places of the least note are,

Meurs, or Mors, a compact, small, well fortified town, where the provincial colleges hold their meetings. Here is a castle, a Calvinist church, and a Latin school.

Crefeld is a small town, defended by a citadel, and contains manufactures of silk, linen, velvet, &c.

MARK is reckoned the largest county in Westphalia, being 40 miles both ways. It is situated between the Lippe and the Roer, divided into 15 bailiwicks, and subject to the king of Prussia. It is thought to have its name from being the ancient boundary between Germany and Gallia Belgica. It lies west from the duchy of Westphalia, north from that of Berg, and south-east from Cleves.

This county in itself is fertile and rich, and yields grain, pulse, fruit, coals, lead, silver, salt, game, flax, hemp, wood, iron, copper, stone, cattle, fish, &c.

The principal manufactures are in iron and steel. People of all persuasions are tolerated here; and the government is invested in the same colleges as that of Cleves. The principal places are as follow:

Hamm was anciently one of the Hans Towns: but though the adjacent country abounds with corn, hemp, and flax, it is a poor place, that subsists chiefly by lodging travellers between Brandenburg, &c. and the Netherlands. It was taken by the French in 1673, but restored next year to the elector of Brandenburg.

Soest, or Soust, is a populous city, seated in the neck of this county, which shoots into Westphalia; of which circle some reckon it the largest city, except Munster. It is fortified with a double wall, whereon are 30 watch towers, and a large deep ditch. It has 14 parishes, and many churches, besides chapels; one of which is collegiate, and under the jurisdiction of the archbishop of Cologne. It has many privileges, particularly the liberty of hunting and killing venison in any of the neighbouring counties. It has also a court of judicature within itself, from which there lies no appeal, except to the chamber of Wetzlar. It has as many gates as parishes; but is in so ruinous a state, that very few of the streets are paved. It was taken and plundered in 1622, by Christian, duke of Brunswic; and has suffered much, at sundry times, by war and fire. Here are several convents; and a famous nunnery, in particular, called Paradise. The Lutherans possess two of the parish churches, and a nunnery, which, like other Protestant nunneries in Germany, is a sort of free boarding school, raised on the ancient Popish establishments, where young ladies, generally of the best families, are educated. Some spend their lives in them, but take neither the vow or habit; nor are they tied down to many rules.

Hoerde, on the Empser, is defended by an old castle, and contains a Lutheran and Calvinist church. The inhabitants are chiefly employed in nail making: and near the town there is a free secular foundation for an abbess, and 15 other ladies, partly Protestant, and partly Roman Catholic.

Hagen, on the Volme, is a small town, contains a Lutheran, Calvinist, and Roman Catholic church, and a manufacture of cloth. The inhabitants likewise make sword-blades, paper, knives, hammers, charcoal, &c. In the district are found two sorts of alabaster, viz. white with red veins, and black with white veins.

Dortmund was one of the Hans Towns, and reckoned the capital of the county of Mark, as it was of its bailiwick, which the lords of it sold to the inhabitants; whereupon, with the emperor's consent, they took the title of an imperial city, which the elector of Brandenburg took away. The religious establishment here is Lutheran. Though it is a small place, it is rich and populous, having a pretty good trade, and communication with the Rhine, by its river Empser, almost in the middle, between the rivers Lippe and Roer,

Roer, ſcarce ſix miles from both. It has an univerſity, which was erected in 1543.

Of the other towns in the county of Mark, it may ſuffice to obſerve, that they are ſmall; and their principal trade and manufacture conſiſts in braſs, iron, and wool.

EAST FRIESLAND, otherwiſe called the earldom of EMBDEN, was formerly under the protection of the United Provinces of Holland; but they diſpoſed of their right to the late king of Pruſſia, to whom, and his ſucceſſor, it has ſince that time been ſubject.

The air of this province is thick and moiſt, the country low and marſhy, and the inundations frequent and dangerous; but the paſtures are rich and fertile. Here are abundance of horſes, ſheep, horned cattle, &c. The great number of dykes are highly ſerviceable to the country, which, however, produces but little corn: but, beſides the articles already mentioned, here is plenty of veniſon, fiſh, wild and tame fowl, herbs, &c. and the inhabitants are well provided with turf for fuel. The chief river is the Eons. The languages ſpoken by the people of Eaſt Frieſland, are High and Low Dutch. The prevailing religion is the Lutheran. The trade is very conſiderable in horſes, horned cattle, butter, cheeſe, linen, rape-ſeed, barley, and wool.

The principal places of this province are the following:

Embden, ſituated on the north ſide of the Ems, and on the bay called Dollart, is a rich, large, and populous city, fortified towards the land by a double ditch, regular bulwarks, and baſtions; and on the ſouth by a ſtrong wall, and the river. The iſland Neſſa, which lies in the Dollart bay, over againſt this city, makes the harbour as large and convenient as any on the German coaſt. They have alſo artificial canals, by which they can bring large veſſels into the heart of the town; and, by opening their ſluices, lay the neighbouring country under water, and render the town inacceſſible. Their houſes are, in general, neat and high. The town-hall is magnificent. The inhabitants are very induſtrious, much diſpoſed to trade, zealous aſſerters of their liberties, and excellent ſoldiers. They make good proviſion for their poor, and allow freedom of worſhip to all but Papiſts. In 1750 the late king of Pruſſia eſtabliſhed an Eaſt-India company here. Embden is divided into three parts, the Old Town, the Faldern, and the Suburbs. The moſt remarkable buildings are the town-houſe, library, and cathedral.

Norden, ſituated about 15 miles diſtant from Embden, is a pleaſant, well built, and populous town, but not walled in; nor is the harbour deep enough to receive ſhips of any great burthen.

Aurich, about ten miles from Embden, is defended by a ſtrong caſtle, the reſidence of the count or prince of Eaſt Frieſland. This is the place where the ſupreme court of judicature for this county is held. It is the capital of a little diſtrict called Auricherland, which is marſhy and full of woods.

Jemgum is an opulent borough, with an harbour on the Ems; Leer, a large, well inhabited town, on the Leda, with a conſiderable linen manufactory; and Gretſyhl is a borough town, ſituated on the German Ocean, with a ſtrong caſtle to defend it.

Witmund was formerly a place of good trade, but is now much decayed.

LIPPE is a county, in general, mountainous and healthy, but has ſome arable land. The inhabitants are Calviniſts. Lipſtadt, the capital, is a conſiderable town, which was formerly free and imperial, but now partly ſubject to its own counts, and partly to the elector of Brandenburg. The principal places are as follow:

Lemgan, formerly a Hans Town, contains a Lutheran academy, one Calviniſt and two Lutheran churches, a palace called Lippehoff, and a foundation for ladies, the abbeſs of which is always a counteſs of the houſe of Lippe.

Detmold, on the Warra, has a ſtrong caſtle; Horn contains a palace; Sabz-Ufflen is celebrated for a ſalt-ſpring; Barndorf is a borough, and has a palace; Swalenberg has a caſtle; and Lipperod gives name to a diſtrict.

GULICK lies between the Maeſe and the Rhine, abounds with corn, paſture ground, and cattle, and has an excellent breed of horſes. The ſoil alſo produces woad, or wad, for dying.

Juliers, or Gulick, the capital, is a fortified town, defended by a caſtle, in which was the palace of the ancient dukes.

The other towns, or rather villages, are not worthy of mention.

TACKLENBURG, in 1560, fell to the counts of Bentheim, and ſince to the king of Pruſſia. Its capital of the ſame name, has a ſtrong caſtle and a fort.

Before we proceed to deſcribe that part of Gelderland in the Netherlands, (which is called Upper Gelderland, and introduced here as belonging to the king of Pruſſia,) it is neceſſary to obſerve, that it is entirely divided from that part which is called Dutch Gelderland; and alſo conſidered as a diſtinct territory.

Upper Gelderland continued in the poſſeſſion of the Spaniards after the common-wealth of the United Provinces was ſettled; but was conquered by the allies, during the war occaſioned by the death of king Charles II. of Spain, about his ſucceſſion. The king of Pruſſia laid claim to it: and, by the treaty of Utrecht, it was agreed, that he ſhould keep the city of Gelder, the prefectorſhips, towns, boroughs, fiefs, lands, quit and other rents, in that part of the high quarter of Gelderland, which he was actually in poſſeſſion of, which was yielded to him, his heirs, and ſucceſſors, for ever; together with the county of Keſſel, and the bailiwick of Krickenbeck. By the barrier treaty, concluded at Antwerp in 1715, the emperor gave up to the States-General for ever, the city of Venlo, with its diſtrict, fort St. Michael, fort Stevenſwert, with its territories and diſtrict, and ſo much ground as was neceſſary to enlarge its fortifications on the other ſide of the Maeſe. The principal places of Upper Gelderland are the following:

Gelder, 20 miles diſtant from Cleves, ſtands in a plain, on the river Niers, which, dividing itſelf here into two branches, forms an iſland in which this city is ſituated. It receives the Niers into its trenches, lies in the midſt of marſhes, and is ſo well fortified in other reſpects, that it is reckoned one of the ſtrongeſt places in the Netherlands. It has an ancient caſtle, formerly the ſeat of its governors, and is ſuppoſed to have been built by Wichard, the firſt lord of this county, who erected it into a principality, after the death of Charles the Bald. The heirets being afterwards married to Otho, of Naſſau, who was created count by the emperor Henry IV. about the year 1069, one of his deſcendants was made duke by the emperor Lewis, of Bavaria, in 1339; but his poſterity failing, it came to the count of Egmont, who ſold it to Charles, duke of Burgundy, by whoſe daughter it came to the houſe of Auſtria. It was taken by the confederates in the beginning of the war in the Low Countries, but betrayed to the Spaniards in 1587. The Dutch beſieged it in 1637, 1639, and 1640, but without ſucceſs. The French ſeized it in the beginning of the war occaſioned by the death of Charles II. of Spain, as before mentioned; but it was retaken by the Pruſſians, after a blockade of 15 months and 14 days bombardment. By the treaty of Utrecht, it was yielded to the king of Pruſſia, in exchange for the principality of Orange, to which he had a right, as heir to king William III. and which the French king had ſeized upon.

Keſſel, a large borough, with a fine caſtle, is the capital of a county, or diſtrict, which was yielded to the king of Pruſſia by the ſame treaty. This borough lies on the Maeſe, about 13 miles diſtant from Gelder to the ſouth.

Stralen, about four miles diſtant from Gelder, was formerly fortified; but the French having taken it in 1672, demoliſhed its fortifications. It belongs now to

to the king of Pruſſia, and is the capital of a ſmall territory.

Wachtendonck ſtands on the little river Niers, five miles above Gelder. It is well fortified, but its chief ſtrength conſiſts in the marſhes that ſurround it, and in its ditches, filled with the waters of the Niers. In the beginning of the wars in the Low Countries, it was taken by Lewis, count of Naſſau, brother to the prince of Orange, in an hard winter, by marching ſome troops over the ice, which the garriſon had neglected to break. In 1588 it was furiouſly battered by count Mansfield, general of the Spaniards; and it is obſerved, that bombs were uſed, for the firſt time, at this ſiege: notwithſtanding which, the beſieged defended themſelves ſo bravely, that the Spaniards were going to retire, after a three months ſiege, when the town was betrayed to them by the governor, juſt as it was upon the point of being relieved.

The principality of NEUFCHATEL, though a part of Switzerland, belongs to Pruſſia; and is bounded by the biſhopric of Baſil, and the territory of Biel, towards the north; by the lake Neufchatel towards the eaſt; by the canton of Bern on the ſouth; and by Franche Compte, or Burgundy, on the weſt; being about twelve leagues in length, from north to ſouth, and ſix in breadth, from eaſt to weſt. The air of this country, near the lake, is temperate, but very ſharp in the mountainous parts of it. The ſoil is ſtony, but produces the beſt wine in Switzerland; by the ſale whereof to foreigners, the natives make great advantages.

The language is French; and the inhabitants reſemble that nation more in their manners and cuſtoms than the Germans. They are, in a manner, a free independent people, notwithſtanding they have always had a prince for their head; for nothing is determined but by the concurrence of the three eſtates. They have alſo the privilege of chuſing their own magiſtrates and ſtandard-bearer, and are ſubject to no taxes but what they lay upon themſelves; and the whole country is of the reformed religion, except the two villages of Creſier and Landeron, the inhabitants of which are Roman Catholics. Upon the death of the ducheſs of Nemours, the laſt counteſs of Neufchatel, as heireſs of the houſe of Longueville, the ſtates of the county were inclined to ſubmit themſelves to the father of the late king of Pruſſia, as heir, by his mother, to the houſe of Orange, which derived its title to Neufchatel from the marriage of one of its princes with the heireſs of the houſe of Chalons, the direct ſovereign of theſe two counties. Several competitors alſo aroſe at the ſame time, who claimed as heirs, in blood, to the houſe of Longueville; but the ſtates rejected their claim, and adjudged it to the heirs of the houſe of Chalons, and the king of Pruſſia accordingly took poſſeſſion of it. The chief towns in the county of Neufchatel, are Neufchatel, the capital, and Landeron.

Neufchatel, called by the Germans Newburg, is ſituated at the north-eaſt end of the lake to which it communicates its name, about 20 miles north-weſt of Bern, and 15 north-weſt of Friburg. The town is well built, and adorned with ſeveral handſome fountains. It is governed by a council of 60 burghers, and enjoys large privileges, among which the moſt conſiderable is, that they are comburghers, or fellow-citizens, with the canton of Bern, which is not only their protector, but umpire of all the differences between them and their ſovereign; and this canton ſupported them in their religious and civil rights, while they were under the dominion of Popiſh princes. The counts of Neufchatel were formerly allied to the cantons of Bern, Lucern, Soleure, and Friburg; but ſince the inveſtiture of the king of Pruſſia, the Popiſh ſtates do not ſeem diſpoſed to renew the alliance, and they may be looked upon now as allied only to Bern.

Landeron, ſituated near the lake of Biel, is remarkable for the ſtrength of its ſituation, and a noble caſtle, the reſidence of the prince.

Some parts of SILESIA having been ceded to the late king of Pruſſia, and others ſeized upon by him at various times, and under different pretences; it may, therefore, upon the whole, with great propriety, be deemed a Pruſſian province, and as ſuch deſcribed in this place.

Sileſia extends, on both ſides of the Oder, from the Carpathian mountains, where it riſes, to the borders of Brandenburg. It is ſeparated from Bohemia and Moravia, on the ſouth-weſt and ſouth, by the mountains called Riſſenbergen; and bounded by Poland on the eaſt; Luſatia and part of Bohemia on the weſt; Brandenburg on the north; and Hungary on the ſouth.

From north-weſt to ſouth-eaſt it is about 225 miles, and about 100 where broadeſt; but it is much contracted at both ends.

On the ſide next to Bohemia there are many barren mountains; but the reſt of the country is a good ſoil, abounding with corn, wine, ſweet cane, or galengal, madder, and flax: and on the mountains which divide it from Moravia, are mines of ſilver, the richeſt in Germany, which were mortgaged by the emperor Charles VI. upon the advance of money from Great Britain, &c. by the title of the Sileſian loans, at five and ſeven per cent. There are others of copper, lead, iron, quickſilver, ſalt, ſalt-petre, and chalk.

The chief mountains are Jottenberg, or the Sileſian Weathercock, ſo called becauſe the neighbouring people prognoſticate what weather will enſue from the appearance of its ſummit. Here are the ruins of an old caſtle, demoliſhed by the citizens of Breſlaw, becauſe it was a ſhelter for robbers. From this hill they dig a fine dark greeniſh marble. Gratzberg or Gradiſberg, on which duke Frederick built a caſtle, now a watch-tower. Spitſberb, with a beacon, near the former. Georgenberg, in the duchy of Schweidnitz, famous for the Terra Sigillata, firſt diſcovered by Montanus, an eminent phyſician and chymiſt, who wrote a Latin treatiſe on its virtues.

The chief river is the Oder, which riſes near a town of that name on the borders of Moravia, and traverſes the country from ſouth to north-weſt. Many ſmaller rivers riſe here, and fall into the Oder, increaſing it to a large navigable ſtream before it paſſes into Brandenburg. The rivers abound with freſh water fiſh, as do alſo the ponds and lakes, eſpecially lampreys, which are taken in vaſt quantities in the Neiſſiſh lake, &c. The meadows alſo have cattle, the foreſts veniſon, with all the wild and tame beaſts and fowl that are in any part of Germany. The number of inhabitants are computed at a million and half, being a mixture of Germans, Moravians, Poles, &c. The language is in ſome places German, and in others Sclavonic. Since the country fell under the dominion of the Pruſſians, no diets have been held; but all the other privileges of the inhabitants have been confirmed to them. The eſtabliſhed religion is the Proteſtant; but Roman Catholics, Jews, Greeks, &c. are tolerated. The principal manufactures are woollens, linens, cottons, thread, hats, glaſs, gunpowder, and iron wares.

Chriſtianity was planted here, as in Poland, about the end of the 9th, or beginning of the 10th century: but at firſt the Chriſtians worſhipped in private, for fear of their magiſtrates, till about 965, when the court itſelf turned to Chriſtianity, when no leſs than nine biſhoprics were erected in this country. Soon after Luther's appearance they embraced the Augſburg confeſſion, for which they had a charter granted them by the emperor Rodolph II. in 1609: but Ferdinand II. repealed their charter, and very much reſtrained the exerciſe of their religion, which, though reſtored by the treaty of Weſtphalia, was again invaded by the Auſtrian family; till Charles XII. king of Sweden, obliged the emperor Joſeph to allow it them again, with freſh conceſſions. Theſe, however, have been virtually revoked, at ſome periods ſubſequent to that time; but now, being under the dominion of a Proteſtant power, they are fully confirmed in the free exerciſe of the Proteſtant religion.

The

The exciſe revenue here is only levied in walled towns, and fluctuates; but, in the reſt of the duchy, the contributions are fixed, and the ſame both in peace and war. The whole revenue from Sileſia, and the country of Glatz, is very conſiderable, and managed by the domain offices of Breſlaw and Glogaw.

Many Sileſians, of the higher rank, have diſtinguiſhed themſelves for their political and military talents, learning, wit, &c. but the lower claſs of people are, in general, rather dull. "They have (ſays a pertinent obſerver) more of Mars than Mercury in their compoſition, and their parts are more ſolid than ſhining."

Sileſia is divided into Upper and Lower, and theſe are again ſubdivided into principalities and lordſhips. Both the property and juriſdiction of ſome of theſe belong immediately to the king, and others to his ſubjects and vaſſals.

LOWER SILESIA is divided into thirteen principalities, and three lordſhips, to which we ſhall attend in due order.

The principality of Breſlaw is a pleaſant and fruitful country, in the middle of Sileſia, lying on both ſides of the Oder. Its firſt duke was Boleſlaus, a Poliſh prince, ſo created by the emperor Frederick I. in 1163; but the following princes not being able to defend themſelves againſt the Tartars and Poles, were forced to put themſelves under the protection of the king of Bohemia, to whom, Buno ſays, the emperor Frederick II. gave it as a fief of the empire; but it was ſubject to the houſe of Auſtria before its ceſſion to the king of Pruſſia.

Breſlaw, the capital of all Sileſia, is ſituated at the conflux of the Oder and Olaw, at the diſtance of 150 miles north-eaſt of Berlin, and 147 north of Vienna. It is a rich, populous town, and, including the ſuburbs, of great extent. It contains many large uniform ſquares, capacious ſtreets, ſtately public edifices, handſome private houſes, &c. The fortifications are of no great importance. Breſlaw contains ſeveral Roman Catholic and Lutheran churches, one for the uſe of the Calviniſts, and another for the Greeks; two ſynagogues for the Jews, a college, a palace for the biſhop, two Lutheran gymnaſiums, or ſchools of exerciſe, a noble univerſity, and a magnificent exchange. This city is next in dignity to Berlin and Koningſburg, being the third in rank in all the Pruſſian dominions. The magiſtracy is Lutheran, the trade and manufactures conſiderable, and the monaſteries and nunneries magnificent and well endowed. Here are likewiſe ſeveral good public libraries, two armories, a college of phyſicians, a mint, &c. Many yearly fairs, excellent markets, and other advantages which it enjoys, induce various foreign merchants to reſort hither. The abundance of water is a great convenience to this city. The houſes are all built with ſtone: and there are two iſlands near it formed by the river Oder, in one of which is a church, the tower of which was burnt by lightning in 1730; and in the other iſland, called Thinn, the cathedral is ſituated. This city was taken by the king of Pruſſia in 1741, and retaken by the Auſtrians in 1757; but they did not keep it long; for the king of Pruſſia made himſelf maſter of it again the ſame year, and hath retained it ever ſince.

In this principality are many other towns and villages, but none deſerving of mention, except the village of Leuthen, where, in 1757, the Pruſſians obtained a ſignal victory over the Auſtrians.

The principality of Brieg is one of the largeſt and moſt fruitful in all Sileſia. It is watered by the Oder and Olaw, and produces corn, paſture, tobacco, beech, madder, oak, pine, ſtone, &c.

Brieg, beſides many ſmall towns, villages, hamlets, &c. contains the ſix following places, which give name to as many circles.

Brieg, the capital, which ſtands on the Oder, is one of the handſomeſt towns in Sileſia, well-fortified, and has a college, where the profeſſors are Lutherans; and an academy, where the nobility are trained to the liberal arts. The ſtreets are uniform, the houſes generally of ſtone; and St. Nicolas's church is a high, ſtately, old fabric, with two towers. Moſt of it, except the public buildings, was burnt, by the Huſſites, in 1428; and, in 1740, the Pruſſians obtained a victory over the Auſtrians, at a little village called Molwitz, near this place.

Olaw, ſituated on a river ſo called, is defended by a caſtle, contains a copper flatting-mill, and is celebrated for the quantity of tobacco raiſed in its neighbourhood.

Strehlen has large ſuburbs, a manufactory of cloth, and in its neighbourhood a quarry of green marble.

Reichenſtein and Silberberg are mine towns, and produce gold, ſilver, and lead ore.

Creutzburg is defended by a ſtrong caſtle.

Nimptch, a town, with a caſtle, on the Lohe, is ſituated in a commandry belonging to the knights of St. John.

The principality of Schweidnitz has a capital of the ſame name, on the river Weiſtritz. It derives its name from the great herds of ſwine kept here before the foreſt was cut down in 1070, and has a wild boar for its arms. It is ſituated on a riſing ground, with a view over a delightful and fruitful country. Its walls, which ſeem to be very ancient, are built of brick, and fortified with ramparts on round towers. Here are a caſtle, a fine ſquare, and a college of Jeſuits, who have a church, one of the largeſt and fineſt in Sileſia, with a very high tower, and a clock that is heard at a great diſtance, with chimes that ſtrike the hours. It is beautified with many other elegant ſtructures, beſides its churches; and has an armoury, wherein there is a piece of ordnance of exceſſive weight.

Striga, one of the towns of this principality, ſtands on the river Polſnitz, and is noted for excellent beer, and that remarkable mineral called Terra Sigillata.

Landſhut is a conſiderable town at the conflux of the Bober and Zeider, having a flouriſhing linen trade, and giving name to a circle, in which is ſituated the Ciſtertian abbey of Griſſau, richly endowed. The abbot is vicar-general of Sileſia, and wears a mitre.

Reichenbach, on the Peil, is a ſmall town, with manufactures of fuſtian, canvas, and linen; a commandry of the order of St. John, and a priory dedicated to St. Barbara.

The principality of Jawer, or Jauer, is watered by the river Bober, which riſes in it, and runs through it from north to ſouth.

Jawer, its capital, is ſituated in a pleaſant valley, and a good air, near the rocky mountains which divide Sileſia from Bohemia. It is not ſo large as Schweidnitz but has ſtrong walls with high ramparts, and deep ditches. It has a conſiderable church, with a convent of Bernardines, and a great citadel, in which reſides the bailiff, or lieutenant, of both the duchies of Jawer and Schweidnitz. There is a fine town-houſe in the middle of a large ſquare of houſes, built with galleries for people to walk under. This capital ſuffered much by the civil wars in 1648, when the church was burnt down, but has been ſince rebuilt in a more ſtately manner.

Bunzlaw, a ſmall town on the Bober, is noted for a beautiful brown earthen ware, and an excellent quick ſpring of a mineral nature.

Lawenberg, on the Bober, contains a Franciſcan convent, with a commandry of the order of St. John, and a Lutheran oratory. A darkiſh kind of amber is found here; and within its circle is a linen manufactory.

Hirochberg is one of the handſomeſt, largeſt, and moſt thriving towns in Sileſia, ſituated at the conflux of the Bober and Zaken. It has a large trade, a great bleachery, and a capital linen manufactory; and in the circle, to which the town gives name, are mines of iron and copper, warm baths, manufactures of linen, glaſs, ſilk damaſks, &c.

The principality of Lignitz is capacious, fertile, and well watered by ſeveral rivers, the chief of which is

the Katzbach. It contains many large woods, and is celebrated for producing a fine breed of horſes, and plenty of madder.

Lignitz, the capital, is ſituated on the Katzbach, a rivulet, two German miles north from Jawer, and ſix weſt from Breſlaw. It was walled round, made a city, and adorned by Boleſlaus, the firſt duke, who reſided here about 1170, when it was the chief city of Sileſia, next to Breſlaw. It was farther beautified and fortified by Boleſlaus the Bald. Frederick II. another of its dukes, encompaſſed it with a ditch in 1532, to ſecure it againſt the frequent incurſions of the Turks; and Henry XI. augmented the ditch, and made new works to ſtrengthen it. It is, in ſhort, a large town, has a noble caſtle, a ſtately town-houſe and hoſpital, and is famous for a victory obtained near it, over the Imperialiſts, in 1635. In 1741 the Pruſſians took it without oppoſition. It contains ſeveral churches, Roman Catholic, Lutheran, &c. a college, a military academy, and the palace of the ancient princes, with the chapel in which they were buried. Here are many meal, ſawing, tan, paper, and powder mills, and a conſiderable trade in linen and madder.

Goldberg, on the Katzbach, is a conſiderable town, which took its name from a gold mine that was formerly worked here, and contains a Franciſcan convent, with a commandry of the order of St. John. In the neighbourhood is a hill called Spitzbergen, or the ſharp-pointed hill, which, at a diſtance, reſembles a pyramid, and is of a green colour.

Luben gives name to a circle, and has a cloth manufactory. Parchwitz, a ſmall town on the Katzbach, has alſo a manufactory of cloth, and gives name to a diſtrict.

The principality of Wolaw is, in general, woody and marſhy, yet has a few corn lands. The rivers are the Katzbach and Oder; and the circles are ſix in number, to which the following towns give name.

Wolaw, the capital, containing a Carmelite convent and church, the Ciſtertian abbey of Leubus, a palace, and a Lutheran church and ſchool.

Winziz is a ſmall town, containing a Roman Catholic church and a ſchool.

Rautden, a ſmall open town; Steinau, on the Oder, remarkable for its cloth manufactory; Ratzen, on the Bartſch, celebrated for its two mineral ſprings; and Herrenſtadt, on the ſame river, which had a Roman Catholic and Lutheran church till 1739, when the whole was burnt down by the Auſtrians.

The principality of Glogaw is the largeſt in Lower Sileſia. It is watered by the Oder, Bartſch, and Bober; yields abundance of corn, wine, and wood; has ſeveral woollen manufactories; and is divided into ſix circles, to which the following towns give name.

Glogaw, the capital, has the epithet of Great, to diſtinguiſh it from another town of the ſame name in Upper Sileſia. It is the ſeat of ſeveral courts, offices, &c. has a college, a Lutheran, a Calviniſt, and ſeveral Roman Catholic churches and convents; and is ſtrongly fortified, and well garriſoned. It was taken in 1741 by the Pruſſians, and its fortifications conſiderably augmented; and in its circle is a lake, the fiſhery of which is farmed out, and brings a conſiderable ſum annually.

Gurau, which, in 1759, was burnt by the Ruſſians; Sprottau, at the conflux of the Sprotte and Bober, is remarkable for its iron works; Grunberg, famous for its vineyards; Schuibus, on the Schwemme, important on account of its cloth manufactory and ſtrong caſtle; and Treyſtadt, remarkable for a caſtle, a convent, a Lutheran and Roman Catholic church, a cloth manufactory, and a mill-ſtone quarry, which belongs ſolely to the king.

The principality of Neyſz is remarkable for its northern diſtricts being more fertile than the ſouthern. In ſome parts of it tobacco is cultivated; and it is watered by the Olaw, the Neyſz, the Billaw, and the Oppa. The principal places are

Ottmachaw, on the Neyſz, where the biſhop has a palace, and a court of regency.

Neyſz ſtands on the river of its own name, and is noted for a great trade in bed ticking. It is watered alſo by the river Bielan, and is the ordinary reſidence of the biſhop of Breſlaw. It is as large as Lignitz or Brieg, and much more magnificent, with ſpacious ſuburbs. Moſt of the houſes are high, and built of free-ſtone, forming fine ſtreets and public ſquares. It is encompaſſed by a good wall, and a ditch full of water; has ſeveral churches and convents; is commanded by a fort on a neighbouring hill, erected in 1743, by order of the late king of Pruſſia, and defended by a ſtrong garriſon.

Grotkaw is but a ſmall town, and the houſes moſtly built of timber; but the biſhop's palace, the church, and town-hall, are of ſtone. It has good gates and walls, with a triple ditch. It ſtands in a fine plain, near a foreſt, in a good air, and a fruitful ſoil, between Brieg on the north, and Munſterburg on the ſouth-weſt. It has a large pariſh church. This town, and its principality, were ſold, in 1341, by the dukes of Lignitz and Brieg, to the biſhop of Breſlaw. It has been ſubject to divers accidents. In 1490, and 1549, it was burnt down; the laſt time by lightning; ſo that only the pariſh church, and a few houſes, eſcaped. In 1438 it was plundered by the Poles. Duke William, of Troppau, took it in 1445; and it ſuffered very much in the Swediſh war with the empire.

The principality of Oels is ſandy and barren, divided into four circles, and has four towns of no importance.

The principality of Sagan abounds with wood and iron, and contains but one place of any note, viz.

Sagan, near the frontiers of Luſatia, remarkable for an abbey, a ducal palace, a Lutheran church, a Roman Catholic church, a college, and ſeveral iron and copper mills.

The principality of Munſterburg is very mountainous; notwithſtanding which it yields abundance of grain, flax, hemp, wood, hops, cattle, ſheep, &c. It is watered by the Neyſz and Olaw, and contains

Munſterburg, the capital, which ſtands in a fruitful plain, at the head of the river Olaw, and takes its name from a monaſtery built here by the emperor Henry I. who founded the city; but has nothing remarkable, except its old caſtle, which is a ſtrong fortreſs, the ſchool, and a handſome town-houſe.

Henrichau, only remarkable for a Ciſtertian abbey; Frankenſtein, on the Pauſo, which contains a palace, a convent, two churches, a Ciſtertian abbey, ſeveral offices, courts, &c. and Wartha, a little town on the Neyſz, which has a well endowed priory.

The two laſt principalities are thoſe of Tranchenberg and Carolath, each of which contains two inconſiderable towns.

The lordſhip of Wartenberg contains only Wartenberg, a ſmall town, with a palace, a Roman Catholic, Lutheran, and Calviniſt church.

The lordſhip of Militſh is only remarkable for its large foreſts, which are the property of the king; and for one town of the ſame name, which is ſituated on the Bartſch, and contains a Lutheran and a Roman Catholic church.

The lordſhip of Goſchutz is ſurrounded by the principality of Oels, and contains only two inconſiderable towns.

UPPER SILESIA is divided into ſix principalities and one lordſhip, which are as follow:

The principality of Oppelen is very barren, and full of lakes. The only town of any note is

Oppelen, on the north bank of the Oder. It is the capital of the principality, and contains a college, and ſeveral convents. In the circle to which it gives name, there is a royal foundery for caſting bombs.

The principality of Troppau, watered by the Oppa, is very fertile, and contains

Troppau, on the Oppa, the capital of Upper Sileſia. It is a walled town, and contains ſeveral churches, convents,

vents, a college, a palace, &c. and Hildſchin, a ſmall town, walled and fortified.

The principality of Jagerndorf, is likewiſe fertile, and contains ſeveral mineral ſprings. The principal town is

Jagerndorf, which takes its name from the great number of huntſmen that formerly lived in it, there being plenty of game in the neighbouring woods. It is called, by Latin authors, Cornovienſis, from its arms, which are a pair of horns betwixt two ſtones; and were given by Lewis, king of Hungary and Bohemia, to George, marquis of Brandenburg, who built a caſtle, and other fortifications, to defend the town; and though diſpoſſeſſed of it by the civil wars in Germany, kept up his claim to it till the emperor gave him the circle of Schwibus, in Lower Sileſia, for an equivalent. From hence the king of Pruſſia formed that claim which was a pretence for his invading Sileſia.

The principality of Ratibor has a ſoil tolerably fertile in corn and paſture, and abounds in lakes, ponds, ſtreams, &c. It forms a circle, the inhabitants of which are Poles, or deſcendants of Poles; and the only place worth naming is Ratiſbor on the Oder, which contains ſeveral convents, a palace, a bridge over the river, &c.

The principality of Teſchen is full of lakes, moors, mountains, &c. The only place worth naming is Teſchen, a walled town, with a palace, a Lutheran and Roman Catholic church, a college, and two convents.

The principality of Bilitz is tolerably fertile, but contains no place worthy of obſervation.

The lordſhip of Pleſs contains only

Pleſs, a ſmall city, near the river Weiſſel, with the title of a barony. It is well defended by its rivers and marſhes, and has a large caſtle, which is ſaid to have as many windows as there are days in the year, and ſtands in a great ſquare, encompaſſed by handſome houſes, inhabited by merchants. The Roman Catholics have a church here, and the Lutherans, who are the majority, another.

That part of Poland which, in the partition, was allotted to the monarch of Pruſſia, has been already deſcribed in our account of the former unhappy kingdom, under the title of *Poliſh Pruſſia*.

Deſcent, Manufactures, Titular Dignities of the King, Military Forces, Revenues, &c. of Pruſſia.

THE nobility are, in general, deſcended from the ancient Germans; but the peaſantry are of a mixed breed, and either vaſſals to the king or nobles.

The manufactures of Pruſſia are daily advancing and improving, particularly thoſe of ſilk, linen, cloth, camblets, glaſs, iron, copper, paper, gunpowder, braſs, &c.

The king of Pruſſia's title runs thus: Frederick William, king of Pruſſia, margrave of Brandenburg, of the Holy Roman empire; arch-chamberlain and elector, ſovereign and ſupreme duke of Sileſia; ſovereign prince of Orange, Neufchatel, and Valengin, of the county of Glatz, Gelders, Magdeburg, Cleves, Juliers, Berg, Stetin, Pomerania, the Caſſubi, and Wends, Mecklenburg, and Croſſen; duke burgrave of Nuremburg; prince of Halberſtadt, Minden, Camin, Wenden, Shwerin, Ratzeburg, Eaſt Frieſland, and Meurs; count of Hohenſtein, Tecklenburg, Lingen, Buren, and Leerdarn; lord of Ravenſtein, &c. &c. As an elector he poſſeſſes the ſeventh place; as arch-chamberlain carries the ſcepter before the emperor at his coronation; and poſſeſſes five voices in the college of princes of the empire.

The royal arms are argent, an eagle diſplayed ſable, crowned, Or, for Pruſſia. Azure, the imperial ſceptre, Or, for Courland. To theſe are added the reſpective arms of the ſeveral provinces ſubject to the Pruſſian crown.

The number of troops in the pay of the king of Pruſſia is generally computed at 120,000. He has a body of 80 ſquadrons of huſſars, each of 130 men, youthful, comely, and well proportioned, collected by emiſſaries diſperſed throughout Europe, and at any expence.

The arms of the huſſars are a light muſket and ſabre, both which are kept in admirable order. Their cloathing is of coarſe red cloth, made cloſe to their bodies, and ſtrengthened at the elbows by leather in the ſhape of a heart. Their breeches are of well dreſſed ſheepſkins; their boots ſhort and light, but the ſoles of them durable; and their caps are ſtrengthened in the ordinary, ſo as to ſtand a cut. They are the only denomination of ſoldiers in the Pruſſian ſervice who have no chaplain. Beſides the huſſars, the king has a ſmall body of men whom they call hunters, who are reputed the moſt faithful couriers in the army, and oftentimes have been promoted for their fidelity in hazardous enterprizes. When theſe hunters are taken priſoners, no quarter is granted on either ſide.

The Pruſſian ſoldiers, in general, are remarkable for their very ſhort cloathing, which is obviouſly calculated for many wiſe ends.

The king's guards, and ſome few other regiments, are cloathed annually; but, in general, the army has new regimentals twice in three years only. Frederick II. required the ſoldiery to wear white ſpatterdaſhes, winter and ſummer; but his ſucceſſor, the late king, obſerving the inconvenience, as well as inelegance, of it, gave his men black for the winter, made of fuſtian, or a thick kind of linen cloth. The ſoldiers have alſo breeches of woollen cloth in this ſeaſon; whereas in ſummer they are of white dimity or linen, which are very light and clean. They obſerve an uniformity about their heads, by wearing pig-tails, which are eaſily kept in repair; and are generally powdered, but always ſo when on duty.

Their arms are reputed the largeſt and moſt weighty of any in Europe; though ſome of the fuzileers, who are ſmaller bodied men, have their arms proportioned. Notwithſtanding the great weight of their arms, the tactic art is carried here to the higheſt perfection; and nothing can give more pleaſure to thoſe who have any idea of harmony of this ſort of motion, than the exerciſe of the Pruſſian ſoldiers which they go through twice a day. When the weather is bad it is performed under cover, for which proper places are appointed. The leaſt motion of the head, not according to art, is corrected; ſo that a ſoldier in this ſervice muſt apply diligently to his duty or he will paſs his time very ill.

Two thirds of the army, according to their eſtabliſhment, ſhould be compoſed of foreigners; and this reaſon, as well as the ſmall number of inhabitants in the Pruſſian dominions, renders it obvious how difficult it muſt be to recruit an army: ſo that however formidable the monarch may appear, if we conſider his country as little plentiful in reſources of wealth as of inhabitants, that ſtrength muſt be deemed artificial, in ſome meaſure, which has ſo great a connection with foreign dependencies.

The pay of a common Pruſſian ſoldier is eight groch (fourteen-pence) a week, and of this three-pence is ſuppoſed to go in waſhing and materials for cleaning their arms, for which they are ſo much diſtinguiſhed; but they are allowed bread.

The royal revenue ariſes from the produce of the exciſe, cuſtoms, ſervices, and various taxes, which, in Pruſſia, are numerous and heavy. The dominions are well ſituated by nature for trade; and the acquiſition of the maritime territories, obtained by the late king, muſt have greatly increaſed the revenue, and added to the dignity of the crown of Pruſſia.

HISTORY OF PRUSSIA.

THE ancient Hiſtory of Pruſſia, like that of other kingdoms, is enveloped in the mazes of conjecture and fiction. The name of Pruſſian was unknown till the

the tenth century, and its etymology is very uncertain. The original inhabitants are ſuppoſed to have been deſcended from the Sclavonians, and appear to have been a brave and warlike people, as they refuſed to ſubmit to the neighbouring princes, who, on various pretences, attempted to reduce them to ſlavery. In particular, they made a noble ſtand againſt the kings of Poland; and, in the year 1163, the Poliſh monarch, Boleſlaus IV. was by them defeated and ſlain.

They remained Pagans in opinion, and independent in circumſtances, till the time of the cruſades, when the German knights of the Teutonic order, about the year 1230, attempted to convert them by force of arms. Several bloody wars enſued, in which the inhabitants of Pruſſia were almoſt extirpated by the zealous fury of the Teutonic knights; and the latter having ravaged the country with incredible barbarity, attempted to re-people it with Germans.

In 1466 a treaty was entered into between Caſimir IV. king of Poland, and the Teutonic knights, in which it was agreed, that the country now called Poliſh Pruſſia, ſhould continue a free province under the protection of the king, and that the knights ſhould poſſeſs the remaining part, on condition of acknowledging themſelves vaſſals to Poland. This treaty was, however, ſoon broken. Another ſeries of bloody wars enſued, and the knights attempted to become independent of the Poles, but their attempts proved abortive.

In 1525 Albert, margrave of Brandenburg, and the laſt grand maſter of the Teutonic order, laid aſide the habit of his order, embraced Lutheraniſm, and concluded a peace, and entered into a treaty at Cracow, in which it was ſtipulated that the margrave ſhould be acknowledged duke of the eaſt part of Pruſſia (which on that account was formerly called Ducal Pruſſia) but ſtill it was to remain as a fief of Poland. In this manner the ſovereignty of the Teutonic order ended in Pruſſia, after it had ſubſiſted near 300 years.

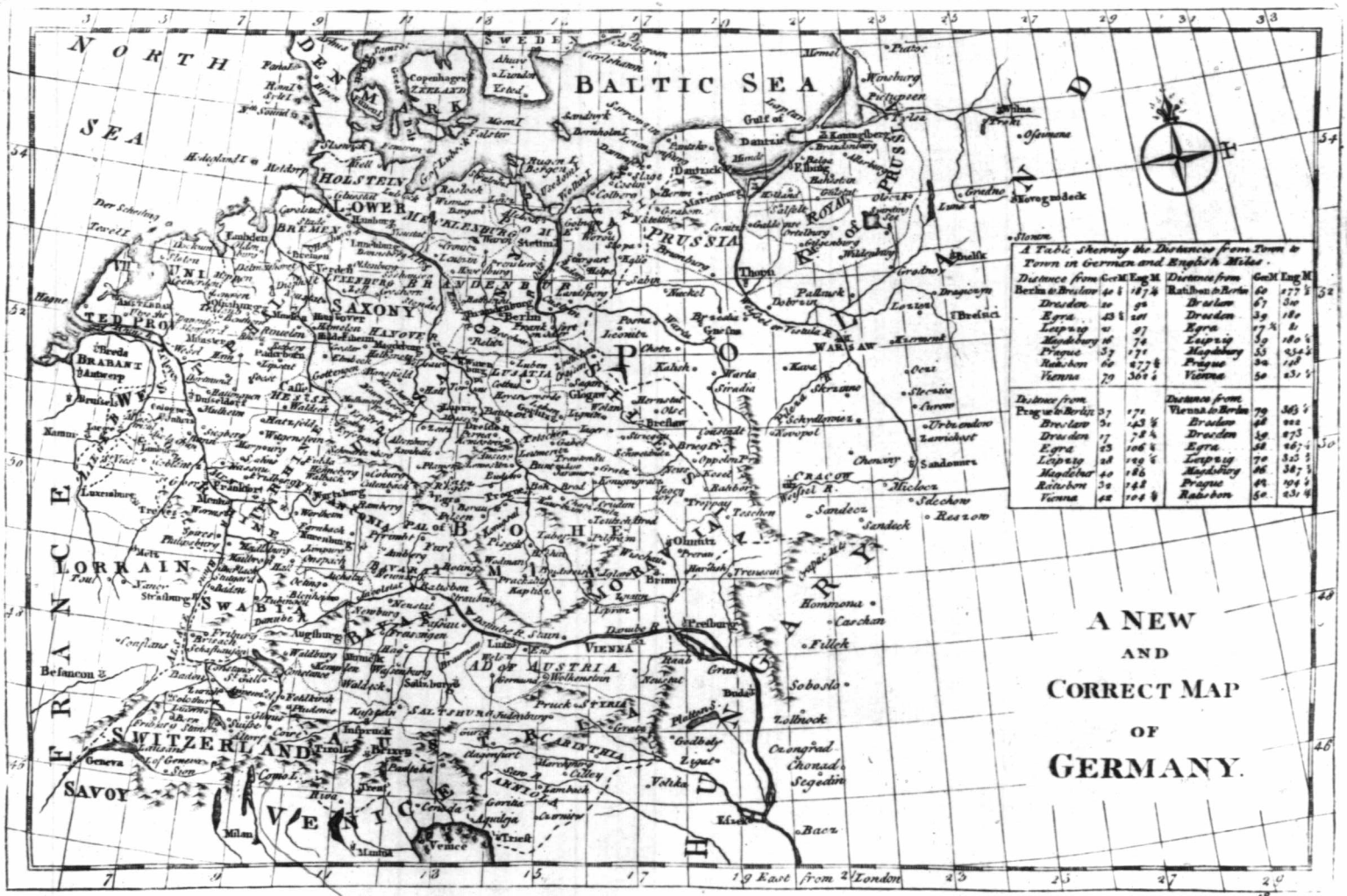
In the year 1657, the elector Frederick William, of Brandenburg, ſurnamed the Great, had Ducal Pruſſia confirmed to him; and, by the conventions of Welau and Bromberg, it was freed from its vaſſalage to Poland; and Caſimir, king of Poland, acknowledged its independency. The late king of Pruſſia, in his memoirs of the houſe of Brandenburg, ſays, that this Frederick William began his reign under the moſt deſperate circumſtances. "He was (ſays he) a prince without territories, an elector without power, a ſucceſſor without inheritance, and juſt in the flower of his youth; an age which, expoſed to the vivacity of paſſions, renders mankind almoſt incapable of direction; yet he gave marks of the moſt conſummate wiſdom, and of every virtue that could render him worthy of command." This great prince died April 29, 1688, of the dropſy.

Frederick William the Great was ſucceeded by his ſon Frederick, who was afterwards the firſt king of Pruſſia. This great titular alteration was chiefly owing to the influence of the Proteſtant powers; for as the reformed religion had been introduced into this country by the margrave Albert, and the electors were of that perſuaſion, the Proteſtant intereſt was made uſe of to raiſe Frederick to the dignity of a king, which was effected in 1701; and he was accordingly ſoon acknowledged as ſuch, not only by the empire of Germany, but by all the other powers of Europe. His grandſon, Frederick III. late king of Pruſſia, in the memoirs of his family, gives no very favourable picture of the virtues, or high opinion of the abilities, of this prince. He, however, ſpeaks warmly in praiſe of his own father, Frederick William, who ſucceeded Frederick I. king of Pruſſia, in the year 1713. This prince certainly had great talents, and uncommon courage; but he too frequently exerted both at the expence of that magnanimity and humanity which ever ought to adorn a monarch. He amaſſed ſo much money during his reign, that, at his death, which happened in 1740, he is ſaid to have left behind him the enormous ſum of 7,000,000l. ſterling, a treaſure which enabled his late ſon and ſucceſſor to purſue the moſt important plans; and which, joined to his ſagacity, courage, and great military talents, raiſed him to the utmoſt conſequence in the political ſcale of Europe.

Frederick III. began his reign January 31, in the year 1740. Nothing remarkable of his early years has been tranſmitted to us, except that he had then a taſte for literature and the polite arts, and ſhewed a particular paſſion for fine breeding and delicacy of manners, in oppoſition to the inelegant cuſtoms that prevailed in his father's court. In particular, his father was fond of drinking to exceſs, a vice which the ſon abominated. This, and other correſpondent circumſtances, at length determined him to leave his father in a ſecret manner, and, as it is generally believed, to retire to the court of England, where he propoſed to live under the protection of his uncle (king George II.) till either the death of his father, or ſome other occurrence, ſhould remove the difficulties to his return. Whatever the deſign was, it is certain that he had concerted it with a young officer of the gens d'armes, named Katte, and two others. The ſecret, however, was diſcovered; and the prince, Katte, and one of the officers were ſeized; but the other fortunately made his eſcape. A council of war was appointed to enquire into the conduct of theſe officers, which aſſembled at Koppenich. One of them was caſhiered, and condemned to three years impriſonment; another, having retired to a foreign country, was outlawed; but with regard to young Katte, the votes were equally divided; one half of his judges were for finding him guilty of death, and the other half were for acquitting him; ſo that they were obliged to leave the deciſion of it to the king. The affair being at this criſis, young Katte wrote a pathetic epiſtle to the king, imploring his clemency, but in vain; for the king ordered him to be beheaded. Several perſons of diſtinction intereſted themſelves in his fate, and tried to ſave him. The king, however, remained inexorable, and the unhappy Katte was beheaded. The prince, who had been ſecured, was ſoon afterwards ſet at liberty; but, that he might feel the power of a king and father in its utmoſt rigour, he was, againſt his will, married to the princeſs Elizabeth Chriſtina, of Brunſwick Wolfenbuttle. He did not, indeed, oppoſe the commands of his father, but ſubmiſſively married the princeſs, but without profeſſing either eſteem or affection for her; and conſidering the claim of parental affection as fully ſatisfied by the external ceremony, he abſtained, during the life of his father, from her bed. Thus ſecluded from public buſineſs, in contention with his father, in alienation from his wife, his whole time was ſpent in literary acquiſitions and uſeful ſpeculations. After the death of his father he did an act of juſtice to his princeſs, by receiving her as his wife, and acknowledging her as his queen before his whole court. With reſpect to the wars in which he has been engaged, they are ſo connected with the political affairs of other countries, that we ſhall defer a narrative of them till we proceed to our general hiſtory of Germany.

This renowned monarch improved the arts of peace, as well as thoſe of war, and diſtinguiſhed himſelf as a poet, philoſopher, and legiſlator. In 1782 he expended an immenſe ſum in eſtabliſhing factories, ſettling colonies, relieving diſtreſs, and other laudable purpoſes, which evinced conſummate philanthropy, as well as ſound policy. He paid the debt of nature, Auguſt 17th, 1786, in the 75th year of his age; and was ſucceeded on the throne by his nephew, Frederick William, (ſon of his deceaſed brother, William Auguſtus,) a prince who ſeems to have imbibed the political tenets, and to inherit the martial proweſs of his celebrated predeceſſor, the latter of which was conſpicuous in his ſtrenuous exertion to vindicate the injured dignity of his royal ſiſter during the late commotions in Holland. From this and other conſiderations, there is reaſon to anticipate the glories of his reign, which promiſes well to his ſubjects in particular, as well as the political ſyſtem of Europe in general.

CHAP.


A NEW
AND
CORRECT MAP
OF
GERMANY.
BALTIC SEA
NORTH SEA
SWEDEN
DENMARK
HOLSTEIN
LOWER SAXONY
SAXONY
PRUSSIA
BOHEMIA
AUSTRIA
SILESIA
MORAVIA
HUNGARY
POLAND
WARSAW
BRABANT
LORRAIN
SWABIA
SWITZERLAND
SAVOY
VENICE
A Table shewing the Distances from Town to Town in German and English Miles.
Distance from Ger M. Eng M. Distance from Ger M. Eng M.
Berlin to Breslaw 40 ½ 187 ½
Dresden 20 90
Egra 43 ½ 201
Leipsig 21 97
Magdeburg 16 74
Prague 37 171
Ratisbon 60 277 ½
Vienna 79 365 ½
Distance from Prague to Berlin 37 171
Breslaw 31 143 ½
Dresden 17 78 ½
Egra 23 106 ½
Leipsig 28 129 ½
Magdeburg 40 186
Ratisbon 32 148
Vienna 42 194 ½
Distance from Vienna to Berlin 79 365 ½
Breslaw 48 222
Dresden 39 175
Egra 48 217 ½
Leipsig 70 323 ½
Magdeburg 86 397 ½
Prague 69 194 ½
Ratisbon 50 231 ½

CHAP. IX.

GERMAN EMPIRE.

SECTION I.

Name, Boundaries, Situation, Extent, Soil, Climate; Productions, Vegetable, Animal, and Mineral; Rivers, &c.

THE ancient Germans went under different appellations, as Allemanni, Teutones, &c. which laſt is ſaid to have been their moſt antique deſignation. The Germans, themſelves, call their country Teutchland. Great part of modern Germany lay in ancient Gaul; and the word Germany is of itſelf but modern. The moſt probable opinion reſpecting the derivation of it is, that it is compounded of *Ger*, or *Gar*, and *Man*, which, in the ancient Celtic, ſignifies a warlike man.

This extenſive empire is bounded by the German Ocean, and the Baltic, on the north; by Switzerland, and the Alps, on the ſouth; by Poland, and Bohemia, on the eaſt; and by France, and the Low Countries, or Netherlands, on the weſt. It lies between 45 and 55 degrees of north latitude, and 5 and 19 degrees of eaſt longitude. Its length is 600, and breadth 500 miles.

The ſoil of this country is exceeding fruitful, particularly on the banks of the Rhine and the Danube, where the air is temperate; but in the northern parts it is cold, and the ground leſs fruitful. In thoſe provinces that lie next the ſea, and that abound with lakes and rivers, there is plenty of rain. In other parts, where the ſurface of the earth is drier, there are ſometimes conſiderable droughts. The north winds from the Baltic, and the bleak mountains of Sweden, bring froſts and ſnow: The eaſtern blaſts coming over a vaſt continent of three or four thouſand miles, from China and Japan, bring dry and unwholeſome weather: the ſouth, in the ſummer, brings refreſhing breezes from the Alps: but the ſouth-weſt wind, as with us, is both the moſt frequent and wholeſome that blows in Germany. In general, this country, and Poland, are ſo like Great Britain, both in climate and ſoil, that no countries in Europe agree better with Engliſh conſtitutions. Beſides great plenty of corn, cattle, ſheep, wool, cloth, horſes, fiſh, &c. the earth affords mines of divers ſorts of metals and minerals, as iron, bitumen, nitre, ocre, copper, tin, lead, and even ſilver in ſome parts; allum, vitriol, quickſilver, ſalt, coal, &c. In general the ſurface is even; and though, in ſome parts, it is hilly, it is no where mountainous except towards the ſouth and ſouth-weſt, where the Alps, and a few mountains in Alſace, ſerve as boundaries and bulwarks againſt Italy and France.

Their foreſts and waſtes afford many things, both for the ſuſtenance of the poor, and the luxury of the rich. They yield plenty of wood for fuel and building, and abound with variety of wild fowl, and all ſorts of veniſon. They alſo feed vaſt numbers of hogs; and ſome of them, as the foreſt of Ardenne, good mutton. The rivers and lakes abound with fiſh in the utmoſt variety and perfection. The orchards are full of fruit-trees; and, in the ſouthern provinces, there is plenty of the more delicate ſort, as peaches, apricots, figs, olives, &c. in perfection. They have rich wines, of which the Rheniſh and Moſelle, in particular, are exported in vaſt quantities to foreign nations; and not only equal, but preferable, to ſome of the wines of Italy. The very mountains of the Alps, on the German ſide, are in ſome places cultivated to the top; and the vallies abound with paſtures and vines. In ſhort, no country, perhaps, in the world produces ſo great a variety of every thing conducing to the comforts of life as this; though others may exceed it in the goodneſs of ſome particular articles; nevertheleſs, even of theſe they have enough of every ſort; and they might ſtill have them in greater perfection, were the inhabitants induſtrious; or rather did the landed men give encouragement to huſbandry and induſtry. For want of this, the people neither underſtand, nor take care to manure the ſoil, or to improve the native treaſure of the country; and to this general neglect it is owing, that the ſovereign princes in Germany are ſufferers, as well as the ſubjects; and the landlord becomes bankrupt with his tenant: for to this ignorance and diſcouragement of huſbandry, on the one hand, and to the exceſſive vanity and paſſion of their great men for foreign luxuries on the other, it may in a great meaſure be attributed, that Germany exports leſs, and imports more, than any country, perhaps, in the commercial world.

There is a ſort of earth found in Germany called Terra Sigillata, which ſome call Terra Lemnia, becauſe it is alſo brought from the Iſle of Lemnos: it is a hard earth, with white, yellow, and red veins, and ſaid to be an antidote againſt all kinds of poiſons. There are good quarries of marble in Bavaria, Tirol, Liege, and other provinces; and for precious ſtones, as diamonds, agates, chryſtals, jaſpers of ſeveral colours, fine alabaſter, ſeveral ſorts of pearls, turquois, rubies, &c. this country ſurpaſſes moſt others in Europe, there being vaſt collections of them in the cabinets of the emperor, the electors of Bavaria, Brandenburg, Hanover, Saxony, and other princes, and of many private men, as well as thoſe which are the ornaments of churches and images. They are dug for the moſt part out of the mines, and frequently found in the rivers. A remarkable natural curioſity peculiar to Germany, is the Schiefferſtein, a blackiſh, glittering kind of ſtone or ſalt, which melted, yields much copper, and ſome ſilver. In one part of Saxony theſe ſtones are dug up in the fields. They exhibit a lively repreſentation, by fair copper ſtrokes, of fiſhes of divers ſorts, frogs, and other animals, that abound in a neighbouring lake.

The principal rivers of this country are the following:

The Danube, or Donaw, ſo called from the Swiftneſs of the current, riſes in the Black Foreſt in Swabia; runs through Swabia and Bavaria to Ratiſbon, and thence to Vienna. After dividing Hungary into two parts, it continues its courſe to Belgrade in Servia, and then proceeding to Turkey, falls into the Black Sea by ſeveral channels. It is very broad, and has three great cataracts. The Saw Ruffel, or Swine's Snout, near Linitz; ſo called from a pointed rock hanging over, which has under it a dangerous whirlpool. The Der Strudel, near Greinon, in Auſtria, where the falling of the water makes a horrid noiſe. And the Der Wurbel, another very dangerous whirlpool, about a furlong from Der Strudel. The watermen of theſe parts have a method of paſſing them without much danger. As ſoon as this cataract is paſſed, a man comes on board from a chapel dedicated to St. Nicolas, on the bank of the river, with the ſaint's picture, and an alms-box for the paſſengers to throw in ſomething, as an offering to that ſaint for their deliverance.

This river carries market-boats, &c. of 10 or 15 tons, every week from Ulm to Vienna, which, with the turnings and windings, is a courſe of about 400 miles. It receives ten other rivers before it comes to Belgrade. It enters Hungary 35 miles beyond Vienna; and, before it leaves Germany, runs about 500 miles; and about 1000 more through Hungary and Turkey in Europe, before it falls into the Black Sea. Its whole courſe thither, from its fountain, is about 27

degrees; which, reckoning 60 miles to a degree, is 1620 miles, without including its turnings and windings, which muſt make it at leaſt one third more; ſo that it may well be affirmed to be longer than the Nile, in Egypt, which, in many particulars, it reſembles. It has three heads; but which is the true one the German geographers themſelves are not agreed. Cluverius, whoſe authority ſeems the beſt in matters of this nature, places it in the Black Foreſt, at the foot of a little hill, and ſays, the fountain is walled in. The waters of this river are always muddy, and whitiſh; and the channel is kept almoſt as full in the ſummer, by the melted ſnow from the hills, as by the floods in the winter. Its waters have been found by repeated experiments, to be medicinal, though not to the ſame degree as mineral ſprings; and, it is ſaid, that in thoſe places where there are no natural baths, the people bathe with the water of this river warmed. Theſe, with its other virtues, are aſcribed to its waſhing ſo many mines, and to its ſaline tinctures, which are ſo ſtrong, that a ſort of ſalt has been actually made of the water, which has ſupplied the want of better; yet it is freſh enough for drinking, after it has ſtood ſome hours to ſettle.

The Danube abounds with all thoſe fiſh that are to be found either in our running or ſtanding rivers; and they are generally much larger, but not ſo ſweet as ours. There are ſeveral fiſh in it not common elſewhere, which ſeem to be of the ſalt-water kind, and are ſuppoſed to come from the Euxine. Of theſe the moſt remarkable is the Hanſon, a griſly fiſh, ſomewhat like our ſturgeon, almoſt as large as a crocodile, ſome being 18 or 20 feet long. Shoals of them come about the fiſhermens boats at the ſound of a trumpet or horn. It is deemed a dainty by the Auſtrians and Hungarians, and is only to be met with at noblemens tables.

The Rhine riſes from two ſprings in the Alps, which unite eight miles from the city of Coire. It ſoon after dilates itſelf into a large lake, called the Boden Sea, or lake of Conſtance; whence, paſſing weſtward to Baſil, it turns to the north, and runs between Swabia and Alſace into the Palatinate, receiving the Neckar at Manheim, and the Maine at Mentz; then it runs to Coblentz, where it receives the Moſelle. It afterwards waters Cologne, and paſſes on through the duchy of Cleves, receiving the Roer and the Lippe, and other ſmaller rivers, by the way; and paſſes into the Netherlands at Schenchenſchans, five miles below Cleves, where it is very broad, and its courſe very ſwift: but the navigation of it is interrupted by nine cataracts, the moſt dangerous whereof are two in Switzerland, one near Schaffhuyſen (where the whole river falls 75 feet) and the other near Lauffenburg. Here the watermen either haul their boats aſhore, and launch them on the other ſide, or elſe let them down by ropes. The direct courſe of this river is about 400 miles, and, including turnings, 600.

The Elbe riſes in the mountains near Hirchburg, in Sileſia, upon the confines of Bohemia, through which it runs in eleven ſeveral ſprings; which, being united, paſs northward, between Miſnia and Luſatia, into Saxony. A little below Gluckſtadt it divides into two branches, which fall into the German Ocean 60 miles below Hamburg. It is very large and deep at that city; ſo that ſhips of four or five hundred tons ride at anchor in it. The courſe of this river, which is very winding, is as long as that of the Rhine. It runs above 500 miles through the north of Germany; as the Rhine does through the weſt, and the Danube through the middle and ſoutherly parts. The tide runs about 10 miles above Hamburg; and the river is navigable, by ſmall veſſels, a great way up into Germany; which very much promotes the trade of the country, eſpecially by its communication with the Spree, in the marquiſate of Brandenburg, and the Moldaw in Bohemia. As the courſe of it is very ſlow, it abounds with ſuch fiſh as are common in ſtanding waters.

The Oder riſes in Moravia; and, after a long current through Sileſia and Brandenburg, falls into the Baltic Sea. It runs in a pretty ſtrait courſe through the north-eaſt part of Germany. It is navigable for ſmall veſſels a great way above Stetin. Canals are cut betwixt this river and the Elbe, which very much promote the trade of the electorate of Brandenburg. Before it falls into the ſea it forms ſeveral iſlands. This river, and the adjoining lakes, are full of fiſh; the bare cuſtoms on the ſalmon and lampreys, ſome of which are of a vaſt bulk, amounting to a conſiderable ſum.

The Weſer riſes in the mountains of Thuringen, runs through Heſſe and Weſtphalia, and empties itſelf into the ocean 40 miles below Bremen, within 20 miles of the mouth of the Elbe. It is ſo full of fiſh of ſeveral ſorts, that here are ſome in ſeaſon for every month.

The Aller runs through the country of Lunenburg, and falls into the Weſer below Verden.

The Maine riſes near the borders of Bohemia, paſſes through Franconia, the electorate of Mentz, the ſouth part of the principality of Naſſau, waſhes the walls of Frankfort, and other conſiderable cities, and falls into the Rhine at Menitz. It is not over-ſtocked with fiſh, perhaps on account of its clearneſs, occaſioned by the mines of gold and ſilver through which it paſſes, ſome degree of mud being neceſſary for the nouriſhment of all ſorts of fiſh.

The Ion is a large river that riſes on the frontiers of Switzerland, runs through Tirol and Bavaria, and falls into the Danube at Paſſau. Its courſe being among the Alps, it cannot be very navigable; and, as it waſhes ſeveral ſalt-pits and minerals, it cannot abound with fiſh.

The vaſt paſſion which the Germans have for hunting the wild boar, is aſſigned as the cauſe why there are more woods and chaſes yet ſtanding in Germany than in moſt other countries. The Hyrcanian foreſt, which, in Cæſar's time, was nine days journey in length, and ſix in breadth, is now cut down in many places, or parcelled out into woods, which go by particular names. Moſt of the wood are pine, fir, oak, and beech. There is a vaſt number of foreſts of leſs note in every part of this country; almoſt every count, baron, or gentleman, having a chaſe, or park, adorned with pleaſure-houſes, and ſtocked with deer, of which there are ſeven or eight ſorts, as roebucks, ſtags, &c. of all ſizes and colours, and many of them of a vaſt growth; plenty of hares, rabbits, foxes, bears, wolves, boars, &c. The foreſts alſo abound with wild fowl.

SECTION II.

Grand Diviſions of the German empire. Particular Deſcription of the ſeveral Circles.

GERMANY was formerly divided into ten great circles; but the circle of Burgundy, or the provinces of the Low Countries, being now detached from the empire, we ſhall, in deſcribing Germany, confine ourſelves to the nine circles as they now ſubſiſt, viz.

Upper Saxony, Lower Saxony, Weſtphalia,	In the north.
Upper Rhine, Lower Rhine, Franconia,	In the middle.
Auſtria, Bavaria, Swabia,	In the ſouth.

Theſe we ſhall deſcribe in their reſpective order, beginning with

THE CIRCLE OF UPPER SAXONY.

THE circle of Upper Saxony is bounded on the weſt by thoſe of the Upper Rhine and Lower Saxony; on the eaſt by Pruſſia, and part of Poland and

and Sileſia; on the ſouth by Bavaria, Bohemia, and Franconia; and on the north by the Baltic. It is of conſiderable extent, and contains the following places.

The Electorate of Saxony.

Saxony, in general, is one of the moſt fertile countries in all Germany. It yields a rich increaſe of all kinds of grain and fruits. Hops, flax, tobacco, aniſe, and woad, are cultivated here. The minerals are of great importance. The porcelain earth is excellent; and the Terra Sigillata (already deſcribed) extremely good. The country produces various kinds of marble, and the diſtinct pieces of precious ſtones. Vitriol and allum are prepared here. Coal is dug: and the mines of ſilver, copper, tin, iron, and lead, are very valuable. It likewiſe abounds in horſes, cattle, ſheep, veniſon, &c. &c.

The principal rivers are the Elbe, Mulde, Pleiſſe, Schwarze-Elſter, Sala, and White-Elſter. Theſe rivers, as well as the lakes and rivulets, produce great quantities of fiſh; and the White-Elſter yields abundance of beautiful pearls.

This electorate is, in general, well cultivated and populous. The provincial diets are held every ſix years, and the ſelect diets convened every two years. Lutheraniſm is the eſtabliſhed religion; though the different branches of the electoral family have uſually been Roman Catholics. With regard to eccleſiaſtical matters, the country is divided into pariſhes, ſubordinate to ſpiritual inſpectors, which latter are all accountable to the eccleſiaſtical council and upper conſiſtory of Dreſden. Roman Catholics and Calviniſts are tolerated in moſt parts of the electorate. Learning flouriſhes here, commerce is encouraged, and manufactures in the various branches are arrived at great perfection.

Among the electors of the empire the elector of Saxony is the ſixth in dignity, and great marſhal of the empire. His revenues are very conſiderable. The whole is divided into circles, which are as follow;

The electoral circle, or duchy of Saxony, is very near 40 miles in length, and almoſt as many in breadth. The ſoil is ſandy; and it contains the following places.

Wirtemberg, the capital, on the eaſt ſide of the Elbe, 55 miles north-weſt from Dreſden. It is the ſeat of an aulic judicatory, a conſiſtory, a ſpiritual inſpection, and a general ſuperintendency. It is well fortified, and contains an univerſity and a Latin ſchool. Martin Luther firſt preached here againſt the Pope's indulgencies; and in the cathedral of All Saints he was buried. The library appertaining to the univerſity, is very valuable; but the Pruſſians taking the place in 1756, did great damage to the fortifications.

Kemberg is a ſmall town, whoſe inhabitants are noted for the cultivation of hops. Zahna has a ſeat and voice in the diets. Schmiedeberg is ſurrounded, in a romantic manner, by mountains: And Remhards contains a curious laboratory for making mechanical and optical machines, in particular the camera obſcura.

By means of which, woods, hills, and dales, appear;
Flocks graze the plains, birds wing the ſilent air.
In darken'd rooms, where light can only paſs
Thro' the ſmall circle of a convex glaſs,
On the white ſheet the moving figures riſe:
The foreſt waves; clouds float along the ſkies.

Barby, on the Elbe, is defended by a caſtle; Gommern has a caſtle and ſuperintendency; Annaburg is a borough town on a little iſland; Herberg has a woollen and a ſalt-petre manufactory; and Lichtenburg has an electoral palace with pleaſure gardens.

Here e'en rough rocks with tender myrtles bloom,
And trodden weeds ſend out a rich perfume:
Here weſtern gales eternally reſide,
And all the ſeaſons laviſh all their pride;
Bloſſoms, fruits, and flow'rs, together riſe,
And the whole year in gay confuſion lies.

There are many inconſiderable towns in this circle, of which nothing more can be ſaid, than that they have all a ſeat and voice in the diets of the empire.

The circle of Thuringia is very fertile, abounding in corn, cattle, ſheep, horſes, timber, &c. It contains the following places:

Tenſtad, which gives name to a bailiwick. Pforte contains a ſchool, where 150 ſcholars are maintained, and taught gratis; Frawenprieſnitz, a market town; and Treffurt, a town on a hill, near the Werra.

Weiſenfels is a handſome town on the Saal. Above the town is a white rock, at the ſummit of which a fine caſtle is erected, called Auguſtuſburg. This town likewiſe contains manufactories of ſilk and velvet, a Latin ſchool, and a gymnaſium, or ſchool of exerciſe.

The wiſe, for health, on exerciſe depend:
God never made his works for man to mend.

Roſback is a village, celebrated for the defeat of a formidable army of French and Auſtrians, in the year 1757, by the late king of Pruſſia, in its neighbourhood. The other towns and villages of this circle are ſo very inconſiderable, that they merit not enumerating.

The margravate or circle of Meiſſen is a plentiful country, and its fields are fertile in grain. Its foreſts furniſh plenty of veniſon, its rivers are full of fiſh, and its hills abound with minerals. It contains likewiſe many conſiderable vineyards, but the wine is not generally admired. Upon the whole, however, it is allowed to be one of the moſt fruitful and populous diſtricts in Germany; and its inhabitants have univerſally the character of being the moſt lively and poliſhed people in the whole empire. The principal places are the following.

Dreſden, the capital, not only of Meiſſen, but of all Saxony, is ſituated 67 miles north of Prague, and 210 north-weſt of Vienna. The name is derived from three lakes in the neighbourhood, which, in the country language, are called Dryſen-ſeen. This city is one of the fineſt in Germany, with reſpect to the pleaſantneſs of its ſituation, the beauty of its ſtructures, and the number and magnificence of its embelliſhments. It was originally fortified by Charlemagne; and, ſince his time, the works have been ſo greatly augmented and improved by its dukes and electors, that it is now a place of great ſtrength and importance. Many of its parts are defended by a double ditch, and the baſtions have ſtone facings. The houſes, which are built of free ſtone, are lofty and ſubſtantial; and the ſtreets are ſtrait, ſpacious, elegantly paved, and well lighted. The cathedral church is a noble ſtructure; and ſeveral large ſquares give the whole city an uncommon air of magnificence. The ſtone bridge over the Elbe, which divides the city intothe Old and New Town, and conſiſts of 17 arches, is one of the nobleſt ſtructures in the univerſe. At the entrance of New Dreſden is a noble building, called the Palace of the Indies: it conſiſts of three ſtories, all the apartments of which are filled with the moſt curious Japan and China wares. All the houſehold goods are Indian; and there is one ſet of furniture ſcarce to be paralleled, which conſiſts of feathers of various colours, all natural, but inlaid with ſo much art, that it might be taken for a fine flowered ſattin. A very pleaſant garden belongs to this magnificent palace, which runs down to the Elbe, and is adorned with ſtatues of white marble, that were purchaſed for the late elector at Rome, of the cardinals Annibal and Alexander Albani, nephews to pope Clement XI. beſides two noble obeliſks, and two very fine fountains. Near the Palace of the Indies ſtands a magnificent

nificent ſtructure, built by the eſtates of Saxony, for maintaining two companies of cadets, all gentlemen of the country, who are here inſtructed in the ſeveral ſciences. In the ſame ſtreet there is an amphitheatre, or area, for the battles of wild beaſts, ſuch as lions, tigers, bears, and, in ſhort, all the fierceſt animals from the four quarters of the world; of which great numbers are kept for the purpoſe. Here is a hunting-houſe, where bears are kept; with fountains and ponds, in which they waſh; and ragged poſts round them, by which they climb up to ſcaffolds on the top, where they dry themſelves. Here is a place called the Horn Gallery, which has ſeveral apartments, painted, with a repreſentation of hunting wild beaſts and fowls. In the old town there is a large caſtle; and ſome of the fortifications ſtill to be ſeen, which were made by Charlemagne. In this quarter ſtands alſo that called the Prince's Palace, which was formerly a very fine building; but all of it has been conſumed by fire, except one part, containing very fine apartments, ſuperbly furniſhed, and accommodated by the elector to the modern taſte; but they belong only to the elector and electreſs; for the electoral prince and princeſs live in a ſeparate palace, which communicates with it by galleries, where the rooms are perfectly well diſpoſed, and adorned with fine paintings.

The elector's palace, or caſtle, joins to the bridge at the entrance of the New Town. It is an ancient ſtructure, and makes but a mean appearance. The inſide, however, far ſurpaſſes the outſide; the apartments being noble, and ſplendidly furniſhed. There is a great gallery, which contains antique buſts, veſſels, pictures, and ſeveral other curioſities: a ſpacious hall, adorned with fine drawings of cities, pictures of giants, the habits of many nations; and divers large chambers, full of a ſurpriſing collection of rarities, and the greateſt curioſities, both of art and nature, eſpecially pictures, of a very great value, and wonderful performances in clock-work. In this palace are two chapels, one for the Roman Catholics, the other for the Lutherans. The firſt was heretofore a theatre for the operas; but one of the electors turned it into a chapel, on account of the marriage of his only ſon with the eldeſt daughter of the emperor Joſeph. The ſecond, which was always the chapel of the Proteſtant electors of Saxony, he left for the uſe of his wife, who conſtantly adhered to that religion. The treaſure of it is extremely rich, conſiſting of veſſels, and other moveables, of gold and ſilver, heretofore conſecrated and given to this chapel by the electors. In this palace is the regal treaſury, commonly called the Grune Gewolbe, or the Green Vault, compoſed of three arched rooms, which contain prodigious riches, and ſhine all over with gold and precious ſtones; ſo that it is one of the fineſt places in the world. Here are ſeveral ſets of brilliant diamonds, rubies, emeralds, pearls, ſapphires, and other precious ſtones; every ſet is complete, and conſiſts of buttons, buckles, loops for hats, &c. ſwords, hangers, ſword-belts, canes, muffs, ſnuff-boxes, watches, tweezer-caſes, pocket-books, in ſhort all the jewels that can poſſibly be imagined, even to the furniture of a horſe; and they are ranged with admirable nicety, in caſes of cryſtal.

Near this palace there is a very fine garden, called the Zwinger-Garten, which is reckoned the Thuilleries of Dreſden, though not large enough to deſerve the name. It is ſemicircled, in the ſhape of a horſe-ſhoe, with magnificent buildings of free-ſtone, that form arches; over which there runs an open gallery, that unites three large pavilions, and has baluſtrades adorned with ſtatues. In the middlemoſt there is a fine grotto, and green-houſes for orange-trees, and the moſt delicious fruits. The upper ſtory contains a very beautiful ſaloon, faced with marble and gilded ornaments. The ceiling is magnificent, the windows are of large plate-glaſs; and the reſt of the building, which joins this garden, is of the ſame magnificence; but ſeems a little too much encumbered with carved work, which has more of the Gothic than the modern taſte.

In the elector's ſtables, and the riding-houſe, is a great number of exceeding fine horſes; and ſome of all ſorts of the rareſt breed, which have iron racks and copper mangers. There is a curious fountain and pond near them, ſurrounded with baluſtrades, for the horſes to water and waſh in: and before the ſtables there is a long arched walk, painted with curious horſes; over which there is a gallery, with the pictures of all the dukes and electors of Saxony, in their robes and military habits; particularly the two generals, Hengiſt and Horſa, under whom the Saxons invaded England, are depicted here, after the romantic manner they are deſcribed by our monkiſh hiſtorians. In the chambers over the ſtables are kept the rich harneſſes, and other ſumptuous equipages, many of which are the Turkiſh mode, plated with maſſy ſilver, and adorned with precious ſtones. Here are a great many curioſities, particularly a gun, which diſcharges 40 times ſucceſſively, without intermiſſion; and a ſilver equeſtrian ſtatue, which, moved by a ſpring carries a cup of wine.

They boaſt of an arſenal here, with great quantities of all ſorts of arms, ſeveral ſuits of armour, and coats of mail, in ſilver and ſteel, that have been uſed by the electors in their wars; and repreſentations of Turkiſh and Hungarian parties of horſe and foot, with their commanders at their head, ſo contrived as to turn round: but this was ſtripped by the Pruſſians in the year 1756. There are five or ſix houſes here called hotels, which, in Italy, would paſs for palaces; but that called the Hotel de Hoym, which is in the occupation of a family of that name, is eſteemed the moſt conſiderable of them all.

The ſuburbs of this city are very extenſive, but have no building of conſequence, except the palace in the elector's great garden, called the Turkiſh palace, from being furniſhed entirely after the Turkiſh manner.

The electors have other ſeats, viz. Pilnitz, Moritzburg, Auguſtuſburg (which lies in the circle of the mountains) and Anneburg.

Within three miles of the city there is a bed or quarry of ſtones, which according to deſcription, ſomewhat reſembles the Giants Cauſeway in Ireland. The ſtones riſe about 17 ells above ground, repreſent columns with ſeveral corners, and are joined as if done by art. They have from four to ſeven columns apiece, are ſmooth on the outſide, look as if they were mixed with iron, are very weighty, and hard as adamant.

The people of Dreſden contend with thoſe of Halle for ſpeaking the beſt high Dutch. It has been obſerved of them in general, that there are none more devoted to pleaſures; ſuch as plays, maſquerades, balls, feaſts, running at the ring, races on ſledges, tournaments, hunting-matches, &c. of all which they have abundance; and plays and maſquerades are free for all people of faſhion. The citizens wives are more ſociable here than in any town of Germany, and fondly give themſelves the air of quality, eſpecially in the article of dreſs, a luxury which has infected the wives of the mechanics, and even the ſervants.

Keſſeldorf is a ſmall village, near which, in 1745, a bloody engagement was fought between the Saxons and Pruſſians, in which the former were defeated with great ſlaughter.

Still preſſing forward to the fight, they broke
Thro' flames of ſulphur, and a night of ſmoke,
Till ſlaughter'd legions fill'd the trench below,
And bore their fierce avengers to the foe.
High on the works the mingling hoſts engage,
The battle kindling into tenfold rage;
With ſhow'rs of bullets, and with ſtorms of fire.
Bombs in full fury, heaps on heaps expire.
The weſtern ſun now ſhot a feeble ray,
And faintly ſcatter'd the remains of day:
Ev'ning approach'd; but, oh! what hoſts of foes
Were never to behold that ev'ning cloſe.

Dipoldiſwalda, Rabenau, Dohna, Gottleuli, and Berggieſzhubel, have each a ſeat and voice in the diets; and

and the latter has a mine office, an acid ſpring, and a cold bath.

Liebſtadt and Barenſtein are both defended by caſtles; and in the neighbourhood of the latter is a tin mine; New Geyſznig contains a mine office; Hohenſtein is a Bohemian fief; and Neuſtadt has a linen and ſtocking manufactory.

Meiſſen, from whence the marquiſate is denominated, was formerly its capital, but is now inconſiderable. It ſtands 12 miles north-weſt of Dreſden, on a river of its own name, on the left ſide of the Elbe, over which it had the beſt wooden bridge in the empire, till deſtroyed in the German wars. It was made a biſhopric about the middle of the 10th century, but ſecularized after the reformation, and ſubject to the elector ever ſince 1581. It lies partly in a valley, and partly on the ſide of a hill, on the top of which are the palace, a venerable old pile, in form of a caſtle, and the cathedral, in which are the tombs of many princes and noblemen. Here was a monaſtery formerly, which has been converted into a public ſchool, and the revenues applied to the maintenance of the ſtudents. In Meiſſen is an admirable porcelain manufactory, which produces goods eſteemed by many to be ſuperior to thoſe brought from India.

Schandau, on the Elbe, has a great trade in timber and corn; Beſchofswerda, on the Weſenitz, in white yarn; Stolpen, on the ſame river, had its caſtle demoliſhed by the Pruſſians in 1756; and, in the ſame year, at the village of Ebenheit, the capitulation was drawn up for the ſurrender of the Saxon army to the Pruſſians.

Hayn, or Haya, on the river Reder, was plundered and burnt, by the Huſſites, in 1429, and again burnt in 1538. It was formerly a flouriſhing town, and the ſeat of the margraves of Miſnia, the remains of whoſe palace are ſtill to be ſeen; and before the long wars in Germany, here was a great manufacture of woollen cloth.

Torgaw has a bridge, with ſtone pillars, on the Elbe. It was built by John Frederick, the elector, in 1535, and beautified with a ſtately caſtle. It once had a very flouriſhing trade, and the electors of Saxony held their diets here; but it was ſo often harraſſed and oppreſſed by the Swedes in the German wars, that the face of this once fair city is quite changed. The caſtle, which is adorned with a beautiful church, has ſeveral very large and noble apartments. There is a ſpacious hall, adorned with the pictures of ſeveral emperors, kings, electors, and other princes: and in another room there are the pictures of their fools, or jeſters. In a gallery of this caſtle there is the genealogy of the Saxon family, with the pictures, arms, and abſtract of the lives of its princes.

Mulberg, on the Elbe, is famous for the victory won by Charles V. over the Proteſtants in 1547, when Frederick, duke of Saxony, was taken by the duke of Alva, who commanded the Spaniſh auxiliaries. It is the capital of a bailiwick near the foreſt of Rederwack. Here is an ancient caſtle, which was a few years ago repaired. This was yielded to the elector by the biſhop of Meiſſon, at the ſame time with the caſtle of Dreſkau, a little below it. Near this place, in 1730, the elector made a grand encampment for a month, which was 12 miles in compaſs, formed of 28,000 men, and viſited by the king of Pruſſia, and ſeveral other princes, beſides many other perſons of diſtinction.

Frederickſtal has a looking-glaſs manufactory; and Seinſtenburg gives name to a bailiwick.

Zeithayn is a village celebrated for having been the ſeat of the pleaſure camp formed by Auguſtus II. at the expence of 5,000,000 of dollars. On the ſpot where the camp ſtood are ſix large pyramids, erected to commemorate the circumſtance.

Konigſtein, on the Elbe, has a fuſtian manufactory, and is defended by an impregnable fortreſs on the top of a rock. On the ſide towards Dreſden there are ſtrong works, and a triple battery of cannon. The caſtle can neither be undermined, or racked with ſhot from the adjacent eminences; and, as it contains a well, magazines of all kinds of proviſions, paſture and arable land, gardens, &c. &c. it would be impoſſible to reduce it by blockade. It is the repoſitory of the archives, and the place of retreat of the electoral family in times of danger; and, beſides, commands the navigation of the Elbe.

As there are, in this circle, as well as throughout the empire, a number of places, ſo inconſiderable as to afford no one object worthy of note, we paſs them over without mention.

Leipſic ſtands in a charming fruitful plain, between the rivers Saal and Mudle, abounding with all the neceſſaries and luxuries of life, particularly large and rich meadows, mowed conſtantly twice, and ſometimes thrice a year; beſides pleaſant woods, and many fine orchards, with all ſorts of fruits; there being neither orchards nor gardens within the walls of the city. It is ſituated at the conflux of three other leſſer rivers, the Elſter, Pleiſſa, and Pardo, or Barde, 28 miles north-weſt of Meiſſen, 41 weſt of Dreſden, and 238 north-weſt of Vienna. It is ſuppoſed to have been built by the Vandals, about anno 700, and to have derived its name from Lipzk, a lime-tree, with which the country once abounded. It was in this city that, in 1520, Luther diſputed with Eckius againſt the pope's ſupremacy, and the people ſoon after adopted reformation principles.

This part of the country having been the chief theatre of the long German war, this city was, in two years, taken five ſeveral times, and laſt by the Imperialiſts in 1633, but reſtored by the treaty of Prague in 1635. It is remarkable for three ſignal victories obtained near it by the Swedes over the Imperialiſts, viz. in 1631, when Guſtavus defeated Tilly; in 1641, and in 1642, when the archduke Leopold, and general Picolomini, were defeated by the Swediſh admiral Torſtenſon, who afterwards obliged the town to ſurrender. It is famous alſo for an univerſity, which was founded in 1409, by Frederick and William, dukes of Saxony, out of a detachment of the ſcholars from Prague, of whom there came hither not leſs than 2000 in one day, by reaſon of the quarrel between the Huſſites and Papiſts. It has 24 profeſſors in four colleges, wherein the nations are diſtinguiſhed by ſeveral claſſes. It has bred many learned men, and been honoured with the dukes of Sleſwic and Holſtein, Stetin, Pomerania, and Mecklenburg, and other ſovereign princes, for its rectors. It is not ſubject to the elector, but to the town. The library has abundance of MSS. that belonged to the monaſteries demoliſhed at the time of the reformation, of which the moſt valuable, becauſe it is a rarity, perhaps not to be met with elſewhere, is Tretzer's Greek commentary on Homer's Iliad, in excellent preſervation. There is a monthly book publiſhed here, being a ſort of Journal des Scavans, or Memoirs of Literature, containing an account of remarkable pieces in all parts of learning, intituled, Acta Eruditorum Lipſiæ; which ſhews that phyſic, anatomy, and the mathematics, are very much cultivated, though divinity is their chief ſtudy.

The city is the ſeat of a high court of judicature, where the elector himſelf is obliged to appear, when ſummoned. It was firſt opened about the year 1520, when Auguſtus, the then elector, eſtabliſhed the college, to conſiſt of a preſident, and ſix aſſeſſors; of whom three are civilians, and the other three of the city council, with a regiſtering clerk.

Some call this city the jewel of the electorate of Saxony, not only for its fine ſtructures, but for the conſiderable revenue it yields to its ſovereign. The town itſelf is not large, but populous, with regular ſtreets and ſtately houſes, generally five or ſix ſtories, but, about the market-place, eight or nine ſtories high, ſubſtantially built of free-ſtone, adorned with fine windows. The town-houſe is a noble ſtructure. St. Nicholas's church is the beſt adorned within of any Lutheran church in Germany. The ground-floors of moſt of the houſes are warehouſes, where the merchants ſtore

their goods for the fairs at New-Year's-Tide, Eaſter, and Michaelmas, which a vaſt concourſe of merchants attend from the moſt noted places in Europe, who are exempted from tolls. So many rich curioſities are then brought hither, and there is ſo great a vent for them, that an immenſe ſum accrues to the revenue. The German tongue is ſpoken here with great purity. The town is fortified with ramparts and a ditch; but they are not of ſo much importance as its ſtrong caſtle of Pleiſſenburg, on the river Pleſſe, which, however, when Charles XII, of Sweden, marched into Saxony, in 1706, the elector did not think tenable, and ordered the governor to ſurrender it, without hazarding a ſiege.

The ſuburbs are very large. The city has four magnificent free-ſtone gates, at each of which is ſet up a poſt, after the manner of the Romans; which kind of poſts are at the gates of all the towns, and even of the villages, of the electorate; and from hence they count the leagues, which are divided at the end of every quarter of a mile by other poſts, not ſo large, upon all the great roads, ſhewing the diſtances. The gardeners of Leipſic are eſteemed the beſt in Germany, and value themſelves upon forcing the products of nature more early than others. Their aſparagus is delicious, and extraordinary large. This place is particularly remarked for its larks, which are ſent all over Germany, Poland, Holland, and Denmark. In the woods are abundance of nightingales, of which great numbers are taken, and kept in cages. There are tolerable good ordinaries here as well as at Dreſden: but the proviſion at the towns and villages in the road betwixt thoſe cities, though ſo much frequented, is ill-dreſſed, and the houſes naſty. There is a remarkable wood in this neighbourhood called Roſendahl, which, in the language of the country, ſignifies the Vale of Roſes, and conſiſts of 14 walks, all agreeably diverſified, with a great meadow in the middle, each walk having a noble point of view.

Old Ranſtadt is the village where the peace was concluded between Auguſtus, king of Poland, and Charles XI. king of Sweden. Delitzſh is noted for its ſtocking manufactory.

Grimmia, on the Mulde, has a ſchool for 100 ſtudents, and a ſuperintendency. It gives name to a diſtrict, and is noted for manufactories of thread and flannel.

Leiſznig is remarkable for its ſalmon fiſhery; Dobeln is a manufacturing town; and Rochlitz has a ſeat and voice in the diets, ſeveral manufactories, a ſtrong caſtle, and a ſuperintendency.

The circle of Erzgeburg receives its name from its mountains, which are rich in mineral ores. The moſt conſiderable places in it are the following:

Freyberg, the principal mine town on a branch of the Mulde, 13 miles to the ſouth-weſt of Dreſden, is ſtrongly fortified. Near the principal church is a chapel, in which many of the electors have been buried; and the town is ſo pleaſantly ſituated, that there is a Saxon proverb, which may be thus rendered into Engliſh;

Did Leipſic's wealth on me depend,
My fortune I'd at Freyberg ſpend.

It is the ſeat of ſeveral mine offices, a court of juſtice, ſuperintendency, &c. In the neighbourhood are ſeveral valuable mines of ſilver, copper, tin, lead, ſulphur, vitriol, &c. The wood for the mines is brought down the Mulde from Bohemia. Here is likewiſe a brewery, a lace and thread manufactory, a bell foundery, a cannon foundery, a gymnaſium, and a public library.

Brand is inhabited with miners; Grimthal is the place where the ſilver is ſeparated from the copper; and Schopa contains a ſmelting-houſe.

Oedern is a manufacturing town; Chemnitz was once an imperial city, and is now a large town with a ſuperintendency; Fromkenberg has a ſtuff manufactory, and gives name to a diſtrict; and Mulde gives name to a bailiwick, has manufactories of cloth and leather, and is defended by a caſtle.

Granaten is a borough town near the wood of Tharaud; Travenſtein is a ſmall town with a caſtle; Rechenberg has a caſtle; and Altenberg has a lace manufactory, a tin mine, and a cement ſpring. It gives name to a bailiwick, in which are ſeveral tin, ſilver, and iron mines, mills, ſmelting-houſes, &c. with an electoral foreſt and hunting ſeat.

Soon as Aurora draws away the night,
And edges eaſtern clouds with roſy light,
The healthy huntſman, with a chearful horn,
Summons the dogs, and greets the dappled morn;
The jocund thunder wakes th' enliven'd hounds;
They rouſe from ſleep, and anſwer ſounds for ſounds.

Zoblitz has an iron foundery in its vicinity; and is celebrated for the great quantities of aſbeſtos of divers colours, granites, &c. found in its neighbourhood, which likewiſe abounds with the ſerpent ſtone. This ſtone is of various colours: the red being the moſt valuable is claimed by the electors; but all the ſeveral kinds are worked into various trinkets and utenſils, by the inhabitants.

Wolkenſtein, on the Zſchopa, contains ſeveral ſmall towns, the inhabitants of all which are either employed in the lace manufactory, or in mining, as this bailiwick produces great quantities of minerals, of which we ſhall deſcribe the following.

Alum is either native or factitious. The former ſort is, at preſent, very little known. The latter is uſually diſtinguiſhed by the name of the country from whence it comes. It is of a very binding nature, and has always been looked upon as a great ſtyptic. That of the ancients had a ſmell like aqua-fortis; but the factitious has none at all; and, when placed over the fire in an iron pan, it bubbles up and melts like water. When alum is ſet to cryſtallize, it concretes into a figure with eight ſides, which looks like a triangular pyramid, with the angles cut off; inſomuch that it is compoſed of four hexagon ſurfaces, and four that are triangular. From a chymical analyſis it appears, that alum conſiſts of an acid vitriolic ſalt, and an aſtringent earth or bole intimately united. Alum is recommended for ſwellings of the gums, and againſt fluxions upon the tonſils. When burnt, it will take down proud fleſh in wounds and ulcers. It is of no uſe internally; only it is ſometimes given, with a large portion of nutmeg, for the cure of the ague.

Cobalt is a foſſil body, which is heavy, hard, and almoſt black, not very unlike antimony. It has a ſulphureous, naſeous ſmell, when kindled in the fire; and is commonly mixed with a portion of braſs, and ſometimes of a little ſilver.

Vitriol is either native or factitious, and, with regard to the colour, is diſtinguiſhed into white, blue, and green. White vitriol is made into large lumps, which looks almoſt like loaf-ſugar, and has a ſweetiſh taſte. It is found in mines, where it ſprings forth from the ſides, under the appearance of a woolly ſubſtance, which being diſſolved in water, muſt be boiled to a due thickneſs; and, at laſt, it will turn into a white maſs like ſugar. Sometimes there are found in the ſame mines pieces of vitriol, which are already cryſtallized, and appear tranſparent.

Blue vitriol is dry to the touch, and is formed into blue cryſtals, like ſapphires, of a rhomboidal form, but flat, and with ten ſides. It obtains its fine colour from copper, and has a pungent taſte.

Green vitrirol is of an herbaceous colour, and has various names, according to the different places from whence it is got. It abounds with iron, from whence it has its colour; and is either in large cryſtals, of a rhomboidal form, or in pieces compoſed of cryſtalline grains, united together, which feel a little oily to the touch. It has a ſharp taſte.

Common

Common ſulphur, or brimſtone, is either native or factitious, or rather depurated. Native ſulphur, commonly called ſulphur vivum, is either tranſparent or opaque. The tranſparent appears like a gem of a gold colour; though ſome is met with that is yelloviſh or greeniſh. The opaque is uſually met with in hard, ſold maſſes, of a greeniſh ſhining colour, or under the form of an aſh-colouring clayey glebe, inclining to yellow.

Factitious ſulphur is prepared ſeveral ways; for in ſome places it is boiled in water; but, in the hot baths, ſulphur is raiſed in vapours from the water, and ſticks to the cover of the ſpring in hardiſh lumps, that have the appearance of flour or ſulphur; and a great quantity of this is gathered every year. Sometimes it is extracted from a whitiſh clayey earth; and is as often obtained from the ſtone called the pyrites.

Arſenic, properly ſo called, is extracted from the mineral called cobalt. If this be mixed with calcined flints and pot aſhes, the mixture, in a very ſtrong fire, will turn into a glaſs of a blueiſh colour, that, when reduced to power, is called ſmalt. In the preparation of this glaſs a copious ſmoak is exaled, or rather flowers, which, ſticking to the ſides of the furnace, and collected together, appear in the form of a white powder, which, put into a crucible, and melted in an exceeding ſtrong fire, turns into a white, heavy, hard, glaſſy maſs; and this is named white arſenic, which is a moſt dangerous poiſon. But when to ten parts of the former powder one of ſulphur is added, and melted as before, then yellow arſnic will be produced. Again, if two parts of the ſulphur are added to ten of the powder, and melted as before, it will turn to a reddiſh maſs, which goes by the name of red arſenic.

Stolberg has a cloth manufactory; and Grunhayn gives name to a bailiwick, which contains Enterlein, Zwonitz, and Scholottan, all of them mining towns. The miners here are remarkably civil, and exceedingly fond of ſhewing the ſubterraneous wonders of the mines to ſtrangers.

Now thoſe profounder regions they explore,
Where metals ripen in vaſt cakes of ore.
Here, ſullen to the ſight, at large is ſpread
The dull unweildy maſs of lumpiſh lead:
There, glimm'ring in their dawning beds, are ſeen
The more aſpiring ſeeds of ſprightly tin.
The copper ſparkles next in ruddy ſtreaks,
And, in the gloom, betrays its glowing cheeks.
The ſilver then, with bright and burniſh'd grace,
Youth and a blooming luſtre in its face.
To th' arms of thoſe more yielding metals flies,
And in the folds of their embraces lies.
So cloſe they cling, ſo ſtubbornly retire,
Their love's more vi'lent than the chymiſt's fire.

Schwargenberg is an ancient town, defended by a caſtle, and inhabited by miners and artificers in iron.

Schneeberg, on the Mulde, has a conſiderable trade in gold and ſilver lace, thread, ſilk, ſmalt, &c. Newſtadt is a ſmall mine town in its neighbourhood; and Lybenſtock is a mine town. The mines not only produce metals, but various kinds of jewels.

Joharm Georgenſtadt is a town famous for the mines in its neighbourhood, for a lace manufactory, and for a great quantity of emery made by its inhabitants.

Korchberg has a cloth manufactory; Zſchorlaw a foundery and ſmalt mill; Weſtlau a ſtuff manufactory; and Criminichau, on the Pleſſa, a linen and ſtuff manufactory, with ſeveral dyers and callico printers.

Zwickau, on the Mulde, has a free ſchool, library, and caſtle, called Oſterſtein. It was formerly an Imperial city, and had a mint, which was afterwards removed to Dreſden. It carries on a great trade in divers valuable articles.

The circle of Vogtland contains the following places:

Oelſnitz, on the Elſter, remarkable for a pearl fiſhery. Mark-Neukerchen is inhabited by ſome of the beſt muſical inſtrument-makers in Germany; and Schoneck has many peculiar privileges granted by the emperor Charles IV. in the year 1370.

Plauen, on the Elſter, 68 miles from Dreſden, is the capital of this circle, and the ſeat of a ſuperintendency, and defended by an old caſtle. This place is ſo pleaſant, that many perſons of opulence retire hither to paſs their time in a kind of rural leiſure, or to divert that leiſure by various innocent amuſements.

Keichenback is celebrated for its excellent ſcarlet dying.

In the circle of Neuſtadt is the town of Neuſtadt, on the Orra, which has a caſtle, mine office, and ſeat of ſuperintendency.

The circle or foundation of Merſeburg lies betwixt Saxe-Hall and Naumberg. It was formerly a biſhopric (ſuffragan to Magdeburg) but ſecularized by the treaty of Paſlaw, in favour of the houſe of Saxony. One of the dukes, who was adminiſtrator of it, having introduced Lutheraniſm here about 1562, it has been ſince applied as a portion for one of the younger ſons, to whom it gives the title of duke, who, with the revenues of other bailiwicks, as well as of this once noble biſhopric, is enabled to keep a ſplendid court.

Merſeberg, where the duke reſides, is a city in a charming ſituation, amidſt gardens and meadows, on the banks of the Sala or Saal. The emperor Otho I. who founded its ſee in 952, made it alſo an Imperial city. It is a large populous town, and thought to derive its name from Mars, whom the Pagan Saxons worſhipped here by the name of Irmanſeul. The great church, which was the cathedral, founded by the emperor Henry II. a Gothic building, is remarkable for the magnificent tomb of the emperor Rodolph, who died, after the loſs of a hand, in battle with his competitor Henry IV. and near it is a library of very ancient MSS. It may be obſerved here, that part of the revenues of this, and the other biſhopries, ſecularized in favour of the Saxon and Brandenburg families, is appropriated towards the maintenance of a number of canons belonging to each cathedral, and the reſt to the adminiſtrators of the reſpective princes. The city is well built, though not in the modern taſte. Its walls, and its ſeven towers, are of free-ſtone. The wars in the laſt century did great damage to this place, which was ſucceſſively the prey of the contending armies. Count Tilly took it in 1631, as the Swedes did afterwards; and the Imperialiſts and Saxons alſo maſtered it in their turn. It had formerly a very flouriſhing trade, and a very famous yearly fair, from the year 1047 to 1200, when it was almoſt burnt down, and the merchants removed, with their effects, elſewhere.

Lauchſtadt is celebrated for a medicinal ſpring; as is Lutzen for a famous battle fought near it, between the Imperialiſts and the Swedes, in which the former were defeated: but the celebrated Guſtavus Adolphus loſt his life.

Hark! the ſhrill trumpet ſends a mortal ſound,
And prancing horſes ſhake the ſolid ground;
The ſurly drums reſounding from afar
With all the dreadful muſic of the war.
From the drawn ſwords effulgent flames ariſe,
Flaſh o'er the plains, and lighten to the ſkies.
The heav'ns above, the fields and floods beneath,
Glare formidably bright, and ſhine with death.
In fiery ſtorms deſcends a murd'rous ſhow'r:
Thick flaſh the lightnings, fierce the thunders roar,
As when, in wrathful mood almighty Jove
Arms his fire-bolts, red hiſſing from above;
Through the ſing'd air, with unreſiſted ſway,
The forky vengeance rends its flaming way;
And, while the firmament with thunder roars,
From their foundations hurls imperial tow'rs.
So ruſh the globes with many a fiery round,
The ſhape of man half buried in the wound;

And

And, lo! while in the ſhock of war they cloſe,
While ſwords meet ſwords, and foes encounter foes,
The treach'rous earth beneath their footſtep cleaves,
Her entrails tremble, and her boſom heaves;
Sudden in burſts of fire eruptions riſe,
And whirl the torn battalions to the ſkies.
Thus earthquakes, rumbling with a thund'ring ſound,
Shake the wide world's firm baſe, and rend the ground;
Rocks, hills, and groves are toſt into the ſky,
And in one mighty ruin nations die.

The foundation or biſhopric of Naumberg lies betwixt Saxe-Altenburg, on the north eaſt, and Saxe-Gotha on the weſt, and was ſeized by the elector of Saxony in 1718, on the death of the laſt duke of Saxe-Zeits.

The city of the like name, which was once a biſhop's ſee, under the archbiſhop of Magdeburg, and an imperial town, ſtands on the river Sala, or Saal. This town is famous for its fairs, which are the moſt conſiderable in Saxony, next to thoſe in Leipſic. An hiſtorian of credit ſays, that, in 1714, it was burnt down upon its fair day, which is June 29; and that here is a large caſtle, built by one of the landgraves of Thuringia. Its ancient cathedral is yet ſtanding; and the Lutherans have a chapter of canons, who muſt prove their nobility by 16 deſcents, both by the fathers and mothers ſide. The ſuburbs of this city are almoſt all vineyards, but the wine is bad. The biſhopric was founded by the emperor Otho I. in 951, at Zeits, and tranſplanted hither in 952. Lutheraniſm was introduced here in the beginning of the 16th century, by its biſhop, after whoſe death the elector took the adminiſtration. It was ceded to him by the treaty of Paſſaw in 1552; and it gave a title to the branch of its family, which was called adminiſtrator: but the laſt prelate turned Papiſt in 1717, by which he was rendered incapable of enjoying the Proteſtant biſhopric.

For a deſcription of the electorate of Brandenburg, the reader is referred to our account of the Pruſſian dominions, in which it is included.

The Principality of WEIMER lies between the river Saal and the county of Schwartzburg, and contains the bailiwicks of Bercka, Jena, Orlamund, Dornſberg, and Tondorf, with ſeveral foreſts and towns. Beſides that which is properly the duchy of Weimar, the duke's other eſtates in Upper Saxony are thoſe of the branch of Saxe-Jena, of which this prince is joint-ſovereign with the duke of Saxe-Eiſenach, with whom he enjoys many other things in common, ſuch as the reverſion of ſeveral eſtates, archives, tolls, and mines. His revenues are computed at about 80,000l. a year, with which he maintains 1000 regular troops in the fineſt order, and keeps a tolerable court. The chief places in this principality are the following:

Magdela, a market-town; Butſtoff, on the Loſſe, conſiderable for a beaſt fair; and Salza, on the Ilm, famous for a ſalt-work.

The Principality of EISENACH lies on the Frontiers of Heſſe. It is mountainous, and the ſurface barren; but the hills are replete with mines of iron, copper, allum, vitriol, ſaline ſprings, &c. Lutheraniſm is the eſtabliſhed religion, and the principal places are,

Eiſenach, which gave name to the principality, and is its capital. It is ſituated on the Neſſe, and contains a gymnaſium, a ducal palace, a ſeat of colleges, and a ſuperintendency. In a caſtle, on a neighbouring mountain, Martin Luther ſuffered 11 months impriſonment.

Allſtert, a town of great antiquity, is defended by a caſtle, and gives name to a ſuperintendency and bailiwick. The emperor Otho had a palace in this town, and held a diet here in 974. Many of his medals have been found in digging about the town and its environs.

The medal, faithful to its charge of fame,
Thro' climes and ages bears each form and name:
In one ſhort view, ſubjected to our eye,
Gods, emp'rors, heroes, ſages, beauties lie.
With ſharpened ſight pale antiquaries pore,
Th' inſcription value, but the ruſt adore:
This the blue variſh, that the green endears,
The ſacred ruſt of twice ten hundred years!
Oh! when ſhall Britain, conſcious of her claim,
Stand emulous of Greek and Roman fame;
In living medals ſee her wars enroll'd,
And vanquiſh'd realms ſupply recording gold.

Jana, on the Saal, 14 miles eaſt of Weimar, is a well-fortified town, pleaſantly ſituated amidſt vineyards. Here is an univerſity, with a library, obſervatory, phyſic-garden, &c. a conſiſtory, Latin and German ſociety, free-ſchool, and ducal palace. Both the town and univerſity have fine gardens.

The Duchy of COBURG is ſituated in the circle of the Upper Saxony, though the inhabitants call themſelves Franconians. It belonged formerly to the counts of Henneberg, but has been poſſeſſed by the dukes of Saxe Gotha ever ſince 1674.

Its capital, of the ſame name, is one of the moſt ancient towns in Germany, pretty large, well built, and defended by the duke of Saxe-Gotha's ſtrong caſtle, on a neighbouring hill, where Luther, who reſided here for the moſt part during the diet of Augſburg, in 1530, to be at hand to inſtruct his adherents, was ſeveral times impriſoned, and where he compoſed ſeveral hymns and epiſtles. Here is a college, with 11 profeſſors of ſeveral faculties, called Caſimir college, becauſe founded in 1602, by John Caſimir, elector of Saxony, who had, in 1597, alſo built the houſe for the courts of juſtice. The court, or palace, where the dukes reſided, is in the town itſelf, very near the great church. The Augſburg confeſſion is the religion profeſſed in this duchy. In the citadel are old archives, wherein are preſerved many important inſtructions relating to the hiſtory of the reformation.

The duchy of Coburg belongs, in part, to the duke of Hildburgbauſen, or Hilperſhauſen, which is the name of a town, with a fine caſtle, where he reſides. It is a grand building, of free-ſtone, according to the modern taſte. To him alſo belongs Holburg, another town, with a fine caſtle, and ſeveral others of leſſer note.

Steinhead is a ſmall town, and was anciently a gold mine.

Senneburg gives name to a bailiwick, in which are two market towns, named Indenbach and Murſchnitz: Eiſzfeld, on the Werra, contains a ducal palace, a Latin ſchool, glaſs-houſe, vitriol manufactory, powder blue manufactory, has a ſuperintendency, and gives name to a bailiwick.

Koningſberg is ſituated on a hill, and defended by an ancient caſtle. It contains a ſuperintendency, and gives name to a bailiwick. In Ummerſtadt town, on the river Rodach, are a hunting palace and a ſalt work.

The Principality of SAXE-GOTHA is bounded by Naumberg on the eaſt; the landgraviate of Heſſe and Saxe-Eiſenach on the weſt; the county of Euſurt and Halle on the north and north-eaſt; and Franconia on the ſouth. Its dukes are deſcended from the elector John Frederick the Magnanimous, who was depoſed by the emperor Charles V. in 1574, ſince which the youngeſt branch has enjoyed the electorate.

The eſtates of its ſovereign are (beſides the duchy of Gotha, including the lordſhips of Tenna, Wachſenburg, and Ichterſhauſen) the bailiwick of Kranichfeld, the monaſtery of Volkenroda, and, in the country of Altenburg, the towns of Altenburg, Orlamunda, Kala, Leuchtenburg, Schmoelle, Sichweighoff, &c. His titles are the ſame as thoſe of the duke of Saxe-Eyſenach, with the addition only of the lordſhip of Tonna, and they differ but little from thoſe of the elector of Saxony: and as of all the Saxon princes of the Erneſtine branch, this duke is the moſt powerful,

ſo of all the courts of Saxony, next to that of Dreſden, his is the moſt numerous and magnificent. He has all the officers of ſtate that are common to ſovereign princes. By the prudent management of his public finances, his ſubjects are the leaſt burdened with taxes of any ſtate in Germany. His guards are well cloathed, his liveries rich, and his tables ſerved with more elegance than profuſion.

Gotha, the capital city, is a large walled town on the river Leina. It is ſituated in a fine corn country, about two days journey ſouth of Hanover. Its chief trade is in dyers woad, of which they have three crops, the third growing wild. This herb is eſteemed ſuch a ſovereign baſſamic, as to cure wounds almoſt with a touch, if taken in time. It reſembles plantain, but has a longer leaf. The roots fatten barren ground exceedingly; and, being brought over to England, thrive well in ſeveral places. Here are two churches and an hoſpital.

John Frederick, elector of Saxony, being taken priſoner by Charles V. the old caſtle of Gotha was, by his order, demoliſhed. When the elector was ſet at liberty in 1552, he rebuilt it, and made it larger. The place being again taken in 1567, was demoliſhed a ſecond time, after a long and expenſive ſiege; but duke Erneſt, ſurnamed the Pious, rebuilt it, cauſed both that and the town to be encompaſſed with ditches and ramparts, and gave it the name of Friedenſtein, or the Caſtle of Peace, in oppoſition to its ancient name of Grimmerſtein, or the Caſtle of Furies. It ſtands by itſelf on a hill, from whence there is a vaſt proſpect over a fertile plain. It contains a library, a cabinet of curioſities, a chapel, a mint, an armoury, a theatre, and a laboratory; and is embelliſhed with fine gardens; as is Friedrickſhal, another ducal palace in the ſuburbs. Here are ſeveral churches, a military and other hoſpitals, an academy for cadets, various ſchools, a college foundry, riding-houſe, green-houſe, waterworks, porcelain, and other manufactories.

The Principality of ALTENBURG is well watered, has a fruitful ſoil, and rich mines. The inhabitants are Lutherans, and have five ſuperintendants: and the principal places are as follow:

Carnburg, on the Saal, which was formerly the capital; Sulzia, on the Ilm, remarkable for its ſalt works; Roda, on the Roda, a market town, containing a cloth and ſtocking manufactory; and Orlamunda, on the Saal, a town much decayed from its priſtine grandeur.

Ronneburg has manufactories of woollen cloth, earthen wares, &c.

Altenburg, on the Pleſſe, 37 miles weſt of Dreſden, is the ſeat of the chief offices for the diſtricts of the principality. The town, which is large, and was once an Imperial city, contains a foundation for the education of young ladies of decayed families, a houſe belonging to the Teutonic order, an orphan houſe, a houſe of correction, a college, library, and muſeum. It gives name to a diſtrict, which contains Lucca, Schmollen, Goſznitz, and Muſelwitz.

The moſt conſiderable places in the ſmall principality of SAXE-COBURG-SAALFELD, are

Saalfeld, a handſome town on the Saal, which contains the mint for the circle of Upper Saxony, a ducal palace, a grammar-ſchool, vitriol-houſe, ſmelting-houſe, ſeveral churches, manufactories of cloth, gold and ſilk ſtuffs, &c. Saalfeld-abbey, a Benedictine monaſtery, once ſtood on an eminence near this town, the abbot of which was always a prince of the empire, and had a ſeat and voice in the diets.

Poſneck is a ſmall but populous town, full of potters, clothiers, and curriers; Lehſten is a town celebrated for having a quarry of excellent ſlate in the neighbourhood; and Grafenthal is a ſmall town near the river Zepten, in which are ſome iron and copper works, with a glaſs-houſe.

The territories belonging to the houſe of Hatzfield contain only Blanckenhayn, a ſmall town, and Wandeſleben, a market-town, on the Apfelſtet.

The little Principality of QUERFURT contains the following places:

Querfurt, from which the principality receives its name, is a conſiderable town, including the ſuburbs, with a caſtle, on a hill, in the vicinity. It is the ſeat of a ſuperintendency, and has a great annual fair on the Wedneſday in the Eaſter week.

Dahrne is the ſeat of a ſuperintendency, and has a ducal palace in the neighbourhood.

Juterback, on the Angerback, is a ſmall town, near which, in 1644, a battle was fought between the Swedes and Imperialiſts, in which the former were victorious.

The Principality of ANHALT, ſituated between the rivers Elbe and Saal, is divided into the four branches of Deſſau, Bernberg, Zerbſt, and Cothen. When the dominions were thus divided, it was agreed to ſubmit to the eldeſt of the family, who has the ſupreme government, and the only power to aſſemble the reſt upon matters of conſequence. They have all but one vote in the diet, in which they generally depute one of their number to repreſent them. The right of ſeniority has been eſtabliſhed for ſome years in the branches of Bernberg and Zerbſt, which are the moſt numerous. It appears, from hiſtory, that this family has been productive of mighty warriors, and many other famous men; and that they have matched into the greateſt families of the empire.

The eſtates of the prince of Anhalt-Deſſau are the principality of Deſſau, with the town of that name; Worlitz, upon the Elbe; Rudegaſt, Sunderſleben; Oranienbaum, a ſeat on the confines of the electorate of Saxony; Ragun, Jeſnitz, &c. The prince of Anhalt-Bernburg poſſeſſes the lordſhip of Bernburg, on the Saal, and Bellenſtadt; Old Anhalt, from whence the family is denominated; Hartzgerode; Little Zeitz, where he reſides; and the abbey of Gernrode, for ladies; of which laſt the princes of Anhalt have the advowſon. The prince of Anhalt-Cothen has the town and territory of that name, between the Saal and Mulda, with Plotzkow; the bailiwick of Nienburg, on the Saal, heretofore an abbey; Wolfen, the upper country of Worenſdorf, and Guſten. The prince of Anhalt-Zerbſt poſſeſſes the town of that name, with the bailiwicks of Lindau, Coſwitz, Roſwick, Roſla, Muhligen of Magdeburg, Water-Nienburg, Domburg, Meckern, and the lordſhips of Javern, or Yevern, in Olderburg. He has alſo the reverſion of the territory of Kniphauſen. It is computed, that the revenue of each is about 7000l. a year. There is no univerſity in this country; but prince Lewis of Gothen founded a learned ſociety, the members of which have been chiefly employed in tranſlations of ancient Greek and Latin authors, and the improvement of the German language. He was the firſt preſident; and, in a ſhort time, above 20 princes, and 600 noblemen, entered into the ſociety, which is called the Fructifying Society, and has very much advanced the learning, and improved the language of the Germans. The people of Deſſau, according to the Preſent State of Germany, are Calviniſts, and the others Lutherans; but, in the town of Zerbſt, there are both Calviniſts and Lutherans. It is a good corn country, watered by the Saal and the Mulda, and its principal trade is in beer.

The chief towns are

Deſſau, on the Elbe, at the influx of the Mulda 8 miles ſouth of Zerbſt, and 20 eaſt of Bernberg. It lies in a pleaſant fruitful country, is well fortified, and adorned with the prince's palace. In one of the chapels there is the tomb of one Rehebeck, an old miller, who, having followed Waldemar, marquis of Brandenburg, to the wars, where the latter was ſlain, the former perſonated him ſo artfully, that he was reſpected as the marquis himſelf. The trade of this town is in excellent beer, which is tranſported all over the country. It had a fine bridge over the Elbe, which the Imperialiſts burnt in 1631.

Zerbſt ſtands a little eaſt of the Elbe, 10 miles north of Deſſau, and 46 north of Leipſic. It is very ancient,

and well fortified, according to the import of the name which, in the Wendiſh dialect, ſignifies Fort. It is remarkable for little now but being the ſeat of its prince, and a brewery, productive of ſuch excellent malt liquor, that in Franconia it ſells dearer than wine.

Bernburg is a fortified town, in a fruitful territory, on the banks of the Saal, 8 miles from the Elbe, 18 eaſt of Deſſau, and 20 ſouth of Magdeburg. The prince has a palace here, ſeparated from the town by the river. This place was taken in 1636, by the troops of the elector of Saxony, when they put the Swediſh garriſon to the ſword, and plundered the town.

Barbi belongs to a prince of the Weiſſenfels branch of Saxony, who has erected a noble caſtle in it, with commodious apartments, and crimſon velvet furniture, embroidered with gold. Here is a ſuperb ſaloon, which, with the cloſet and ceiling, is finely painted. It has gardens delightfully ſituated by the ſide of the Elbe. The duke of Barbi is the only calviniſt prince of the Saxon Family. The town ſtands near the influx of the Saal into the Elbe, betwixt Anhalt and Magdeburg.

Quedlinburg is a little ſtate in this circle, betwixt the principalities of Anhalt and Halberſtadt, which has the title of an abbacy, from an abbey of great note, that was founded here by Henry I. who was buried in it in 936; and, becauſe he ſpent much of his time here in taking birds, was ſurnamed the Fowler. After he had defeated 40,000 Huns near Murſburg, he began to build the church, to fulfil a vow which he had made for the proſperity of his arms; but, dying ſoon after he had dedicated the church to St. Servetus, his widow Matilda carried it on, his ſon the emperor Otho completed and richly endowed it, and his daughter Matilda was the firſt abbeſs. Succeeding emperors were alſo very bountiful to it, and declared themſelves its protectors; but, on the exſtinction of the then Imperial family, the protectorſhip paſſed into that of Anhalt, and thence into that of Saxony, in which it continued till the cloſe of the laſt century, when the late elector ſold the protection-fee of the abbey, and of the city of Northauſen, to the elector of Brandenburg, who garriſoned the town, and eſtabliſhed ſeveral courts in it. The abbeſs being a princeſs of the empire, and the firſt of thoſe princeſſes who derive their title ſolely from their abbeys, complained of this to the diet, wherein ſhe has her deputy among the prelates of the Rhine, but without effect; ſo that now ſhe has little more than the ſhadow of power in the city, and the abbey itſelf has loſt much of its ancient ſplendor: for the abbeſſes have not, as formerly, their hereditary officers, &c. The chapter has four dignitaries, viz. the abbeſs, the prioreſs, the deaneſs, and the canoneſſes, or nuns. All theſe ladies muſt be at leaſt baroneſſes, and prove their noble extraction for eight deſcents. The abbeſſes have commonly been of the Imperial or electoral families. Thoſe of Brandenburg, Brunſwic, and Anhalt, poſſeſs fiefs, which they hold of the abbey. No abbeſs can be choſen without the conſent of its hereditary protector; and the emperor's confirmation is ſufficient to render his election valid, without any from Rome; for that court has nothing to do with the abbey ſince 1539, when Lutheraniſm was brought in by its abbeſs, the counteſs of Stolberg. Here are no vows made; the canoneſſes, who receive and return viſits, know no reſtraints; both the abbeſs and her nuns may leave the abbey and marry; and ſince the reformation ſeveral of the abbeſſes have been widows. The revenue of this Lutheran abbey does not exceed 5000l. a year; its eſtate, beſides the little city of Quedlinburg, being only the villages of Ditfurt and Suderole; which laſt is claimed by the elector of Brandenburg, as belonging to his ſecularized biſhopric of Halberſtadt. The abbey has more the air of a little court than of a religious houſe. The abbeſs gives audiences with all the affected pomp of ſecular princes, and is ſeated under a canopy, ſurrounded by her chaplains and officers.

Quedlinburg, her place of reſidence, is a little city on the river Bode, that was formerly a Hans Town, and afterwards ſubject to the abbey; but the citizens rebelling againſt their abbeſs in 1745, they were made ſubject to the elector of Saxony, though now it is in other hands. It had formerly a caſtle on the top of a neighbouring hill, ſince demoliſhed. A famous council was held here in 1085. This town is ſo very near the frontier of Lower Saxony, that ſome geographers have placed it in that circle.

The free Imperial abbey of Walkenried belongs to the family of Brunſwic Wolfenbuttle, who poſſeſs it as a bailiwick; but, on its account, pay an aſſeſſment to the empire, and to the chamber of Wetzlar. The only places of the leaſt importance, in the whole bailiwick, are the town of Walkenried, on the Zorge, and the town of Zorge, which contains iron manufactories.

The ſouth part of the principality of SCHWARZBURG, which is ſeparated from the north, is ſurrounded by Coburg, Altenburg, Eiſenach, and Erfurt; and the north part is encompaſſed by Thuringia, the electorate of Saxony, the counties of Stolberg, Hohenſtein, Eichsfelde, and the territory of the imperial town of Mulhauſen. In this principality are many fertile ſpots, yielding all kinds of grain, roots, fruits, &c. The country likewiſe produces wine, game, ſilver, ſalt, timber, veniſon, copper, and alabaſter.

The rivers are the Schwarze, Saal, Helme, Wepper, Ilm, Gera, Zorgange, and Elbe.

The inhabitants amount to about 100,000. Lutheraniſm is the religion profeſſed, and the principal places are the following:

Sonderhauſen, on the Wepper, has a palace near it, the apartments of which are fine, and the gardens elegant. In the armoury is an image of Puſtrich, a Wandiſh idol, in ſhining black metal. Its head, on which the right hand reſts, is large and diſproportionate, with a hole in the top of it; and its belly is prominent and hollow. In lieu of a mouth a round hole is ſubſtituted. The legs are both mutilated, and the right is bent in a particular manner. The middle of the left arm, which reſts on the lap, is broken off. This town gives name to a bailiwick, and is the ſeat of the public offices.

Arnſtadt, on the Gera, has a handſome ſtone bridge of ſix arches. On the ſame river are braſs and iron works, with ſeveral mills, and a ſalt-petre houſe near the town, in which are two palaces belonging to the prince, ſeveral churches, and a public ſchool.

In Auguſtenburg is a fine palace, and a garden. Geren is a market-town, with iron works, and a ſaw-mill; Langewieſen, on the Ilm, is a fief of Mentz; and Breituback, on the ſame river, contains a palace.

The principal places in the territories of RUDOLSTADT, are Rudolſtadt on the Saal, with a caſtle on an eminence in the neighbourhood, ſeveral colleges and courts, a Latin ſchool, and ſuperintendency: and in the bailiwick to which Rudolſtadt gives name, there is a ſmall town called Teichel.

Blanckenburg on the Rhine, has ſome paper-mills and copper-mines; Konitz is remarkable only for its ſilver mines; Leutenberg has ſilver and copper mines, a copper mill, ſmelting-houſe, &c. Ehrenſtein is defended by a caſtle; and Ilm is a ſmall town, on a river of the ſame name.

Frankenhauſen is environed on all ſides by hills, and gives name to a bailiwick: Arnſburg is an ancient caſtle; at Stranſberg there are the ruins of another caſtle; Hermingea, on the Helme, is very pleaſantly ſituated; Scholetheim is a market-town, belonging to the Hopſgarten family; and Kalbra is ſurrounded by the plentiful diſtrict called the Golden Plain.

STOLBERG county, which lies north of the lower county of Schwartzburg, eaſt of Hohenſtein, and weſt of Mansfeld, is about 20 miles long, and 10 broad; and gives name to counts of an ancient, and once a very powerful family, whoſe domains lie diſperſed; but moſt of them are in the circle of the Upper Rhine; and they have right to the ſucceſſion of the counts of

Schwartzburg. They are divided into the two chief branches of Iſenberg and Gudern, and the latter into thoſe of Stolberg and Ortenberg. They are ſovereign counts, of the Lutheran religion; and, beſides their large bailiwicks in the circle above mentioned, they have the county of Weringerode, in the principality of Halberſtadt, near the borders of which, among the mountains, ſtands the caſtle of Stolberg, which, it is ſaid, was built by Otho Colonna, a Roman gentleman, to whom the emperor Juſtin gave this part of the Hyrcanian Foreſt, in reward for his ſervices; and who gave it this name from the iron mines he met with in the foundation of it, which, in the German tongue, are called Sthalgrub.

MANSFELD is one of the four Hyrcanian counties, the other three being Stolberg Hohenſtein, and Regenſtein. It is about 30 miles from eaſt to weſt, and 18 from north to ſouth. It abounds in ſeveral ſorts of minerals, very profitable to the inhabitants; particularly that called the Scheifferſtein, peculiar to this and the neighbouring provinces. It is a blackiſh glittering kind of ſlate, which, melted and bruiſed, yields much copper and ſilver. An authentic writer ſays, there is ſcarce the like in the world; that out of it the inhabitants melt copper, each hundred weight of which contains 10 or 12 ounces of pure ſilver; and that this ſtone is very common here. He adds, that in theſe ſtones are lively repreſentations, in fair copper ſtrokes, of fiſhes of ſeveral ſorts, frogs, water-rats, and other animals, that abound in a neighbouring lake.

The pedigree of the counts of Mansfeld is ſuppoſed to be derived from Burchard V. count of Quernfurt, to whom the emperor Frederick Barbaroſſa gave this county, for his ſervice in the Holy Land; and his ſucceſſors have enjoyed it ever ſince, but pay homage to the elector of Saxony. There have been ſeveral great men of this family, ſome of whom have been privy-counſellors to the emperors of Germany, and deputy-governors of Saxony; and the names of ſeveral of them ſhine in the annals of Germany and the Netherlands; but it is now divided into four or five branches, which makes them leſs conſiderable than formerly. Some of the young counts, in the 16th century, oppoſed ſeveral of the Lutheran doctrines, which gave riſe to a ſect called Mansfeldians. The two chief branches left are thoſe of Bornſtet and Eiſleben. The latter reſides in the town of that name, and has nothing to depend on but the hunting, fiſhery, and patronage of the churches; the family being ſo deeply in debt, that the greater part of the eſtates, which formerly belonged to it, were ſeized by the creditors; and the remainder was ſequeſtered to the elector of Saxony, who mortgaged his part, in 1715, to George I. king of Great-Britain; ſo that all the preſent count is poſſeſſed of, is only Bornſtet, with its diſtrict, two eſtates in Bohemia, and the ſmall principality of Fondi, in the kingdom of Naples.

The prince of this country being an hereditary count of the German empire, we ſhall here give ſome account of that dignity. Theſe counts have a voice in the Imperial diet, may purchaſe eſtates in any part of the emperor's dominions, may liſt volunteers, and cannot be ſued by the emperor but only in the Imperial chamber. But that which properly relates to counts of territories, ſuch as thoſe of Mansfeld, is, that they were anciently created and inveſted by the delivery of one or more banners for ſeiſin of their territories, as dukes were inveſted; and the ſurrender of them was made by the re-delivery of thoſe banners to the emperor.

None of the town or villages in this county are worthy of deſcription, except Eiſleben, the capital of the county, which is divided into Old and New, and celebrated for the birth and death of the great reformer Martin Luther. It is populous, a great thoroughfare, contains many breweries, and has a caſtle to defend it.

The county of WERNIGERODE, ſituated on the borders of the principality of Halberſtadt, is 12 miles long, 9 broad, partly level, and partly mountainous. The Blockberg mountain here is reckoned the higheſt in Germany, and the ſnow generally covers it all the year round. The level parts of this country are fertile in grain, pulſe, flax, fruit, herbs, timber, &c. And the whole abounds in horſes, game, chalk, lime-ſtone, marle, lead, cattle, ſalt-petre, cobalt, freeſtone, clay, and iron.

The eſtabliſhed religion is Lutheraniſm; and the principal places are,

Wernigerode, which gives name to the county, and is defended by a ſtately caſtle, adorned with admirable gardens, and containing a fine library, and many valuable archives.

The town conſiſts of three parts; the Old Town, the New Town, and the Suburb of Noſchonſade. It may be laid under water by means of the Zillicher Rivulet. The corporation has a property in ſome large woods, from which the burghers are allowed timber for building, and a certain quantity for fuel. The inhabitants are employed in breweries, diſtilling, and cloth and woollen manufactories. Along the Zillicher River are ſeveral oil, fulling, copper, meal, ſawing, and other mills.

Drubeck, a large village, has a foundation for ſix Proteſtant ladies; and Ilſenburg is defended by a ſtrong caſtle. In the neighbourhood of the latter there are various mills; and in the bailiwick of Haſſerode, is a colour mill and a lead mine.

The Lordſhips of REUSSEN are ſurrounded by Erzgeberg, Vogtland, Neuſtadt, Culmback, Bamberg, Saalfeld, Leutenberg, Altenberg, and the bailiwick of Zeits. The plains are fruitful, the hills rich in minerals, and the rivers abound in fiſh. The people, who are Lutherans, employ themſelves in woollen and iron manufactories.

The principal places are,

Greitz, on the Elſter, a town encompaſſed with woods and mountains. It contains a handſome church, Latin ſchool, orphan-houſe, and ſome woollen manufactories,

Zeulenroda has a manufactory of ſtuffs, ſtockings, &c. an allum mine, and an annual fair.

Trawrenth is a market-town, celebrated for its iron works; and Moſchlitz is a market town, which has an alum mine work.

Gerad is a handſome little town, ſituated in a pleaſant vale near the Elſter, and contains a gymnaſium and woollen manufactory.

Schlewitz has a woollen manufactory, and gives name to a lordſhip, which contains three market towns, viz. Tanna, Gorgwitz, and Market Hohenleuben.

The great induſtry of the inhabitants of theſe lordſhips renders them very rich; for the people ſeem to make buſineſs their pleaſure, and to conſider labour an amuſement.

The greateſt part of the inhabitants of the lordſhip SCHONBURG are Lutherans, very induſtrious, and have ſeveral flouriſhing manufactories. The counts of Schonburg have a ſeat in the diet of the empire, and in that of the circle.

The principal places are,

Waldenburg, on the Mulda, famous for its brown and earthen wares. Loſnitz has a cloth manufactory; Wechſelbur, on the Mulda, contains a noble ſeat; and Burgſtadt has a ſtuff manufactory. The people of theſe lordſhips are particularly attentive to their religious duties, and ſeem to be unaffectedly pious in their demeanors.

Hail! heav'nly piety, ſupremely fair!
Whoſe ſmiles can calm the horrors of deſpair,
Bid in each breaſt unuſual tranſports flow,
And wipe the tears that ſtrain the cheek of woe
How bleſt the man who leaves each meaner ſcene,
Like thee, exalted, ſmiling, and ſerene!
Whoſe riſing ſoul purſues a nobler flight;
Whoſe boſom melts with more refin'd delight;

Whoſe

Whoſe thoughts, elate with tranſports all ſublime,
Can ſoar at once beyond the views of time;
Till loos'd from earth, as angels unconfin'd,
He flies aërial on the darting wind;
Free as the keen-ey'd eagle, bears away,
And mounts the regions of eternal day.

The county of HOUSTERN, though rather hilly, abounds in corn, graſs, cattle, deer, game, timber, iron, alabaſter, and jaſper, which latter it may not be improper here to deſcribe.

The jaſper differs little from an agate, only it is ſofter, and will not bear ſo fine a poliſh, becauſe it conſiſts of groſſer particles; beſides, it is not ſo tranſparent, and is moſt commonly green; and the nearer it comes to an emerald, the higher is the value. However, it is of other colours, and, on that account, is divided into different ſpecies, among which are included the nephritic ſtones.

The white nephritic ſtone has a very fine, compact, firm texture, with a ſmooth gloſſy ſurface, and is of various ſizes; but the common ſort is two inches in diameter. The ſhape is very irregular, like a common flint; and it is naturally of a fine white, with great brightneſs and tranſparency. It has ſometimes a blueiſh tinge, which makes it appear of a deep pearl colour, and, upon that account, is more valued by ſome; but when it is yellowiſh, it is not in great eſteem. It looks pretty much like marble, but breaks into fine gloſſy bits, and is heavy, as well as very hard. It is often cut into ſmall cups and other toys, which are extremely bright.

The green jaſper is a bright ſemi-tranſparent ſtone and of a cloſe, hard, irregular texture. It has been found in maſſes of many feet in diameter, and ſometimes no larger than a horſe-bean. It is of a deep beautiful green, and almoſt always of the ſame colour throughout, though it has been ſometimes found clouded with white. It is externally bright and gloſſy, and breaks into ſmooth pieces, apparently of a texture between flint and marble. Its very great hardneſs renders it capable of a fine poliſh.

The ſoft duſky green jaſper is not ſo heavy or valuable as the former, and is generally found in ſtones of a flat ſhape, from two to five inches in diameter. The ſurface is pretty full of ſuperficial cracks, and the colour always dull, with ſometimes a blueiſh and ſometimes a browniſh caſt. The moſt remarkable places in this county are,

Hauſtern, which gives name to the county, and to a bailiwick; Ilfeld, a village on the Behr, that belongs to the elector of Brunſwic-Lunenburg, and contains a ſmall college; and Bleikrade, a ſmall town in the lordſhip of Lora, which, with the town of Kaettenberg, is now incorporated with the principality of Halberſtadt.

Ebrich, on the Zorge, has ſeveral manufactories, and is the ſeat of a ſuperintendency; Sachſa is a ſmall town with a ruined caſtle, a ſlatting mill, a paper mill, and a gunpowder mill; Benneckſtein is a famous for its iron mills; and Great Bodungen is a market-town on the Bode.

THE CIRCLE OF LOWER SAXONY.

THIS circle is bounded, on the north, by the duchy of Sleſwic and the Baltic; on the ſouth by the circle of Upper-Saxony, and a part of that of the Upper Rhine; on the weſt by the circle of Weſtphalia and the North Sea; and on the eaſt by part of the circle of Upper Saxony. In ſome parts it is woody, ſandy, and marſhy; but, in general, it may be deemed a very fruitful country.

Having already deſcribed thoſe parts of this circle which are included in the dominions of Denmark and Pruſſia, we proceed to thoſe which have not been noticed, and are as follow:

4

BRUNSWIC LUNENBURG.

Though many places in this country are heathy, marſhy, ſandy, and barren, yet ſeveral diſtricts are fruitful in grain of all the various kinds, as well as many valuable roots. Here are likewiſe great quantities of timber, honey, wax, pitch, fiſh, ſalt ſprings, cattle, game, minerals, turf, &c.

Theſe territories have many manufactories of woollen cloths, ſtuffs, linen, thread, lace, cotton, carpets, gold twiſt, galoons, fringe, ſword-knots, taſſels, halberts, embroidery, tobacco-pipes, ſalt, fire-arms, colours, paper, gunpowder, hats, ſkins, &c.

Lutheraniſm is the eſtabliſhed religion; but Roman Catholics are tolerated in ſome places, particularly at Hanover and Gottingen. Calviniſts and Jews are tolerated throughout all the electoral territories.

With reſpect to the anceſtors of this illuſtrious houſe, we obſerve, that the houſe of Brunſwic being united in the two ſons of Henry, duke of Zell, in 1546, the branch of Brunſwic Wolfenbuttle and Beveren, deſcended from Henry, the eldeſt of thoſe ſons; and the electoral branch of Brunſwic-Lunenburg, from William, the youngeſt ſon; and that the anceſtreſs of both branches was Margaret, queen of Scotland, wife of king Malcolm III. and ſiſter to Edgar Atheling, the Saxon, who was the true lineal heir of the crown of England, both of the Daniſh and Saxon race; which Edgar dying without iſſue, the right of ſucceſſion fell to queen Margaret's poſterity, in whom centered at once the hereditary titles of the Scottiſh, Pictiſh, Britiſh, Daniſh, and Saxon royal families. It appears that his Britannic Majeſty is deſcended from the Scottiſh, Norman, and Welch royal families, after the conqueſt, and particularly from the Plantagenet family; from Margaret, queen of Scotland, daughter to our king Henry VII. from the houſe of Lancaſter; from the Scots royal family of Baliol and Bruce; and, laſtly, from king James, the firſt monarch of Great Britain; ſo that his majeſty participates the blood of all the royal families that ever reigned in this iſland. It might be demonſtrated, that this family is one of the moſt ancient and illuſtrious in Europe; that it deſcended from, and has intermarried with, moſt, if not all, the ſovereign families in Chriſtendom; that there have been two emperors of Germany, and an empreſs of Conſtantinople, of this family; not to mention the ſhare which queen Caroline, conſort of George II. might have had in the Imperial throne of Germany, had it not been for her inflexible attachment to the Proteſtant religion; and that from this family are deſcended the kings of Sweden, Denmark, Poland, and Pruſſia; the electors of Bavaria and the Palatinate; the families of Heſſe, Baden, Mecklenburg, and ſeveral princes of the houſe of Saxony; to whom we might alſo add ſeveral mitred prelates, there having been 18 archbiſhops and biſhops of this family, all princes of the empire, beſides one cardinal.

The creation of the electorate, which is attached to the duchies of Hanover and Zell, was concerted at the congreſs at the Hague in 1692, in the reign of king William III. of glorious memory, and happily effected by his influence, in conjunction with moſt of the Proteſtant princes of the empire, in order to counterbalance the acceſſion of the Popiſh branch of the Palatine family to the electorate of the Rhine. It was oppoſed by ſeveral German princes, and particularly by the duke of Brunſwic Wolfenbuttle, from a principle of envy; but the then emperor Leopold, in order to teſtify his gratitude to the Proteſtants for their aſſiſtance in the war againſt France, and, conſidering not only the perſonal merit of duke Erneſt, but the great dignity of the Brunſwic family, who had the firſt ſeat in the college of princes at the diet, and was one of the moſt conſiderable in the empire for antiquity, wealth, and power, ordered it to be put to the queſtion in the college of electors at Ratiſbon, wherein it was reſolved,

the

the 17th of October, 1692, that the electoral dignity ſhould be conferred on the ſaid prince Erneſt and his heirs. The college of princes immediately entered their proteſt againſt this reſolution, as contrary to the laws of the empire, becauſe entered into without their conſent. Nevertheleſs, in December following, the emperor gave prince Erneſt the inveſtiture, by delivering the electoral cap to his plenipotentiaries, and declaring him elector.

The extent of the particular dominions of the elector is as follows;

	Miles long.	Miles broad.
The principality of Grubenhagen	40	40
The duchy of Hanover, or Calenburg	40	12
The duchy of Lunenburg	80	50
The duchy of Saxe-Lawenburg	30	15
The duchy of Bremen, including Verden	60	40
The county of Hoya	30	15
The county of Diepholt	30	10

The elector's revenues ariſe from the ſalt-pits, or ſprings, within the walls of Lunenburg: from taxes on land, cattle, merchandize, public-houſes, and inns; but principally from the rich mines of ſilver, iron, and copper. The mines of Claufthall, with thoſe of St. Andrew and Altena, yield near 200,000l. a year. Upon the whole, this elector's annual revenue is calculated to amount to at leaſt 400,000l. In the year 1692, he had near 14,000 regular troops on foot. Now that the eſtates of the electorate are larger above one-half, by the addition of Lunenburg and Bremen, he may raiſe an army of betwixt 30 and 40,000 men, without greatly burthening his ſubjects. In the year 1729, he reviewed a body of 19,890 men; and in September, 1735, that number was augmented to 22,000 regular troops. In 1687 there was an hereditary and perpetual union made between this electoral family and that of Saxony; which was renewed in 1731 and 1736, for the mutual guarantee of the peaceable poſſeſſion of their eſtates againſt all invaders.

The Duchy of BREMEN has the Weſer on the weſt; the Elbe, and part of Lunenburg, on the eaſt; the German Sea on the north; and part of Verden and Oldenburg on the ſouth. It is divided into the land of Bremen, properly ſo called, which lies ſome miles round the city; Wurſterland, along the coaſt, from the Weſer to the mouth of the Elbe; Hadeland, the north part of the duchy, at the mouth of the Elbe, where the people are deemed ignorant, but ſo fond of gay cloaths, that their neighbours have a proverb, that "There are no peaſants in Hadeland." Part of it belongs to Hamburg, and part to Saxe-Lawenburg. Kedingerland, in which lies Stadt; and Altland, a pleaſant fruitful track, of about 14 miles in length. Betwixt Bremen and Stade the country is deſert; but the other parts, towards the rivers, are very pleaſant, and abound with fields, meadows and orchards. The inhabitants, who formerly relied ſo much on their valour, that they ſcorned to build forts, are ſtill eſteemed as good ſoldiers as any in Germany; and it is ſaid of the Wurſtlanders, in particular, that they will fight and drink with the beſt men in Germany. The ſituation of the country between two ſuch navigable rivers, has diſpoſed the people in general to trade.

The emperor Ludovicus Pius gave this country to Anſgarius, the firſt archbiſhop of Bremen and Hamburg; whom he had made metropolitan of Denmark, and all the known countries to the north. He died in 865; and his death is annually obſerved by the common people here with great ſolemnity. Denmark and Sweden were no longer dependent on this ſee, when Lunden was erected into an archbiſhopric: but this country continued ſubject to its archbiſhops, till, by the treaty of Weſtphalia, the archbiſhopric was ſecularized, converted into a duchy, and given to the Swedes for reſtoring the peace of the empire, and giving up other places which they had taken during the war. As their anceſtors had frequent wars with their archbiſhop in defence of their liberties, they pleaded for the ſame exemptions when made ſubject to the Swedes, who continued their maſters till 1712, when this country and Verden were conquered by the king of Denmark. This prince mortgaged it ſoon to the elector, who, in 1715, had 250,000l. granted him by his parliament, to enable him to make the purchaſe of it. There was an oppoſition, indeed, made to it, in both houſes, and a clamour raiſed againſt it without doors; but, however convenient it might be for the elector of Hanover, whoſe family was poſſeſſed of Bremen once before, and to whoſe dominions it lay contiguous, the legiſlature wiſely judged it might be of the moſt dangerous conſequence to the crown of Great Britain, that any foreign prince, eſpecially a maritime power, ſhould hold the key, which the king of Denmark then had, of the Elbe and the Weſer. On ſurveying the maps of this part of the empire, it appears that, whilſt that king was in poſſeſſion of the duchies of Bremen and Verden, he was maſter of the ſea-coaſt from Denmark almoſt to the Seven Provinces. The maps ſhew, that the Elbe runs for about 500 miles, through Bohemia, Saxony, Brandenburg, and the reſt of Germany; and that the Weſer paſſes, for about 250 miles, through Heſſia, Weſtphalia, Oldenburg, and ſome other countries of the empire. The vaſt importance of thoſe rivers to our trade will be manifeſt from conſidering that all our woollen, and other Engliſh manufactures, and almoſt all our commodities, both domeſtic and foreign, to the value of many hundred thouſands a year, are by thoſe ſtreams conveyed to innumerable markets; and that by the ſame navigation a great part of our riches flows continually home to us; a trade too precious to have lain at the mercy of any foreigner, either to lock it up from us, or to lay what impoſitions he pleaſed on it, as might have been the caſe, if the king of Denmark had not been diſpoſſeſſed of Bremen and Verden. In 1717 this country ſuffered very much by inundations from the Elbe, the banks of which are in ſome places very low, and would be frequently overflown, were it not for the dykes. In 1720 the crown of Sweden conſented in form to the diſmemberment of this duchy from its other dominions, and confirmed it to the houſe of Brunſwic.

The common dialect of this, and a very large part of the lower circles of Germany, is a ſort of Lower Saxon, neither Dutch or High German, but partaking of both, or rather the root of both; for it ſeems to have retained more of the ancient Anglo-Saxon than of the Dutch or High-German: yet every one underſtands High-German; and it is the language of their printed books, ſermons, and written letters.

This duchy is watered by many rivers. The Tech, the Umme, and the Hamma, join together, and fall into the Weſer; as do the Brept, the Lun, the Stotel, and ſeveral others. The Eſſa, the Schwingel, and the Oſte, fall into the Elbe. The moſt remarkable places are,

Boxtehude, ſituated on the Eſſa, or Eſt, 15 miles weſt of Hamburg, and 48 north eaſt of Bremen, in a pleaſant country, ſo fruitful as to be reckoned one of the granaries of Hamburg. It is a pretty large town, with broad ſtreets, and is ſurrounded with a ditch and wall, upon which there are old ruinous towers. Its river, which comes out of Lunenburg, and is navigable for boats up to the town, falls into the Elbe at Crantz, about four miles off, where the latter is about a mile over; and from hence there is a fine proſpect of Hamburg. The town, which firſt had its riſe from a nunnery of ladies of a family of that name, was of ſuch note formerly, as to be admitted into the Hanſeatic League, and ſtill retains the privileges of a city, with burgomaſters and ſenators. One of the dukes of Brunſwic attempted, in vain, to reduce this place in 1424, as did, in 1552, one of the counts of Mansfeld, who, becauſe he could not take it, ſet fire to the neighbouring nunnery. During the civil wars of Germany, it was ſeveral times taken from, and re-taken by, the Swedes; who, being at length reſtored to it in 1679,

kept it, with the reſt of the duchy of Bremen, till the whole country was conquered by the Danes, and then made over to the elector of Hanover.

Stade has a good trade, and a healthy air. It is ſituated on the river Zwinga, or Schwingel, which falls into the Elbe 2 miles below it, 27 miles weſt of Hamburg, and 44 north of Bremen. This place, beſides having been a free imperial city, and one of the Hans Towns, was formerly endowed with great privileges; particularly that of being an aſylum or ſanctuary for all offenders, with a right of toll for ſhips paſſing up the Elbe; but became ſo poor, by Hamburg outſtripping it, that it was put under the protection of the archbiſhop of Bremen. After its decay, the Engliſh merchants, upon ſome diſguſt taken at Hamburg, removing hither, revived its trade; ſo that it became rich and populous, and is ſtill in good condition; though the Engliſh merchants returned to Hamburg. The town is well built; and its town-hall, market-place, and churches, are handſome.

Bremerfurd, or Breme-Verden, is a walled town, with a good caſtle, that commands the neighbouring plains; and a palace, which was formerly the archbiſhop of Bremen's, on the river Oſte, that runs into the Elbe. It is fifteen miles ſouth from Stade, and 28 north of Bremen; and the chief trade of it is by paſſengers betwixt thoſe towns. The chancery of the duchy is kept at this place.

Ritzbuttle is a bailiwick, conſiſting of a caſtle, with 14 villages, belonging to the Hamburghers, and ſituated on the coaſt, where the Elbe falls into the North Sea, not 10 miles from the utmoſt point of land of this country, and 32 north-weſt of Stade. Here the Hamburghers have a harbour, called Cuxhaven, which is of great benefit to ſhips coming on the Elbe in winter, when the river is full of ice. Here likewiſe their ſhips often ſtop, on their arrival from long voyages, for orders and news. Here are privileged pilots, who, by the ſtatutes, are obliged to have a yacht always at ſea, near the outermoſt buoy, ready to put a pilot or two, as occaſion ſhall require, on board of every ſhip coming into the Elbe. But, notwithſtanding this is one of the moſt dangerous rivers in Europe to enter, as all ſhips coming to Hamburg are obliged to pay half pilotage, whether they have pilots on board or not, they are ſeldom at ſea, but in good weather, when they are leaſt wanted, which has occaſioned the loſs of many rich ſhips. The Hamburghers have another fort in this neighbourhood, called New-wreck, or Neu-wark, which ſerves for ſtrengthening the former, on the land-ſide, againſt the country.

Adjoining to the bailiwick of Ritzbuttle is the little diſtrict of Hadeln, or Hadeland, (the moſt northern part of this duchy,) which, with its capital, Ottendorff, on the river Medame, and the town of Hadeln, came, in the 16th century, from the archbiſhops of Bremen, to the houſe of Saxe-Lawenburg: but the male line of that houſe becoming extinct in the year 1689, and a diſpute ariſing about the inheritance, between the female heirs and the king of Sweden, the emperor cauſed it to be taken into ſequeſtration, under which it ſtill remains. The caſtle of Ottendorff, which belongs to Saxe-Lawenburg, commands moſt of the diſtrict.

Carelſtadt is rather a fortreſs than a town, on the river Geeſte; which, having filled its ditches, falls into the Weſer, 31 miles north-weſt of Bremen. It was founded by Charles X. of Sweden; taken by the dukes of Brunſwick in 1676, and reſtored, by the treaty of Fontainbleau, in 1679. Charles XII. in 1698, granted liberty of conſcience, with 30 years exemption from taxes, to all Proteſtants that would ſettle here: but the inhabitants are few.

Bremen, the capital of the duchy, ſtands in a fruitful plain, 23 miles eaſt of Oldenburg, and about 460 north-weſt of Vienna. It is an ancient, large, populous, flouriſhing, free, imperial city, and the third in rank among the Hans, which are Hamburg, Lubec, and Bremen. The latter, though it is reckoned the leaſt conſiderable, is certainly much the oldeſt, being noted for ſhipping when the monks, ſent by the pope to convert the Saxons, embarked here for England, which was 200 years before Hamburg was built, and above 500 before the building of Lubec. An archbiſhopric was founded here by Charles the Great, who made it the metropolis of the north. Henry V. granted the citizens great privileges, as a reward for their valiant performances in the holy wars. It had ſeveral privileges alſo granted it by the emperor Wenceſlaus, for clearing the coaſt from pirates, and protecting the merchants trading on the Weſer; and no goods were allowed to go down the river, and paſs this city, without being firſt landed here. The inhabitants have their privilege alſo of fiſhing from the bridge of Hoya, four German miles above Bremen, down to the ſea; as likewiſe in the rivers Hunte, Ochtum, Wemme, and Leeſum, which flow into the Weſer. The city is well ſupplied with fiſh, both from its rivers and the ſea; and they have every month ſeveral ſorts in ſeaſon. Among others they catch great quantities of ſalmon and lampreys; the former of which, being dried and ſmoaked, and the latter pickled, are in great eſteem throughout all Germany. Rodolph II. endowed them with the privilege that neither their perſons or goods ſhould be liable to arreſt, attachment, or other impoſition, throughout the empire; and Charles V. gave them the right of coinage: but, on its receiving the reformation in 1552, and zealouſly defending it againſt one of their archbiſhops, that emperor ordered the city to be beſieged by the duke of Brunſwick; againſt whom it made ſo gallant a defence, that, after almoſt a year's continuance, he was forced to raiſe it. The archbiſhops did not embrace the reformation till 1585. This city claimed a right of vote and ſeſſion in the diet ever ſince Charlemagne, which was confirmed to them (though the archbiſhop oppoſed it) by the emperor Ferdinand III. in 1641. Afterwards on the ſecularization of the archbiſhopric, in the reign of queen Chriſtina, of Sweden, new diſputes aroſe, which came to a rupture in 1654; and though they were compoſed under Charles Guſtavus, in 1658, they broke out again under Charles XI. who claimed the ſovereignty of the city, as well as that of the duchy, which had been yielded to the Swedes by treaty: but the ſenate totally diſclaimed it, on the baſis of the 10th article of the treaty of Oſnaburg, whereby it was declared a free imperial city; though the archbiſhopric, with all the rights belonging to it, was annexed, by the emperor and empreſs, to the crown of Sweden. The Swedes, nevertheleſs, not being ſatisfied, beſieged it above ſix weeks, but raiſed the ſiege, at the interpoſition of the neighbouring princes; and then followed the treaty of Hahenhauſen, in 1666, by which the city was obliged to part with ſome of its ancient privileges, and to wave its pretenſions to the right of ſitting and voting in the diet. It is governed by a ſenate, compoſed of 4 burgomaſters, or conſuls, and 24 ſenators, or common-councilmen, conſiſting of four diviſions, viz. one burgomaſter, and ſix ſenators, to each of the four wards. They are choſen out of the chief citizens, ſo that the government is a kind of ariſtocracy. This ſenate decides all cauſes, eccleſiaſtical, criminal, and civil; and from it there lies no appeal, except in the latter, where the ſum litigated exceeds 600 Rheniſh guilders of gold, or about 210l. ſterling; in which caſe there may lie an appeal to the imperial chamber of Wetzlar. If any of the members die, or become incapable, they muſt chuſe another in 24 hours; for which end, one elector is choſen out of each claſs by lot, and then ſhut up in a room without ſeeing any one till the election is over. They have their own ſtatute-laws, which were enacted in 1281, but have been ſince amended. It has a juriſdiction of about 10 miles round, abounding with paſtures well ſtocked with cattle, and is bordered with territories belonging to his Britannic majeſty. The river Weſer, which is navigable about 30 miles from the ſea, runs through it, and divides the old city from the new;

but

but there is a communication by a bridge of boats, and ſeveral wooden bridges. The river is not navigable for ſhips of burden farther than Fegeſack, ſix miles below the town, where there is a cuſtom-houſe, and where all ſhips load and unload: ſo that all goods are brought up from thence in flat-bottomed veſſels. It has a conſiderable trade to England, eſpecially with all ſorts of Weſtphalia linens, and ſends ſeveral ſhips, particularly to London, every year; there being a great conſumption of the Engliſh woollen manufactures, which they receive not only directly from England, but by way of Hamburg and Holland, and diſperſe them again through the whole circle of Weſtphalia. It likewiſe ſends ſhips to France, Spain, Portugal, and Italy, and a great number to Davis's Streights. It has alſo a conſiderable inland trade, particularly to the great fairs and marts in Germany, to which, among other goods, it ſends large quantities of calicoes and ſugar, printed and refined here, though not to that perfection as at Hamburg. Its beer is very much eſteemed in Germany, and therefore exported in large quantities. The other commodities are minerals, timber, corn, cattle, and leather; in dreſſing of which, and cloth, they are very expert; ſo that both are ſent hither, for that purpoſe, from other countries. The duties upon importation and exportation are very low, which is a great encouragement to trade, and gives the inhabitants an advantage over the Dutch in the countries betwixt this city and their republic. Bremen is deemed the next port to Hamburg, in the whole empire, for commerce: and, in time of war, it fits out ſhips of force to convoy their merchantmen. It generally ſends 20 or 30 ſhips a year to the whale-fiſhery in Greenland; and their harpooners, being eſteemed the moſt expert in all the country, are frequently hired both by the Dutch and Engliſh.

Both the old and new towns are fortified with high walls, a broad ditch, and a counterſcarp. The former has ſeveral towers on the walls, after the old manner: but the walls of the new town have eight fine bulwarks. It is, however, ſtronger by nature than art. Here is a garriſon of 600 men, beſides the guard kept day and night, at the town-houſe, by 200 of the citizens. On the city wall, or ramparts, which are planted with rows of trees, there is a road for coaches, as well as foot-paſſengers, and a moſt agreeable proſpect of the river, and adjacent country.

The new town has a grand arſenal, well ſtored with artillery, ſmall arms, and other utenſils and tools of war, both ancient and modern. There is a leſſer, which is a ſort of armoury for the burghers, being a ſpacious hall, where their council of trade meets, the walls of which are adorned with ſmall arms. At the entrance there is the figure of a warrior in complete armour, who, by ſome mechaniſm under the ſteps, as ſoon as you tread on them, lifts up the beaver of his helmet with his truncheon to ſalute you.

From the gallery of the grand arſenal, which contains the greater part of the ſmall arms, ranged in a very beautiful manner, there is a paſſage to the gymnaſium, or academy, built after the reformation, which was at firſt only a free ſchool, but afterwards advanced to the title of an univerſity; which, by the munificence of ſeveral worthy citizens, makes as good a figure as ſome of the beſt in Germany, and has produced many great men.

The ſenate, council, or town-houſe, is a large Gothic ſtructure, built in 1405, and adorned on the outſide, with ſeveral ſtatues of the emperors and electors, beſides thoſe of Plato, Ariſtotle, Cicero, and other ancients; and a picture of the old and new towns. The council-chamber has the picture of 12 German emperors, down to Leopold. The courts of juſtice, and other apartments, are plainer than ſuits with the dignity of the offices they are put to; and the lower part, or hall, in which there are doors that lead to the courts of juſtice, is filled with toy and print ſhops, and others for ſtationary and haberdaſhery wares.

At one end of this building, but ſeparated by a ſtreet, there is a public ſtructure, with a piazza and ſhops under it, which ſerves for an exchange; but is not near ſo much frequented as thoſe of London and Amſterdam, and only reſorted to by the merchants on poſt days.

Here are ſeveral hoſpitals, particularly one for ſuperannuated or diſabled mariners; and another for the ſick, lame, decrepid, and old, of both ſexes. It is a plain but commodious ſtructure, with a very handſome chapel. Adjoining to it is a houſe of correction for vagabonds and criminals, where lunatics are alſo kept, and ſuch as happen to kill a perſon inadvertently, the plea of chance-medley not being admitted in this country. Such ſtrict diſcipline is kept here, that it is obſerved, though there are at leaſt 100 profligate perſons in it, not an indecent word is heard out of their mouths, being almoſt continually obliged to accompany the taſk-maſter in ſinging pſalms and hymns.

The new town, on the ſouth ſide of the Weſer, in which ſtands the univerſity and arſenal, conſiſts chiefly of gardens, and little pleaſure houſes, belonging to the principal merchants, and other inhabitants, of the old city; has larger and much more regular ſtreets than the latter; and they are moſt of them planted with rows of limes and wild cheſnuts.

The ſtreets of the old town, on the north ſide of the river, in which are the cathedral and the ſenate houſe, center in the market-place, wherein ſtands an old gigantic image, one of thoſe erected in many of the German cities, by order of Charles the Great, by the name of Statua Rolandina; on which is an ancient inſcription, denoting it to be a teſtimonial of the liberty granted by Charles the Great to this city. On the oppoſite ſide of the market is a public-houſe, which, at the ſame time, ſerves as a ſort of common-hall for the ſeveral colleges, or aſſemblies of the burghers, and the council of trade. This old town is ſaid to have been walled 800 years ago. On the largeſt of its wooden bridges, there is an engine that raiſes water, and diſperſes it all over the city; and there is a fort at the head of it, which is well guarded.

Under the ſenate houſe is a ſpacious wine cellar, wherein are five huge veſſels, each of which holds much above 100 hogſheads, whereof four are always kept full of Rheniſh wine, and the fifth is left empty, with a ſmall door at the head of it, to gratify ſuch as have the curioſity to enter. There is one vault of choice old hock, the key of which is kept by the preſiding burgomaſter, and only a number of bottles left in the hands of the maſter of the cellar, to be ſold at about a dollar, or 4s. 6d. a bottle. The city coins a little piece of money of its own, called a groat, which is worth about a halfpenny: 163 of their yards make 100 Engliſh. The cuſtom, which afterwards became general in the other Hans Towns, of ſwearing new comers by bread and ſalt, and making them free, on paying a fine of good liquor to the company, is ſaid to have been inſtituted here.

Otterſburg, a little fortified town, 14 miles north-eaſt of Bremen, with a ſtrong caſtle, or paſs, on the borders of the biſhopric, was formerly the biſhop's ſeat. It was taken twice by the Imperialiſts, and once by the Swedes, in the German civil wars. It is a pretty large borough, on the river Wemme, from whence the road towards Bremen is very bad, ſandy, and full of the branches of the river, in the middle of which is a fort, with four baſtions, that commands a long dyke, or cauſeway, with ſeveral cuts in it, over which are bridges. On the other ſide of the town, 12 miles from it, ſtood the monaſtery of Cloſterzeven, charmingly ſituated, which is now a conſiderable borough, adorned with many fine gardens, and a handſome church. This is the place where, in 1757, the convention was concluded between the duke of Cumberland and the duke de Richlieu, through the mediation of count Lynel, the Daniſh governor.

Schamſbeck

Schamſbeck is a large village, which gives name to a diſtrict, and has a woollen manufactory; Stoel does the ſame; Bardel is a village, where the nobility hold a meeting twice a year; and Neuenwalde is a village, where there is a foundation for an abbeſs and 12 other ladies.

The bailiwick of Wildeſhauſen, on the Hemte, has but a very indifferent ſoil. In 1700 the crown of Sweden mortgaged this bailiwick to the electoral houſe of Brunſwic Lunenburg; and, in 1720, at the peace of Stockholm, made over all right and claim thereto, as well as to Bremen and Verden. The only place worth mentioning in this bailiwick is the town of Wildeſhauſen, from which the whole receives its name. It is ſituated on the Hemte, contains about 300 dwelling houſes, a few churches, and ſome other public buildings. About half the inhabitants are Roman Catholics, who are not allowed the uſe of bells, church muſic, or proceſſions: nor are they permitted to be baptized, married, or buried by their own prieſts, but muſt have thoſe ceremonies performed by a Lutheran miniſter. Here are ſtill to be ſeen the veſtiges of an ancient abbey, and the ruins of an old caſtle.

The principality of LUNENBURG-ZELL is bounded, on the north, by the duchy of Lawenburg, or Lauenburg, and the Elbe, on the ſouth by Calenburg, Hildeſheim, and part of Brunſwic; on the eaſt by another part of Brunſwic, and the duchy of Mecklenburg; and to the weſt by Bremen, Verden, and Hoya. In many parts the ſoil is ſandy, heathy, and marſhy. The banks of the Elbe, Aller, and Jetze, are, however, fertile, and abound in grain, roots, trees, and fruits of various kinds.

Here are likewiſe plenty of cattle, bees, veniſon, ſalt-ſprings, and lime-ſtone. The rivers Elbe, Aller, and Ilmenau, produce great quantities of fiſh; and being all navigable, are of great advantage to the country in a commercial point of view. The whole principality contains about 200 Lutheran churches, which are under the direction of two generals, and 15 ſubordinate ſuperintendants. The manufactures are linen, ribbons, hats, bleached wax, gold wires, ſilver ditto, cottons, ſtockings, ſtarch, refined ſugars, wooden wares, barges ready built, with boats and ſome ſmall ſhips.

On account of this principality the king of Great Britain has a ſeat and voice, both in the college of the princes of the empire, and the circle of Lower Saxony. The revenues ariſe from the demeſnes, tolls on the Elbe, contributions, duties on cattle, beer, wine, brandy, and other commodities; and the principal places are the following:

Lunenburg, the metropolis of the principality, is a large city, ſituated on the river Elmen, or Ilmenau, which is navigable from hence to the Elbe. It is 27 miles from Hamburg, and 68 from Hanover. It was formerly an Hans town, and an Imperial city. The name has been derived by ſome from Lina, the ancient name of the Ilmenau; and by others from Luna, the moon, an image of which was worſhipped here, by the inhabitants, in the times of Paganiſm. Here was formerly ſeveral convents, out of the revenues of one of which, the Benedictine, an academy for martial exerciſes was founded, where the youth of the principality are taught, gratis, dancing, fencing, riding, and the French language.

Out of the ſame revenues a Latin ſchool, conſiſting of four claſſes, was likewiſe founded, and well endowed. The ſuperintendency of theſe, and the eſtate appropriated to their ſupport, are inveſted in a landſchaft-director, and an auſreiter, who are both ſelected from the Lunenburg nobility. The firſt of theſe officers is the head of the ſtates of the principality, and the preſident of the provincial college. He aſſumes the title of excellency, and in public writings ſtiles himſelf, *By the grace of God, Landſchaft-Director, and Lord of the Manſion of St. Michael in Lunenburg.* The public edifices are three pariſh churches, three hoſpitals, a ſalt magazine, an anatomical theatre, the ducal palace, the town-houſe, the academy, the barracks for the garriſon, and the conventical church of St. Michael, in which the ancient dukes lie interred, and where the celebrated table, taken from the Saracens by the emperor Otho, is depoſited. It is eight feet long, and four broad, was plated over with chaſed gold, and had a rim richly embelliſhed with precious ſtones of immenſe value; but, in 1698, a gang of robbers broke into the church, and ſtripped this magnificent table of a large diamond, 200 emeralds and rubies, and moſt of the gold. Here are many rich ſalt-ſprings, a fifth of the product of which belongs to the king of Great Britain. The ſalt is the beſt in Germany. The other articles in which the commercial part of the inhabitants deal, are wool, honey, wax, lime-ſtone, flax, linen, beer, &c. and warehouſes are erected along the borders of the Ilmenau, for the reception of goods from all parts of Germany, to be forwarded to Hamburg and Lubec.

Ahlden, on the Old Leine, has a palace, in which Sophia Dorothea, conſort of his Britannic majeſty George I. reſided after their ſeparation till her death, in 1726. It is the ſeat of a bailiwick, and has a great trade in horſes and timber.

Ultzen, a compact town, at the conflux of the Wiper, and two other rivulets, which form the river Ilmenau, was formerly called Lawenwald, i. e. Lion Foreſt, and had its preſent name from the neighbouring monaſtery of Oldenſtadt, formerly called Old Ulſen. It is ſaid, that the firſt Engliſh Saxons came to Britain from this place; and that thoſe who returned, hung up a tin gilt ſhip in the market-place, as a memorial of their ſucceſs, which continued there till 1646, when moſt of the town was burnt down, and never wholly rebuilt: but the ſtreets are larger, and the houſes more ſplendid and regular, than before.

Eſſel, on the Aller, gives name to a diſtrict, wherein the noble family of Bothmar have three manors and a village, from which they take their name, with a church of their own, to which they appoint a miniſter.

Soltau, at the conflux of the Soltau and Bohme, gives name to a bailiwick, which abounds with wood, and contains manufactories of canvas, pluſh, lindſey-woolſey, woollen cloths, baize, ſtuffs, &c.

Hitzacker is a ſmall town in a little iſland in the Jetze. The caſtle was formerly the reſidence of ſome of the dukes. Here is a great annual fair; and the bailiwick to which the town gives name, contains the foreſt of Ghorde, which is about 16 miles in compaſs: it abounds with a kind of feathered game, deer, wild boars, &c. and on its eaſt ſide ſtands a royal hunting ſeat.

Zell is ſeated on a ſandy plain, near the conflux of the Aller and the Fuhſe, 24 miles north of Hanover, and 47 ſouth of Harburg. The town is ancient, having a charter, dated in 1203, wherein it is called Tielle. It conſiſts of three ſtreets, that run parallel, is well fortified, the ramparts being broad and high, and well mounted with cannon, but not regular. Here are held the chief courts of judicature for this duchy; and, in 1485, its duke (Henry) built a palace near that called the Hanover Gate, which is a ſquare building, with four platforms at the four corners, moated round. Several coaches may go in front on the terrace round the town, which is adorned with trees planted all along; and the adjacent fine gardens, orchards, and grottos, form a very agreeable landſcape. There is but one church in the town, and that without a ſteeple. The French refugees have their church in the ſuburbs, which are very large. Here are ſtill many French Catholics, as well as Proteſtants, and the former have a chapel. All the buildings are of timber, except the churches, the caſtle, and the houſe of correction, which are of brick. The elector has a regency here, which judges all cauſes without any appeal, but to the council of ſtate at Hanover. Betwixt this town and Harburg it is a ſandy road, with ſcarce any thing but heath. The

poſt-ſtages,

poſt-ſtages, which are of four miles, are very ill ſerved, and the inns the worſt in Germany. Though there is much heath betwixt this town and Hanover, yet the country is well cultivated; for the inhabitants not only make turf of the heath for fuel, but it alſo ſerves for paſturage and manure. There is a trade from hence to Bremen, by the river Aller.

In the neighbourhood of this town there is the caſtle of Ahlen, where the heireſs of Lunenburg-Zell, who was married to the late elector, and afterwards divorced, died, after 30 years reſidence. It was rather a voluntary retirement, than confinement; as ſhe had the beſt of uſage, and full liberty to go whither ſhe pleaſed. Here alſo the late queen of Denmark retired, after the ſevere treatment ſhe met with as before-mentioned.

During the war in the year 1757, a moſt barbarous and inhuman tranſaction reduced the inhabitants of Zell to great diſtreſs; for the duke of Richlieu ordered not only the ſuburbs of Zell to be burnt, but even the orphan-houſe, which contained a great number of children, to be ſet fire to, when the whole was reduced to aſhes, together with the poor innocent infants. An inſtance of cruelty ſcarcely to be parallelled in hiſtory!

Bardewic, on the Luke, four miles from Lunenburg, though now only a ſtraggling village, was formerly a ſtrong, populous city. It had nine churches, of which only the cathedral is left, wherein there is ſtill a college of eight reſidentiary canons, and a few vicars: but the biſhopric was transferred to Verden; and the diſtrict about the church transformed into kitchen gardens. Over the gate there are ſome barbarous Latin verſes, in an old Gothic character, which ſhew that the town was built 235 years before Rome, and deſtroyed by Henry the Lion, in 1189. They write, that he took this revenge on the city becauſe it refuſed to acknowledge him, after he was proſcribed by the emperor Frederick I.

Dannebeug ſtands in the moſt eaſtern part of this duchy, on the river Jetze, ſix miles from its influx into the Elbe, and 33 ſouth-eaſt of Lunenburg. It is the chief town of the rich and fruitful county of this name, which was given by its count, in 1462, to Otho, duke of Brunſwic-Wolfenbuttle, and yielded by the latter to the houſe of Lunenburg-Zell. The Germans write it Daunenburg, conſiſtent with the etymology of its name, which ſignifies a Mountain of Fir-trees. This county lies along the Elbe, having Mecklenburg on the north, the marquiſate of Brandenburg on the eaſt and ſouth, and the duchy of Lunenburg on the weſt.

Snackanburg, is a large trading town, at the conflux of the Elbe and the Weckt, or Beſſe.

Harburg, on the Seeve, 50 miles from Zell, is a trading town, with a good harbour. It is well fortified, populous, has a caſtle, garriſon, armoury, magazine, and barracks.

Lune is a village with a Lutheran convent, and a medicinal ſpring. Medingen, on the Ilmenau, has likewiſe a Lutheran convent, which was formerly a Ciſtertian monaſtery.

Winſen-an-der-Luke is a city on the Luke, over which it has two ſtone bridges. It contains a Lutheran abbey, has a voice and ſeat in the diets, is a great thorough-fare, and gives name to a bailiwick.

Ebſtorf is a town pleaſantly ſituated, and containing a convent, which was formerly a Benedictine nunnery; but conſiſts now of a Lutheran abbeſs, a prioreſs, and 14 other ladies. The religious reſtrictions here are not very great; but love uſually fills the convent, as it is celebrated for being the retreat of ladies who have been diſappointed in their affections; and it is ſuppoſed that ſome of the beautiful recluſes have, with the *Fair Penitent*, ſaid,

Oh! ſhut me in a cloiſter; there, well pleas'd,
Religious hardſhips I will learn to bear:
To faſt and freeze at midnight hours of pray'r,
Nor think it hard within a lonely cell,
With melancholy, ſpeechleſs ſaints to dwell;
But bleſs the day I to that refuge ran,
Free from the marriage-chain, and from that tyrant man!

Wienhauſen is a village on the Aller, with a Lutheran convent, conſiſting of an abbeſs, a prioreſs, and 23 other ladies.

Iſenhagen, on the Iſe, contains alſo a Lutheran convent; but the nuns here, contrary to the other inſtitutions, may be of plebeian extraction.

Walſtode, i. e. Walo's Croſs, on the river Bohme, 25 miles north-weſt of Zell, and 40 ſouth-weſt of Lunenburg, is not far from the confines of the duchy of Verden. It was at firſt only a monaſtery, built by one Walo, but is now a Lutheran convent, conſiſting of an abbey, a prioreſs, and nine other ladies. It is likewiſe the ſeat of a bailiwick and ſuperintendancy.

Some parts of the Principality of GRUBENHAGEN are very fertile, producing variety of grain, pulſe, marble, and minerals; the mines and quarries being chiefly in the mountain and foreſt called the Hartz. The rivers are the Leine, the Oder, and the Ocker. The ſtates are compoſed of the abbey of St. Alexander, and that of the Bleſſed Virgin, at Einbeck; the noble proprietaries of nine manors; and the cities of Einbeck and Oſterode, at which the diets are alternately held once a year. Lutheraniſm is the eſtabliſhed religion; and the manufactures and commodities of the country are flax, linen, ſand-ſtone, marble, copper, ſalt, ſulphur, zink, ſtarch, printed cottons, thread, timber, ſlate, iron, lead, vitriol, lapis calaminaris, powder blue, woollen goods, and fire-arms.

On account of this principality the electors have a vote in the college of princes, both in the diet of the empire, and in that of the circle of Lower Saxony. The ſovereign's revenues ariſe from the produce of the demeſnes, and of the mines; and appeals lie from the courts here to the chancery of Hanover. The principal places are the following:

Einbeck, the capital of the principality, is ſituated at the conflux of the Ilme and the Leine, about 42 miles from Hanover. It is well fortified by towers, bulwarks, ramparts, a double ditch, and outworks; and ſurrounded by a fine country, very fertile, particularly in corn. It was formerly a free Imperial town, and its magiſtrates ſtill poſſeſs ſome valuable privileges. It is large and populous, divided into three parts, called the Munſter, the Newſtadt, and the Markt; and has a tolerable trade, particularly in beer, woollen manufactures, and printed cottons. Formerly it was a biſhop's ſee, the cathedral and chapter of which ſtill remain. The latter conſiſts of a Lutheran ſenior, nine canons, one vicar, and four vicars in ordinary, who, together, ſend a deputy to the diet. The revenues of the ancient abbey of the Bleſſed Virgin are now enjoyed by a ſenior and nine canons, who have likewiſe a repreſentative at the diets. A large diſtrict belongs to, and is ſubject to, the juriſdiction of Einbeck, which was a town ſo early as the year 1256, and formerly coined gold, ſilver, and copper money.

Wilderman is a mine town, ſurrounded, on all ſides, by lofty, rugged mountains: Lautenthal and Schulenberg, are ſmall towns, containing ſmelting-houſes; and Cellerfeld is an open mine town, with a mint for coining money.

St. Andreaſburg is a mine town, with a manufactory of powder blue, and a ſilver ſmelting-houſe: and near it is a reſervoir, from whence, by a canal, water is conveyed to all the mine works. This town is ſo pleaſantly ſituated, that a perſon, with a philoſophical turn of mind, might retire hither, and, with propriety, exclaim,

Hail, ye ſoft ſeats! ye limpid ſprings and floods,
Ye flow'ry meads, ye vales and mazy woods!
Ye limpid floods, that ever murm'ring flow!
Ye verdant meads, where flow'rs eternal blow!

Ye ſhady vales, where zephyrs ever play!
Ye woods, where little warblers tune their lay!
Here grant me, heav'n, to end my peaceful days,
And ſteal myſelf from life by ſlow decays;
With age, unknown to pain or ſorrow, bleſt,
To the dark grave retiring as to reſt;
While gently with one ſigh this mortal frame,
Diſſolving, turns to aſhes, whence it came;
While my freed ſoul departs without a groan,
And joyful wings her flight to worlds unknown.

Altenau is a ſmall mine town, in a valley, ſurrounded by high rugged rocks. It contains a ſilver ſmelting-houſe, the aqua fortis from which runs into the river Ocker.

Clauſthall is a large open mine town, in which are a ſilver ſmelting houſe, and a mint. The place is defended by a garriſon, and contains two churches, an orphan-houſe, a grammar-ſchool, a mine-office, and a foreſt bailiwick-office. Though the reſt of the country is ſo pleaſant, the air of the Hartz Foreſt, almoſt the whole year round, is ſo cold, and rain, hail, ſnow, fogs, and ſtorms, are ſo frequent, that the cultivation of the land cannot be purſued with any degree of ſucceſs. The mountain, which part of the foreſt covers, conſiſts of oaks, aſh, alder, pines, beech, aſpin, birch, and firs. This amazing plenty of wood is of the utmoſt importance, as, without ſuch a profuſion of timber, the mining works could not be carried on. That part of the foreſt called Brunſwick-Lunenburg-Hartz, is divided into Upper and Lower, and again ſubdivided into mine and foreſt bailiwicks, part of which belong to the king of Great Britain, and part to the prince of Brunſwic.

Oſterode, a town ſituated not far from the Hartz, is divided into Old and New Town. It contains a large granary, three pariſh churches, and a grammar ſchool; has a manufactory of woollen cloths; and is defended by a caſtle, in which ſeveral dukes of Brunſwick and Lunenburg have formerly reſided.

On an eminence not far from the above town, formerly ſtood the caſtle of Grubenhagen, which, as well as the principality itſelf, took its name from the noble family of Gruben, every branch of which is now extinct.

Salzder Helden, on the Leine, contains ſome ſalt works, as does the ſmall neighbouring village of Salbeck, which is romantically ſituated, and ſurrounded by a very pleaſant country:

Where on the trees ſweet honeyſuckles blow,
And ruddy daizies paint the ground below;
Where the ſhrill linnet charms the ſolemn ſhade,
And zephyrs pant along the cooler glade;
Or ſhake the bull-ruſh by a river-ſide,
While the gay ſun-beams ſparkle on the tide.
Oh! for ſome grot, whoſe ruſtic ſides declare
Eaſe, and not ſplendor, was the builder's care;
Where roſes feed their unaffected charms,
And the curl'd vine extends her claſping arms;
Where happy ſilence lulls the quiet ſoul,
And makes it calm as ſummer waters roll.
Here man may learn to check each growing ill,
And bring to reaſon diſobedient will;
To watch his incoherent breaſt, and find
What fav'rite paſſions rule the giddy mind.

Herburg has a caſtle, linen manufactory, and iron works.

Scharzfels is defended by a caſtle ſituated on a high rock. It contains a ſmall garriſon, and is ſometimes uſed as a ſtate priſon. The caſtle give name to a bailiwick, which contains ſtone quarries, iron works, plenty of flax, chalk-pits, copper mines, and a linen manufactory.

In the neighbourhood are fine caverns, called the Scharzfel Caves, where the ebur foſſile and drop-ſtone are found.

Lautenbury, on the Oder, is a fief of the abbey of Quedlinburg; has mines of copper and iron in its neighbourhood, and is inhabited by miners.

Elbingerode is a ſmall town, which gives name to a bailiwick, that abounds in warm baths, pine, ſlate, marble, iron ore, jaſper, &c.

At the village of Lucaſhof is a mill for ſawing marble: at thoſe of Luderſhof, and New Hutte, are ſlatting-mills; and at Koningſhof ſtood anciently the palace of Konigſburg, where the emperors and princes of the Saxon race uſed anciently to reſide, when they came to this part to partake of the diverſion of ſtag-hunting. This diverſion, however, is on the decline in Germany, and a fondneſs for muſic prevails in almoſt all their courts; ſo that the German ſovereigns ſeem to have ſacrificed huntſmen to muſicians, and to have exchanged horns for violins: ſo capricious are the inclinations of man, and ſo fluctuating is that thing called taſte!

Thro' his young wood how pleas'd Sabinus ſtray'd
Or ſat delighted in the thick'ning ſhade;
With annual joys the red'ning ſhoots to greet,
Or ſee the ſtretching branches long to meet.
His ſon's fine taſte an op'ner viſta loves;
Foe to the dryads of his father's groves;
One boundleſs green, or flouriſh'd carpet views,
And all the faded family of yews.
The thriving plants ignoble broomſticks made,
Now ſweep thoſe alleys they were born to ſhade.
But not our paſſions only diſagree:
In taſte is found as great variety.
Sylvius is raviſh'd when he hears a hound;
His lady hates to death the odious ſound:
Yet both love muſic, tho' in different ways:
He in a kennel, ſhe at operas.
A floriſt ſhall, perhaps, not grudge ſome hours,
To view the colours in a bed of flowers;
Yet ſhew him Titian's workmanſhip divine,
He paſſes on, and only cries, 'tis fine.

The principality of CALENBURG is 35 miles in length, and 18 in breadth. A conſiderable part of it is mountainous and barren; but other diſtricts are rich and fertile, and abound in corn, pulſe, timber, cattle, ſalt, and medicinal ſprings, ſtones, minerals, &c. The rivulets abound with all kinds of fiſh. In the principality are three Proteſtant abbies, and ſix convents, of which three are inhabited by men, and ſix by women. Lutheraniſm is the eſtabliſhed religion, but Calviniſts and Roman Catholics are tolerated. The commodities and manufactures of the country are wool, cotton, tobacco, flax, ſilk, iron, copper, glaſs, galoons, ſpunges, taffels, gunpowder, linen, brais, leather, gold lace, ſilver ditto, embroideries, ſtone wares, carpets, &c.

In the year 1757 the French over-ran this principality, and did great damage, though they were ſoon diſpoſſeſſed of it. The proprietor of it is intitled to a vote in the college of princes at the diet of the empire, and that of the circle. To the ſupreme tribunal of Hanover it nominates two aſſeſſors, and two to the high court of appeal at Zell. The revenues ariſe from demeſnes, excile, a military tax, ſtamp-duty, card ditto, duty on corn, cattle, ſheep, magazines, &c. The principal places are the following:

Hanover, the metropolis, and ſeat of the elector, as it always was of the dukes, after the removal of their court hither from Calenburg, on the death of George the laſt duke of Brunſwick-Calenburg. It is pleaſantly ſituated in a ſandy ſoil, on the river Leine, which is navigable here for ſmall boats. It is 26 miles ſouth-weſt from Zell, 27 from Brunſwick, and 365 eaſt from London. It was anciently called Lawenroda, from a neighbouring caſtle, ſubject to the counts of that title; and had its preſent name in Henry the Lion's time, becauſe of a ferry here; Hanover, in the old Saxon dialect, ſignifying the ſame as Have-over in Engliſh. It is divided by the river into the New and Old Towns.

Moſt

Moſt of the houſes are of timber and clay, but there are many of brick and ſtone. The ſtreets are regular, broad, and well furniſhed with lamps. It is regularly fortified, and the ravelins before the gates are well mounted with cannon. Here was once a monaſtery, ſince metamorphoſed into a palace, at one end of the city, near the ramparts, though they ſcarce deſerve that name. It has a large ſtructure of free ſtone, with ſeveral ſquare courts, and a fine ſtair-caſe; but the whole is rather commodious than magnificent. This is, however, adorned with fine tapeſtry and paintings, and very richly furniſhed. Here is a cabinet of curioſities, with a noble collection of medals, ancient and modern; and a very fine chapel. When the court is here, there are frequent concerts, balls, and aſſemblies; and a French comedy uſed to be acted three times a week, at a theatre in the palace, where all people were admitted gratis, the expence being defrayed by the elector. Here is alſo an opera-houſe, viſited by all foreigners. The moſt remarkable of the churches are St. James's, in which there are two crucifixes, with fine pictures of the apoſtles, and many ſaints; though the Lutherans pay no adoration to them. That of the Holy Croſs is much finer and neater than the other, having a double row of galleries round it from the altar; and, upon the firſt, the hiſtory of the goſpel, in 53 parts, painted by the ableſt maſters. Beſides theſe, there are St. George's and St. Giles's churches. Here are four fairs a year, much frequented by foreigners. It was once a free Imperial city, and a Hans Town, when it had a flouriſhing commerce; but its chief trade now is in that ſweet, but muddy liquor, called Brewhan, which they ſend in great quantities to the neighbouring towns and villages. This liquor had its name from a famous brewer, one Conrade Brewhan, of this neighbourhood, who, having ſerved his time at Hamburg, came and ſet up here in 1526. The Roman Catholic church here was granted to thoſe of that communion by Erneſt, the firſt elector, as one of the conditions demanded by the emperor Leopold, who inveſted him, and alſo engaged him to admit of an apoſtolical vicar in his dominions, and to permit him to reſide at Hanover. There is a conſiderable number of Roman Catholics: but the nobility and gentry are almoſt all Lutherans. The princeſs Sophia cauſed a new church to be built here for the French refugees, to which our king William III. was alſo a benefactor. Beſides a houſe for orphans, there is one hoſpital within the town, and another without. This city has acquired new luſtre ſince the acceſſion of the illuſtrious houſe of Hanover to the electoral college in the diet of the empire; but more eſpecially ſince it advancement to the throne of Great Britain; and is of particular note for the famous treaty concluded here in 1725, to counterbalance that of Vienna.

In the environs are ſeveral rural ſeats, particularly one called the Fancy, or Whim: and another Montbrillant, or Mount Pleaſant, which were built by two ſiſters-in-law, Madame de Kilmanſec (late counteſs of Arlingten) and the counteſs of Platen. Theſe lead to the pleaſant palace of Herenhauſen (i. e. the houſe of the lord of the manor) a caſtle built on the river Leine, by order of the prince, who was the firſt elector, about the ſame diſtance north from Hanover as the palace of Kenſington is from that of St. James's. A ſtrait walk leads up to the houſe, which is adorned with charming gardens: a wilderneſs of evergreens; one of the largeſt and nobleſt orangeries in Europe; a perfect theatre cut out into green ſeats, with arbors and ſummer houſes on both ſides of it, for the actors to dreſs in, the whole ſet off with fine ſtatues, many of them gilt: and, above all, here are noble fountains, with very large baſons, beautiful caſcades, and water-works, that throw the water up much higher than the famous fountain at St Cloud in France, which was always looked upon as the moſt conſiderable of the kind, till this was ſet up, by the direction of a very capital Engliſh artificer, under the patronage of the elector in 1716.

Rehburg is the ſeat of a bailiwick, which yields grain, flax, hops, oak, beech, coals, &c. and has a medicinal ſpring; and Ricklingen is a parochial village, near which there is a ſtone monument, erected to the memory of duke Albert of Saxony, who, in 1385, in beſieging the caſtle, had his leg ſhattered in ſuch a manner as to occaſion his death.

Newſtadtam Rubenberge, on the Leine, over which there are two ſtone bridges, has likewiſe a ſluice in the ſame river, gives name to a bailiwick and ſuperintendency, and was formerly defended by a caſtle.

Calenburg is an ancient ducal palace, from which the principality took its name; and Barſinghauſen contains a Lutheran convent for ladies, and has a ſeat and voice in the diets.

Marienſee, Wennigſen, Marienwarder, and Wulfinghauſen, have each Lutheran convents for ladies, and ſend repreſentatives to the aſſemblies of the ſtates.

Marienrode contains a convent of Roman Catholic monks; Munder is a town on the Hamel, with ſalt-works; Lockum is a village, with a Lutheran abbey; and Pattenſen has ſtill the remains of its ancient moat, walls, ramparts, &c.

Wunſtorf is the ſeat of a ſuperintendency, and of a Lutheran abbey, to which belong an abbeſs and four conventualiſts, who muſt all be of noble birth, together with ſeveral canons, the ſenior of whom is ſuperintendant. The abbey has a ſeat and voice in the diets of the principality, and was founded in 870, by a biſhop of Minden.

Hamelen is a very ancient city, ſituated in a fine country on the river Hamel, from which it has its name. The Hamel diſembogues itſelf into the Weſer, on which an admirable ſluice was finiſhed in 1734, at a great expence. Over the Weſer there is likewiſe a bridge of nine wooden arches. The other public edifices are an abbey, two Lutheran churches, a Calviniſt ditto, an hoſpital, a town-houſe, a free-ſchool, a poor-houſe, and barracks.

There are woollen, ſilk, linen, and leather manufactories. The magiſtrates are allowed to coin money, and have very extenſive privileges, and civil and criminal juriſdiction, within their liberties, which contain many villages, foreſts, a ferry, &c. The abbot of Fulda, who was formerly ſovereign of the town, having ſold it to the biſhops of Minden, when the latter came to take poſſeſſion of it, the citizens oppoſed him, but were defeated, with great ſlaughter, near Sedemunde. This event is ſuppoſed to have given riſe to a ſtory, which, though ridiculous, and bordering on the marvellous, we preſent, as it may afford ſome entertainment to the reader.

"There came into the town of Hamelen a very ſingular character, who being by profeſſion a piper, and affecting a fantaſtical dreſs of various colours, was called the *Pied Piper*. This man, for a ſtipulated ſum, undertook to exterminate all the rats in the town, which had long been annoyed by thoſe vermin. To effect this the Piper went throughout the town with his inſtrument, producing the ſhrilleſt tones, which bringing forth all the rats, he led them to the river Weſer, and drowned them therein. Having accompliſhed his undertaking, he demanded his reward; but the inhabitants receding from their contract, and offering him much leſs than the ſum ſtipulated, he threatened them with revenge, and reſuming his pipe, went through the ſtreets as before, followed by a number of boys, out at one of the gates of the city. Coming to a hill, there opened in the ſide a wide hole, into which the Piper, and all the boys, except one, entered, and the hole cloſed up again. The parents deplored the loſs of their children, and men were ſent out in queſt of them, but no other intelligence than the boy's could be obtained. To perpetuate the memory of an event ſo extraordinary, it was, by a ſtatute, ordained that from thenceforth, no drum, pipe, or other inſtrument, be ſounded in the ſtreet leading to the gate through which they paſſed. It was alſo eſtabliſhed, that

that, from that time forward, in all public writings that ſhould be made in that town, after the date therein ſet down of the year of our Lord, the date of the year of the going forth of their children ſhould be added; which they have accordingly ever ſince continued. This great wonder happened on the 22d of July, 1376."

Bodenwerder is ſituated on the Weſer, over one branch of which there is a bridge, and over another a ferry. It has ſome trade, particularly in coarſe linens, and is ſubject to inundations.

Lauenau, a market-town, gives name to a bailiwick; and Reher contains a braſs foundery, and a powder-mill.

Sprunge, a ſmall town, with a great beer trade, gives name to a bailiwick, which contains ſome ſalt ſprings, woods, pit coal, manufactories of glaſs, linen, earthen-ware, &c.

Lauenſtein is the capital of a bailiwick, in which are ſalt ſprings, a coal-mine, a linen manufactory, and a glaſs-houſe. The town was formerly walled, and near it ſtood a caſtle, the remains of which are ſtill to be ſeen.

Hemmendorf, on the Saal, was the rendezvous of the ſtates before they agreed to meet at Hanover; Dorpe is famous for its manufactory of earthen-ware, and black furniture for ſtoves; Salz-Hemmendorf is a borough with three ſalt-ſprings, and twelve boiling-houſes; Dumgen has a manufactory of ſtone ware; Grohnde has a ferry and toll; and Polle, on the Weſer, is the ſeat of a bailiwick, in which thread ſtockings are knit, lime made, veſſels for the Weſer built, and from whence large quantities of timber are carried to Bremen.

Gottingen is ſituated on the New Leine, which is a canal drawn from the Old Leine, and about 50 miles from Hanover. It is ſtrong, well built, and well paved. The ancient gymnaſium was, in 1734, converted by his Britannic majeſty, George II. into an univerſity. Its library is the beſt in Germany. Here is alſo a fine obſervatory, an anatomical theatre, a phyſic garden, a ſchool for teaching midwifery, an academy of ſciences and Belles Lettres, and a German ſociety, which are all included under, and belong to, the univerſity. The Latin ſchool has eight maſters, and is under very good regulations. There are alſo an armoury, ſix Lutheran churches, one Calviniſt church, an alms-houſe with a church belonging to it, and an orphan-houſe. On a hill, in the territory belonging to the town, anciently ſtood an imperial berg and palatine town, called Grone, which was the principal reſidence of the Saxon emperors after Otho the Great. The town's eſtate and juriſdiction are very conſiderable, conſiſting of ſeveral villages, woods, meadows, and paſtures. Formerly it was one of the Hans, and had a mint for coining. In the campaigns of 1757 and 1758, it was, for ſome time, in the hands of the French.

Hedemunden, on the Werra, contains a linen manufactory; Sichelſtein, in Engliſh, Sickle-ſtone, formerly had a caſtle, oppoſite which was another fortreſs, called Senſenſtein, or Scythe-ſtone. Burſfeld was anciently one of the moſt celebrated convents of Benedictine monks in Germany; and had the permiſſion of holding a market, the power of coining, and the privilege of electing its own abbot.

Northeim contains ſome manufactories, a pariſh church, a free-ſchool, and anciently had a Benedictine convent for both ſexes, founded in 1051, by Otho, duke of Bavaria.

Hardegſen, on the Eſpolde, has a caſtle, and is the ſeat of a ſuperintendency and bailiwick; and Uſlar is divided into Old and New, the former of which is walled.

Munden is ſituated in a vale on the Fulda, which, a little below, joins the Werra, and then the united ſtreams take the name of the Weſer. Theſe rivers with the iſlands they form, and the neighbouring gardens, hills, woods, &c. afford a moſt enchanting proſpect. The public buildings are two Lutheran churches, one Calviniſt church, a bridge over the Werra, a free-ſchool, and barracks for a regiment of ſoldiers.

The gardens within and around the town are very numerous. The manufactures are of ſilk, flax, and tobacco. This being the commercial center for Heſſe, Thuringia, Nuremburg, Franckfort, Franconia, Bavaria, and all parts of Saxony, a number of factors reſide here; and none, who are not freemen of Munden, are allowed to trade beyond this town; but muſt conſign their goods to factors here; and whatever is brought in any veſſel, muſt, according to the ſtaple weight, be unladen here. On ſtated days a veſſel goes up the Fulda from hence to Capel, which none but freemen of Munden have a right to navigate.

The principality of WOLFENBUTTLE, which is part of the duchy of Brunſwic, is divided into two parts, by the dioceſe of Hildeſheim, and the principality of Halberſtadt. The northern part is rather level, and produces conſiderable quantities of grain, flax, hemp, pulſe, fruits, cattle, ſilk, &c. The ſouthern parts contain ſeveral mines and ſalt-works. The rivers are the Weſer, Leine, Ocker, Schimter, and Aller. The ſtates depute repreſentatives to the diets, which are held at Brunſwic four times a year. Lutheraniſm is the eſtabliſhed religion. The chief manufactures are flax, wool, ſilk, tobacco, glaſs, lead, iron, ſteel, porcelain, wax, blacking, &c. The high colleges for this principality are the privy council, convent office, chancery, treaſury, high court of juſtice, and conſiſtory.

Brunſwic, the metropolis of the county, is 61 miles weſt from Magdeburg. It had its name from its founder, Burno, duke of Saxony, who erected it in the year 861. It was once a Hans Town, and an Imperial free city. Though it is much decayed from its priſtine ſplendor, it is ſtill rich and populous, contains handſome houſes, is well paved, and ſtrongly fortified. It is about two miles in circumference, and divided into the Old and New Town. The principal trade is in leather, butter, hops and mum.

The chief buildings are the ducal palace, which is capacious, magnificent, ſplendidly furniſhed, and contains many fine paintings, an excellent library, and a cabinet of curioſities; an armoury, an academy for martial exerciſes, a college, a theatre, a cuſtom-houſe, a houſe of correction, a council-houſe in the Old and New Town, a mint, an orphan houſe, two gymnaſiums, a college of phyſic, an anatomy and ſurgery ſchool, a lazaretto, a caſtle, St. Leonard's hoſpital; a kind of college, called the Templehof, which formerly belonged to the knights templers; and the following churches; one for the Calviniſts, one for the Roman Catholics, and ten for the Lutherans; among which is the cathedral, dedicated to St. Blaſius, which contains the ducal burying place, the records of the electoral family, and two large monuments of duke Henry the Lion, and his ſecond conſort. The chapter of this cathedral conſiſts of a provoſt, a dean, a ſenſor, ten canons, and ſeveral inferior prebends and vicars: the dean is the firſt member of the ſtates. The Lutheran foundation of St. Eyriac conſiſts of a dean, who is one of the ſtates, a great committee, and five canons. The convent of Riddaghauſen is about two miles from Brunſwic. The ramparts of the city are planted with mulberry-trees; and the gardens belonging to the ducal palace are laid out in exquiſite taſte. Spinning was invented here in the year 1530, by one Jurgen, a ſtatuary and ſtone-cutter. This was the firſt capital place that embraced the reformation. The road from hence to Wolfenbuttle is paved, and lined on each ſide with trees. The French got poſſeſſion of this city during the war in Germany, in the year 1757, but evacuated it in 1758. The Lutheran convent of the Holy Croſs has a church of its own, and is ſituated without St. Peter's gate.

Lucklum is a village, where there is a commander of the Teutonic order; and Scheppenſtadt, on the Altenau, is the ſeat of a ſuperintendency.

Salzdalum is a village which gives name to a bailiwick, and takes its own from a conſiderable ſalt-work in

in the neighbourhood. The ducal palace here has a fine large gallery, which contains above a thouſand pictures, by the moſt eminent maſters. Here is likewiſe a ſmall gallery, embelliſhed with many beautiful paintings. In the china cabinet are above 8000 pieces of exquiſite beauty: and in another above 1000 enamels of Raphael de Urbino, admirably executed. The great gallery is 200 feet long, 50 broad, and 40 high; and the leſſer one 160 long, and 20 broad. In the latter, beſides the above cabinet, are ſix ſmall ones, for curioſities of art and nature. The garden, the chapel, &c. are extremely grand. Adjoining to the palace is a convent, which ſends repreſentatives to the diets; was founded by duke Anthony Ulrich and his ducheſs, dedicated to the Virgin Mary, and has a proveſt, a domino, and 15 ſiſters of noble families.

Wolfenbuttle, from whence the duchy is denominated, ſtands on the river Ocker, ſeven miles ſouth-eaſt of Brunſwic. It is the ancient ſeat of the dukes; and ſo well fortified, that it is deemed one of the ſtrongeſt towns in Germany. Here is an arſenal alſo, well furniſhed. Wollen is divided into two parts, one called Arx Guelphica, which is the ducal palace, ſo named from duke Ecbert, of the family of the Guelphs; the other Henrickſtadt, from the founder, duke Henry. The palace, which is the ſtrongeſt and moſt ſtately that belongs to the duke's family, has noble apartments, rich furniture, coſtly paintings, and a library reckoned one of the beſt in Europe, which was founded by the learned duke Auguſtus. The librarian's catalogue, publiſhed in 1604, numbered the volumes at 124,000; another in 1660, mentioned only 27,666 volumes, and 115,504 tracts, by 56,393 authors. There are 2000 MSS. particularly 438 folios of French embaſſies, tranſcribed from the French king's library; 41 volumes written by the founder himſelf, 12 of which are on muſic; beſides a very learned tract on the antiquity and myſtery of the game of cheſs.

The new church is an admirable piece of architecture; and many dukes and ducheſſes are interred under it. Here is alſo an academy, and a muſeum. The town is not half ſo large as Brunſwic, and the houſes are of timber; but there are ſeveral pretty ſeats near it, in the road to Brunſwic. There is another palace of the duke's at Saltzdahl (about a league from the town, and from Brunſwic) the road to which is lined with a very fine row of trees. The caſtle, built by duke Anthony Ulrich, is a very magnificent ſtructure. Beſides its immenſely rich furniture, there is a numerous, but choice collection of pictures, in a great gallery, which is one of the fineſt rooms in all Germany. There are two cabinets, one full of the fineſt porcelain; the other of vaſes and urns, painted by Raphael.

Helmſtadt, which has its name from the elms about it, ſtands 20 miles eaſt of Brunſwic and Wolfenbuttle, and near the frontier of Magdeburg. It was built by Charles the Great, anno 782, and is chiefly noted for the Academia Julia, or univerſity, founded and richly endowed, about 1576, by duke Julius, and his ſon Henry Julius, who alſo furniſhed it with a good library. It has very conſiderable privileges, particularly one granted by the emperor Maximilian II. that its rector is for ever to have the title and dignity of count palatine. The elector of Hanover, and the duke of Wolfenbuttle, are joint ſovereigns, and have the direction of it alternately. No univerſity in Germany has made a better figure, or had more learned Lutheran profeſſors, than this. The three faculties in which it confers degrees, are divinity, law, and phyſic. Among the manuſcripts in its library, there is an ancient Hebrew pentateuch, in two volumes, for which ſome Jewiſh Rabbies offered a great ſum. The faculty of divines here was charged with giving their opinion in the caſe of the marriage of the princeſs of Brunſwic-Wolfenbuttle, with the emperor Charles VI. that a Proteſtant princeſs might, with a ſafe conſcience, embrace the Romiſh religion; but they refuted it in 1708, by a public declaration, as a Popiſh forgery. The town is encompaſſed with walls, ditches, and ramparts, and has three churches, and a fine ſuburb, called Oſtendorff.

Gandersheim is an abbey on the borders of the biſhopric of Hildeſheim, 18 miles ſouth-weſt of Goſlar, which was founded by a duke of Saxony, in the ninth century, for ladies of noble families; and its firſt abbeſſes were ſucceſſively the founder's three daughters. As conſiderable as it was formerly, it is now greatly reduced, and depends on the duke of Brunſwic-Wolfenbuttle, who maintains an abbeſs, four canoneſſes, and eight canons. Though this abbey is in Lower Saxony, the abbeſs takes her ſeat among the prelates of the Rhine. It embraced the reformation in the 16th century, ſo that the abbeſs and nuns are Lutherans. There is a caſtle in its bailiwick, which is watered by the river Ganda, that runs into the Leine. The bailiwick is about two miles in compaſs, and contains about 20 villages.

Scheningen is a ſmall town, with a ſuperintendency and a Latin ſchool; and near it is a ſalt-work and a convent.

Konigſlutter is a town ſtanding on the rivulet of Lutter, celebrated for a peculiar kind of beer, called Duckſtein. Here was anciently a Benedictine monaſtery, which at preſent conſiſts of a Lutheran abbot, a prior, and four conventuals. In its church lie buried the emperor Lotharius, his empreſs Richenza, and duke Henry the Magnanimous. It takes precedence of all the other convents in the principality, and ſends a repreſentative to the diet and the grand committee.

Supplengenbury is a commandery of the order of St. John; Calvorde, on the Ohre, has an old caſtle; Vorſteld, a market-town, on the Aller, is the ſeat of a bailiwick and ſuperintendency; Heſſen has a ducal palace; Marienburg contains a Lutheran nunnery; and Marienthal has a Lutheran monaſtery, and a free-ſchool.

Seeſen, the ſeat of a ſuperintendency and bailiwick, receives its name from an adjacent lake; Gittel is a ſmall town with an iron foundery; and Julius Halle is a ſalt-work in the bailiwick of Hartzburg.

Between the Weſer and the Leine are

Holzmunden, which has a toll, and ſome iron and ſteel-works; Amelunxborn, which contains a Lutheran convent; and Turſtenberg, which has a manufactory of porcelain, and is defended by a ſtrong old caſtle on a rock.

The Duchy of MECKLENBURG is bounded by Pomerania on the eaſt; by the biſhopric of Lubec, and the territories of Brunſwic and Lunenburg, on the weſt; by the Baltic on the north; and by the electorate of Brandenburg on the ſouth. It is ſituated between 53 deg. 10 min. and 54 deg. 40 min. north lat. and between 31 and 34 deg. 35 min. weſt lon. from the iſland of Ferro, being 135 miles in length, and about 90 at its greateſt breadth. It is well watered by ſeveral fine rivers and lakes, and well ſupplied with fiſh. It is likewiſe extremely fertile, and yields plenty of corn, hemp, timber, paſture, ſheep, butter, cheeſe, flax, fruit, game, cattle, wool, &c.

The peaſants here are in a ſtate of villainage; but the nobility enjoy conſiderable privileges. The ſtates are compoſed of the nobility, with the diets, that are ſummoned annually, which are held alternately at Sternburg and Malehin. The inhabitants of this country are moſtly Lutherans, under the direction of their ſuperintendants. There are alſo ſome Calviniſts and Roman Catholics. The whole duchy is divided into three circles, which are thoſe of Mecklenburg, Wenden, and Stargard. The principal places in which are as follow:

In the circle of Mecklenburg are Schwerin, the capital of the duchy, a compact town, on a great lake of that name. It was the ſee of a biſhop, tranſlated hither from Mecklenburg in 1062, and ſuffragan to the archbiſhop of Bremen; but converted into a ſecular principality by the treaty of Oſnaburg, and granted

to Adolphus Frederick, duke of Mecklenburg, as an equivalent for Wiſmar, which was to remain in the poſſeſſion of the Swedes. Henry the Lion, duke of Saxony, who fortified the town, built and endowed a cathedral here, and drove the Pagan Mecklenburghers, by thouſands, into a part of the lake of Schwerin, where the then biſhop baptized them; from whence that part of the lake is ſtill called the Font. The duke of Mecklenburg has his reſidence here at a caſtle, in which were impriſoned the burgomaſters of Roſtock, in 1716; but, after ſix months confinement, they were ſet at liberty, on renouncing their immunities and privileges.

Parchin is ſituated on the Elbe, which divides it into the Old and New Towns. It had once a caſtle and a mint, and has ſtill two churches.

Domitz, 43 miles eaſt of Lunenburg, ſtands in an iſland made by the conflux of the Elbe and Elda, with a caſtle on the former, where the duke of Mecklenburg Schwerin obliges ſhips to pay toll. This fort, which is ſaid to be the ſtrongeſt, if not the only one, in the duchy, is acceſſible but by a timber bridge. In 1328 the elector Lewis of Brandenburg, alienated this town to the count of Schwerin, with the cuſtoms, and all the country on both ſides the Elbe, for 7500 marks of Brandenburg coin. Great part of the country, however, returned back to the Brandenburg family by marriage; but the caſtle remained in the hands of the dukes of Mecklenburg, who are ſtill poſſeſſed of it, together with the cuſtoms, which amount to a conſiderable ſum. In 1627 the Imperial general, count Tilly, took this town; but, in 1631, it was retaken by the Swedes. In 1637 the Imperialiſts and Saxons re-took it. The Swediſh general, Bannier, attempted to recover it in 1639, and blocked it up part of the following year, but did not maſter it till 1643. Thoſe priſoners who are intended for a long confinement, are generally ſent hither.

Gadebuſh is remarkable for a great victory obtained near it, in 1712, by the Swedes over the Danes.

Mecklenburg, which gives name to the duchy, and title to the dukes, though formerly a large town, is now but an indifferent village. It formerly had three convents, and was the ſee of a biſhop, but gradually declined as Wiſmar roſe.

Eldena, on the Elda, has a hill containing allum, a ſalt work, and gives name to a bailiwick.

Dobberan, which was anciently a Ciſtertian monaſtery, is now only a hunting ſeat. In the church many great perſonages have been formerly interred.

In the circle of WARDEN are Guſtrow, a well fortified town, 17 miles ſouth of Roſtock, and 37 from Schwerin. It has a caſtle, which was the reſidence of the dukes of Guſtrow; after the extinction of which branch, the emperor adjudged this city, and its dependencies, in 1691, to the late duke of Mecklenburg-Schwerin, who reinforced the garriſon; but the troops of Sweden and Lower Saxony refuſed to quit the place. The duke, however, continued there till April, when 3000 of the troops of the directors of the circle attacked and obliged him to ſurrender, and compelled the duke and the Imperial miniſter to quit the place, into which they put a garriſon, and deſired the emperor to name commiſſioners to take the adminiſtration upon them till the ſucceſſion was ſettled, which was in 1701. Its caſtle, a grand edifice, with four fronts, ſaid to be the fineſt in all the country, is adorned with a moſt elegant garden.

Roſtock, a free Imperial city, and one of the Hans-Towns, ſtands on the river Warna, which falls eight miles below it into the Baltic Sea. It is an ancient city, walled in 1160, by Burevinus, king of the Heruli, and, as appears by its charter, dated in 1218, modelled by the laws of Lubec. This town being, with the duchy, ſeized by the Imperialiſts in 1629, was retaken by the Swedes in 1631, who, after the treaty of Munſter, built a fort here, and, by their garriſon, demanded a toll of all ſhips, which very much leſſened the trade of the town. Moſt of the town was burnt in 1677, but it was ſince rebuilt, with more magnificence. In 1712 it was ſeized by the Swedes, on pretence of its having furniſhed their enemies with proviſions; and, in 1715, the duke of Mecklenburg, not being powerful enough to defend it againſt the Danes, agreed that they ſhould have a garriſon and magazine here, but no concern with the civil government.

The univerſity, one of the beſt and largeſt in Germany, was founded in 1419. The city, being at half the charges with the duke, chuſes nine of the eighteen profeſſors; and out of them their Rector Magnificus, who appoints their meetings, and ſuperintends their treaſury. For theſe two laſt centuries this has been one of the moſt flouriſhing univerſities in Germany. The biſhop of Schwerin was, by charter, made perpetual chancellor, who deputed one of the eldeſt profeſſors vice-chancellor. The city is divided into the Old, New, and Middle Towns, conſiſting of 14 wide long ſtreets, beſides ſmaller, and many thouſand ſtately houſes. It boaſts of ſeven remarkable things, each ſeven in number: ſeven doors in St. Mary's church, ſeven large ſtreets centering in the great market-place, ſeven gates, ſeven bridges over the Warna, ſeven towers on the town-hall, ſeven great bells belonging to the town-clocks, which chime at certain hours, and ſeven vaſt lime trees in their common garden. The chief commodity is beer, the ſame as formerly called Lubec beer, which they export in great quantities; for ſome years ago they had 250 privileged brewers, who brewed, it is ſaid, as many thouſand tons a year, beſides what particular perſons brewed for their own uſe; ſo that the duke of Mecklenburg's revenue, from the exciſe on beer, muſt be greater than from all other articles together. The river Warna is navigable to the very walls; but large ſhips come no farther than Warnemunder, a little town, ſeven miles lower, where the Swedes built their fort. The city of Roſtock is governed by 24 aldermen, choſen from the nobility, univerſity, and merchants. Four are burgomaſters, two chamberlains, and two ſtewards, or bailiffs, for the river, to cleanſe and take care of the haven at Warnemunder. There are two judges to determine all cauſes civil or criminal. The 24 aldermen are called the upper houſe, determine all cauſes finally, coin money, and chuſe officers; but, on matters extraordinary, a lower-houſe, of 100 common-councilmen, choſen out of the different trades, is ſummoned to give their opinion.

Sulte is famous for its ſalt ſprings and boiling-houſes; Ribnitz is ſituated on a lake, and has a nunnery for ladies, of the order of St. Clare; Schwan, on the Warna, has ſeveral capital brick-works; and Dargem contains a ducal palace.

The Circle of STARGARD contains New Brandenburg, the capital, ſituated on a lake. It ſends a deputy to the leſſer committee of the ſtates, has a grammar-ſchool, two curches, a ſuperintendant, and is noted for its hop trade. The neighbourhood is ſingularly pleaſant; and the inhabitants are all remarkably healthy, that a ſtranger might be induced to think they had unanimouſly purſued, with great ſtrictneſs, the advice given in the following expreſſive lines:

Toil and be ſtrong; by toil the flaccid nerves
Grow firm, and gain a more compacted tone.
The greener juices are by toil ſubdu'd,
Mellow'd, and ſubtiliz'd; the vapid cold
Expell'd, and all the rancour of the blood.
Come, my companions, ye who feel the charms
Of nature and the year, come, let us ſtray
Where chance or fancy leads our roving walk;
Come, while the ſoft voluptuous breezes fan
The fleecy heavens, enwrap the limbs in balm,
And ſhed a charming languor o'er the ſoul.
Nor when bright winter ſows with prickly froſt
The vigorous æther, in unmanly warmth
Indulge at home, nor e'en when Eurus blaſts
This way and that, convolve the lab'ring woods.

My

My liberal walks, ſave when the ſkies in rain
Or fogs relent, no ſeaſon ſhould confine,
Or to the cloiſter'd gallery, or arcade.
Go climb the mountain; from the ætherial ſource
Imbibe the recent gale: the chearful morn
Beams o'er the hills; go mount th' exulting ſteed:
Already, ſee, the deep-mouth'd beagles catch
The tainted mazes; and, on eager ſport
Intent, with emulous impatience try
Each doubtful trace. Or if a nobler prey
Delight you more, go chaſe the deſp'rate deer,
And thro' its deepeſt ſolitudes awake
The vocal foreſt with the jovial horn.

Weſenburg is the principal place in a fertile territory, called Pomel, the inhabitants of which are ſome of the moſt humane and benevolent of human beings, and practice charity without oſtentation.

Charity, decent, modeſt, eaſy, kind,
Softens the high, and rears the abject mind;
Knows with juſt reins and gentle hand to guide,
Betwixt vile ſhame and arbitrary pride.
Nor ſoon provok'd, ſhe eaſily forgives;
And much ſhe ſuffers, as ſhe much believes;
Soft peace ſhe brings, wherever ſhe arrives;
She builds our quiet, as ſhe forms our lives;
Lays the rough paths of peeviſh nature even,
And opens in each heart a little heaven.
Each other gift which God on man beſtows,
His proper bound, and due reſtriction knows;
To one fixt purpoſe dedicates its power,
And, finiſhing its acts, exiſts no more.
Thus, in obedience to what heaven decrees,
Knowledge ſhall fail, and prophecy ſhall ceaſe;
But laſting charity's more ample ſway,
Nor bound by time, nor ſubject to decay,
An happy triumph ſhall for ever live,
And endleſs good diffuſe, and endleſs praiſe receive.

Strelitz gives name to a branch of the ducal family, and is ſituated among marſhes. It conſiſts of Old and New, which ſtand at a ſmall diſtance from each other. The prince's palace, which is at the latter, is adorned with pleaſant gardens, and has a very elegant appearance.

Nemaro was anciently a commandery of the order of St. John, but is now a bailiwick; and Miro contains a ducal ſeat.

Wiſmar ſtands among fens on a bay of the Baltic, between Roſtock and Lubec, 25 miles weſt of the former, and eaſt of the latter, and 55 weſt of Stralſund. It is ſuppoſed to have been built in the 13th century, out of the ruins of Mecklenburg; for being of timber, it was burnt in 1262, and rebuilt handſomely of ſtone; and its government modelled in 1626, upon the plan of Lubec; ſo that it ſoon became one of the chief Hans-Towns, ſtrongly fortified, and the harbour for their men of war. It was taken by the Imperialiſts during the civil war in 1629; but retaken by the duke of Mecklenburg, and the Swedes, in 1632, and by the treaty of Munſter given to the latter. It has been ſeveral times taken by the Danes, but again reſtored to the Swedes. Its magazines were blown up by lightning in 1690, moſt of the new city deſtroyed, with one of the new gates; the arſenal, churches, and houſes damaged; and many people killed and wounded. It was, in 1711, beſieged by the Danes; and, in 1716, ſurrendered to the allies, Danes, Brandenburgers, Hanoverians, Saxons, and Ruſſians, who found in it 300 pieces of cannon, a vaſt quantity of bombs, grenadoes, and ammunition. But it was, by treaty in 1720, reſtored to the Swedes, on condition that the walls and fortifications ſhould be demoliſhed; and in ſuch ſtate it now remains.

It is here proper to obſerve, that the houſe of Mecklenburg is divided into two branches, Schwerin and Strelitz. The latter commenced with duke Adolphus Frederick II. younger brother of the duke of Schwerin, and grandfather of the preſent duke of Strelitz, Frederick IV. who was born May the 5th, 1738, and ſucceeded to the government Dec. 11, 1752. He was made a knight of the garter in 1764; and has three brothers and two ſiſters; the younger of the latter being our gracious ſovereign Sophia Charlotte, who was born May 19, 1744; and married the 8th of September, 1761, to his preſent majeſty, George III. king of Great Britain, &c. As her majeſty's ſhining virtues have endeared her to the Britiſh nation, we think it neceſſary here to give a ſmall ſpecimen of her literary accompliſhments, for which ſhe is as remarkable as for her other amiable qualities. The following elegant epiſtle was written by her to the late king of Pruſſia, during the war in Germany, and has been equally admired for the humanity of the ſentiments, and elegance of the diction.

"May it pleaſe your MAJESTY.

"I AM at a loſs, whether I ſhould congratulate, or condole with you, on your late victory; ſince the ſame ſucceſs, which hath covered you with laurels, has overſpread the country of Mecklenburg with deſolation. I know, Sire, that it ſeems unbecoming my ſex, in this age of vicious refinement, to feel for one's country, to lament the horrors of war, or wiſh for the return of peace. I know you may think it more properly my province to ſtudy the arts of pleaſing, or to inſpect ſubjects of a more domeſtic nature. But however unbecoming it may be in me, I cannot reſiſt the deſire of interceding for this unhappy people.

"It was but a few years ago, that this territory wore the moſt pleaſing appearance; the country was cultivated, the peaſant looked chearful, and the towns abounded with riches and feſtivity. What an alteration, at preſent, from ſo charming a ſcene! I am not expert at deſcription, nor can my fancy add any horrors to the picture; but ſurely even conquerors themſelves would weep at the hideous proſpects now before me!

"The whole country (my dear country!) lies one frightful waſte, preſenting only objects to excite terror, pity, and deſpair. The buſineſs of the huſbandman and the ſhepherd are quite diſcontinued. The huſbandman and the ſhepherd are become ſoldiers themſelves, and help to ravage the ſoil they formerly cultivated. The towns are inhabited only by old men, women, and children; perhaps here and there a warrior, by wounds or loſs of limbs rendered unfit for ſervice, left at his door: his little children hang around, aſk an hiſtory of every wound, and grow themſelves ſoldiers before they find ſtrength for the field. But this were nothing, did we not feel the alternate inſolence of either army, as it happens to advance or retreat in purſuing the operations of the campaigns. It is impoſſible to expreſs the confuſion which even thoſe who call themſelves our friends create. Even thoſe from whom we might expect redreſs, oppreſs us with new calamities. From your juſtice, therefore, it is that we expect relief. To you even women and children may complain, whoſe humanity ſtoops to the meaneſt petition, and whoſe power is capable of repreſſing the greateſt injuſtice."

As the above epiſtle has been elegantly paraphraſed, we ſubjoin ſome of the principal lines of the poetical verſion:

WHILE conqueſt ſeats you on the throne of fame,
And martial deeds immortalize your name;
On burniſh'd arms, which glory brightly beams,
And deeds victorious fill the ſoldier's dreams;
Trembling I view, from whence the glory ſprings,
Of king-like heroes or of hero-kings:
Shock'd I behold the ſource whence dart thoſe rays,
Which ſhine on victors, and round conq'rors blaze.

Hence

Hence I'm in doubt, while prompted to expreſs
My weak ideas on your late ſucceſs,
Whether congratulations to beſtow,
Or melt to tears, and ſwell the ſtream of woe:
For all thoſe laurels which your brows entwine,
Crown your ſucceſs, and bid your conqueſts ſhine,
Meant as immortal trophies to adorn,
Were from my country's bleeding bowels torn;
While, in what's truly brave, and greatly bold,
You outſtrip heroes dignify'd of old,
My native Mecklenburg, a prey to arms,
Is deſolated of her fertile charms:
No more her plains their plenteous verdure yield,
No longer Ceres decks the happy field;
Nothing is ſeen, or heard, where'er ye go,
But ſcenes of horror, and the ſigns of woe.
I know, great Sire, a patriotic theme,
In my weak ſex may unbecoming ſeem:
For, in an age ſo viciouſly refin'd,
By folly led, and to caprice reſign'd,
Perhaps you deem the very name of arms,
The thoughts of rapine, and of wars alarms;
Of ſlaughter, by contending armies made,
Or burniſh'd ſwords for mortal ends diſplay'd;
Of mourning widows, and of bleeding ſwains;
Of burning towns, and deſolated plains:
Perhaps you deem ſuch thoughts unfit for thoſe,
Who ſhou'd their minds to ſofter themes compoſe;
Who ought to ſtudy only how to pleaſe,
And court the proſpect of domeſtic eaſe;
T' inſpect with care the finer art to charm,
And point the light'ning, when their eyes they arm;
To practiſe ſmiles, by art to look ſerene;
Catch the free air, and dignity of mien;
To loſe themſelves in all that's idly vain,
The approbation of the world to gain.
If theſe, my Liege, are arts for females fit,
Who ſhou'd no other ſentiments admit,
I muſt for once tranſgreſs, and, unconfin'd,
Obey the dictates of a feeling mind:
I muſt, by ſoft humanity inſpir'd,
Expreſs the thoughts from ſhocking ſcenes acquir'd.
With truth, great Sire, permit me to unfold
What I've beheld——ah!—what I yet behold;
And while the natives of my country bleed,
For the unhappy let me intercede.
A few years ſince, in Mecklenburg's domain,
Fair plenty ſmil'd on ev'ry fertile plain;
The placid years ſerenely fled away,
The fields were fruitful, and the groves were gay:
Now my dear country, (here the tear will flow,)
Now my dear country is a waſte of woe:
Depopulation makes a frightful void;
The peaſant flies, or ſtaying, is deſtroy'd.
Turn to what part I will my aching eyes,
And all the horrors of the war ariſe;
The devaſtations of the martial train,
With ſtreaming gore empurples ev'ry plain;
With native blood the ſilent rivers flow,
And on their boſoms ſtreaming purple ſhow;
While into camps the fertile fields are made,
And gloomy woods can ſcarce from danger ſhade;
Woods where ſequeſter'd families abide,
And die each moment while from death they hide;
Who watch thro' fear, or thro' reflection weep,
And from exhauſted ſpirits borrow ſleep;
Whoſe ſweeteſt reſt is but a troubled doze;
Who thank fatigue for ev'ry ſmall repoſe.
A famiſh'd babe, perhaps, lifts up its eyes,
And for aſſiſtance to the mother cries;
The fainting mother, ready to expire,
Replies with tears, and ſupplicates the ſire:
The ſire, unable to relieve their woe,
Can only anſwer with a briny flow;
And while his ſilent ſorrows grief expreſs,
Increaſe his own, by ſharing their diſtreſs.
Thus wing'd by fear, no huſbandman remains,
By cultivation to reſtore the plains;
No gentle ſhepherd tends his fleecy care;
Both join the war, and in the horrors ſhare;
And ſoldiers grown, a ſtrange reverſe of fate,
Deſtroy thoſe fields they us'd to cultivate.
With anguiſh'd age, the women ſit and wail,
As fears for huſbands or for ſons prevail.
Perhaps a warrior here and there is found,
Debarr'd the field by many a rankling wound;
Or, by the loſs of limbs, not want of will,
Deny'd the uſe of ſanguinary ſkill.
Round him the curious prattling children ſwarm,
Hang on his tongue, and, as he ſpeaks, grow warm;
Demand the hiſt'ry of each aching wound;
Devour each word, and catch the martial ſound;
And while the ſoldier eagerly recites
The rage of battle, and the blood of fights;
The ſteeds loud neighing, and the clank of arms;
The rumbling drum, that beats to war's alarms;
The clang'ring trumpet, and the cannon's roar;
The dying groans, and fields of ſtreaming gore;
The little auditors erect their creſts,
While a new ardour fires their youthful breaſts.
To you, great Sire, we therefore make appeal,
Whoſe juſtice only can our ſuff'rings heal:
From you alone, great Sire, we hope relief;
'Tis your compaſſion muſt aſſuage our grief:
To you e'en helpleſs females may complain,
Nor ſhed their tears, nor plead their cauſe in vain;
And trembling babes, with tender looks, implore
The royal hand to open mercy's door.
To you, whoſe kind humanity ſtoops down,
To ſhield the peaſant underneath the crown;
To guard the meaneſt, who for juſtice preſs,
And give the humbleſt ſupplicant redreſs;
To you affliction ſpeeds with tearful eye,
Whoſe power relieves, and bids injuſtice fly.

HAMBURG, an imperial city, the greateſt emporium of Germany, and the ſecond of the Hans Towns, ſtands on the north ſide of the Elbe, 27 miles north-weſt of Lunenburg, and 416 north-weſt of Vienna; eaſt long. 10 deg. 11 min. lat. 53 deg. 41 min. It owes its origin to Charlemagne, who, to ſtop the progreſs of the northern Sclavonians, built two forts on the Elbe, one of them at this place, and erected a church, the only one in Hamburg, for above 350 years. It was firſt declared a free and independent city in 1220. The emperor Maximilian, in the diet of Augſburg, in 1510, declared it free and imperial. Since that time it has been inveſted with ſovereign power within its own juriſdiction. In 1641 it was ſummoned to the diet of the empire; though, as both Denmark and Holſtein proteſted againſt it, the Hamburghers have not yet enjoyed the right of ſitting and voting there. Great privileges have, however, been granted them by ſeveral emperors; and, for their keeping a light-houſe at Helgoland, four German miles within the ſea, they are excuſed from paying toll at Stade, to our king, as elector of Hanover; yet the kings of Denmark have ſince compelled them ſeveral times to pay tolls at Gluckſtadt.

The continual jealouſies between Sweden and Denmark uſed to be the chief ſecurity of the Hamburghers; but, in 1712, on occaſion of the northern war, the Danes, Muſcovites, and Saxons, having their armies in the neighbourhood, made their ſeparate demands, with threats in caſe of refuſal; and they were obliged to compound with them for very large ſums of money. Denmark has extorted money from it ſix times ſince 1645. After this the czar of Muſcovy got large ſums on ſome other pretenſions. In 1713 the city was viſited by a plague.

It is ſeated with all poſſible advantage for trade, foreign and domeſtic, having ſuch a port and river as nothing in Europe excels, except the Thames. Beſides the Elbe, which enters the German Ocean here, the inhabitants have a channel opened to the Trave, for the ſake of a communication with Lubec and the Baltic, without

without being at the trouble and hazard of going about by the Eaſt Sea, round the coaſt of Jutland and the Scaw; and without the obſtructions of the toll, and other difficulties of the Sound; ſo that veſſels in the Trave are within 40 miles of the Baltic, whereas it is 400 miles and more round Jutland.

The trade of Hamburg exceeds that of any city which has no kingdom or republic annexed to it; and the exports and imports of it ſingly, exceed thoſe of many great kingdoms even in Germany. The Elbe, and many great navigable rivers that fall into it, after a courſe through ſome of the largeſt, richeſt, and moſt trading parts of Germany, furniſh it with all the products and manufactures of Auſtria, Bohemia, and Upper and Lower Saxony. By the Havel and Spree it has trade with the Brandenburg electorate; and, by a canal from the Spree to the Oder, its commerce extends into Sileſia, Moravia, Poland, and almoſt to Hungary: ſo that it has more manufactures for exportation than moſt cities in the world. The chief exports (chiefly to Great Britain) are of various linens of ſeveral countries; particularly Sileſia diapers, and the lawns of Miſnia and Luſatia; Germany linen from Oſnaburg, Lunenburg, &c. Hamburg dowlas, and other ſtrong linens, from Lower Saxony; coarſe linen, barras, crocus, hinderlands, and many other ſorts from Lower Germany; linen-yarn from the ſame countries; tin-plates, braſs, iron and ſteel wire, chiefly from Upper Saxony; clap-boards, pipe and hogſhead ſtaves, wainſcot boards, oak plank and timber, kid-ſkins, from Brandenburg; corn from many provinces, chiefly Brandenburg and Saxony. Of the number of articles which they import from abroad, the chief are the woollen manufacture of England. The value of ſuch from Yorkſhire only is ſaid to be above 100,000l. The article of Engliſh Stockings comes to above 20,000l. per annum. The whole of the Engliſh manufactures vended here, amount to ſeveral hundred thouſand pounds annually. The Engliſh merchants, having great privileges, make an extraordinary figure here. They appear as a body, hold a court, with particular juriſdiction and powers among themſelves; and as they are called in London the Hamburg Company, ſo are they here called the Engliſh Hans or Society. They have a church and miniſter of their own. The Engliſh are numerous, this place being really ſtill the ſtaple of the Engliſh trade. They have the ſame privilege to import herrings allowed the Dutch. The Hamburgers drive great trade to Ruſſia and Livonia; and for goods ſent to the north of the empire and to Poland, they have great returns, not only in linen-yarn and fine flax, but in honey, wax, annifeed, linſeed, drugs, &c. all by the Oder into the Spree, and ſo into the Elbe, in the marquiſate of Brandenburg; therefore the Danes cannot interrupt this trade, nor obtain any part of it. About 200 Engliſh ſhips come into this harbour in a year, though moſtly from Spain, Portugal, and Italy; from and to which the Hamburg merchants pay them double the freight they do for their own ſhips; becauſe the Engliſh being free from the Turks by their Mediterranean paſſes, they ſave more than that in inſurance. Indeed they, in 1751, aimed at taking much of this trade into their own hands, on their own bottoms, &c. but happily the king of Spain ſo deeply reſented their treaty with the piratical ſtates of Barbary, and furniſhing them eſpecially with warlike ſtores, &c. that he not only inhibited commerce with Hamburg, but laid an embargo on their goods in Spain. The difference, however, was reconciled, and matters accommodated, on condition of not having any more ſuch trade with the Barbarians.

This city has great part in the Greenland whale fiſhery; and the fins and whalebone is a manufacture managed by its inhabitants. It commonly ſends 50 or 60 ſhips annually in this trade; ſo that they export great quantities of oil and fins; though they buy from the Dutch more than their own ſhips ſupply. In war it fits out ſhips of force to convoy the merchantmen, and may be ſaid to be ſtrong both at land and ſea, being able to arm 12 or 14,000 men, and having a conſtant garriſon of near 2000. It exports great quantities of beer, brewed here; and has ſeveral manufactures, as weaving of damaſks, brocades, velvets, the richeſt ſilks, and ſugar-baking, there being as good loaf ſugar made in Hamburg as in London; though, indeed, they are forced to buy their Muſcavado ſugars chiefly from Great Britain. Callico printing employs numbers of people; and of late they have begun to print linens alſo. In ſhort, Hamburg is become a rich and powerful city, and, without diſpute, drives the greateſt inland trade, at this time, of any city in Europe, London and Amſterdam excepted. It has an undoubted right to a place in the diet of the empire. It has pretenſions alſo to being ſo free a city, as not to be ſubject to the empire, as other Imperial cities are, and, on that account, always refuſes to pay contributions to the military cheſt in time of war: but then the Hamburgers, under colour of a particular treaty with the emperor, wiſely avoiding to embarraſs themſelves, in caſe of a war in Germany, do the ſame thing in effect.

The government here is veſted in the ſenate and three colleges of burghers, and is a mixture of the ariſtocratical and democratical. Of the latter, becauſe all their taxes and impoſts are granted by the burghers, without whoſe conſent the ſenate cannot raiſe one penny, and becauſe the management of the finances is in 10 of the burghers. Of the former, becauſe they have a ſenate choſen out of the principal perſons of the republic, who alone have the power of aſſembling and diſſolving the convention of the burghers; to whom the burghers, that are managers of the finances, are accountable; who treat with foreign princes, without the intervention of the burghers; and who are veſted with almoſt every act of ſovereignty, but that of laying taxes and managing the finances.

The government thus conſtituted, is under the protection of the emperor, for which the Hamburghers pay him 80,000 crowns a year. But how little this has availed them is too well known; and the protection they have from England, for the ſake of trade, is certainly their greateſt ſecurity. The ſenate conſiſts of 4 burgomaſters, of whom there are 3 lawyers and one merchant (2 of whom preſide alternately for a year;) 24 ſenators, viz. 11 lawyers and 13 merchants; 4 ſyndics, who are all lawyers, and give their opinions as our judges do in the houſe of lords, but have no vote; and 4 ſecretaries, of whom the principal is called prothonotary. All theſe are, upon every vacancy, choſen out of their own bodies. Here is alſo a court of admiralty, conſiſting of a burgomaſter, four ſenators, 6 merchants, and 2 maſters of ſhips, aſſiſted by a ſecretary, and a water-bailiff.

Their law is the civil, or Juſtinian: and, in criminal cauſes, the ſtatutes of the emperor Charles IV. with which they have likewiſe their own ſtatutes, but both puzzled and obſcured by numberleſs comments, and contradictory precedents. The firſt or chief of three colleges is that of the Ober-Alten (or principal Elders) which conſiſts of 3 members, choſen out of each of the five wards of the city; has great power, like that of the tribunes at Rome; can demand of the ſenate to call a convention of the burghers, and even impeach a ſenator, and require a conference with the ſenate, on that or other occaſions. When the three colleges, conſiſting in the whole of 180 members, are aſſembled, and the ſenate at the ſame time, which is in all extraordinary caſes, particularly for laying taxes, the gates of the city are ſhut, a ſtrong guard is drawn up before the ſenate houſe, and ſentinels poſted at all its avenues. Each ward debates and votes by itſelf; and, when the queſtion is put by the ſenate, the majority of the 5 determines it. Their eccleſiaſtical government, of which the ſenate is the head, is managed by a conſiſtory, or convocation of the paſtors, archdeacons, and deacons, (29 in all,) of the 5 principal, and 7 ſmaller, churches or chapels.

In general the religion is Lutheran, and the Calviniſts were obliged to go to worſhip at Altena till within theſe few years paſt, that they have been allowed 1 or 2 churches within the walls of this city; but this is a favour not granted to the Roman Catholics; againſt whom they were ſo exaſperated in 1719, upon a public attempt of their prieſts to make proſelytes in the city, that a mob ſtripped and demoliſhed a chapel that was building here by the Imperial reſident, together with the ſaid miniſter's houſe; for which the Hamburghers being threatened by the emperor Charles VI. with military execution, they were forced to find another houſe and chapel at their own expence, and to make good all the other loſs and damage, beſides paying a fine, and ſending two members of the ſenate, and two of the burghers, to Vienna, to beg the emperor's pardon; after which, he took the citizens into his ſpecial protection, and eſpouſed their cauſe warmly, againſt the antiquated pretenſions of the Danes. They are obliged, however, to allow the Roman Catholics their worſhip in the ambaſſadors houſes. They have here what they call a private confeſſion, previous to the holy communion; though it differs in nothing from ours that is general, and the abſolution the ſame; but even the pooreſt of the people here are forced to give a fee to the prieſt for ſuch confeſſion; a cuſtom not being known in any other Proteſtant city, is reckoned the more inexcuſable in this; becauſe its churches are immenſely rich, and have great ſums of money at uſury, out of which they might afford the clergy a competent maintenance. But the fame of Hamburg is juſtly great for its care of the poor; here being more hoſpitals, in proportion to its ſize, than in any other Proteſtant city in Europe; one in particular for orphans, like our Blue-Coat Hoſpital in London, the yearly revenue of which amounts to betwixt 50 and 60,000l. Sometimes they have above 300 infants abroad at nurſe, who, when able to dreſs themſelves, are taken into the houſe. The boys that are qualified, are put out and maintained at the univerſity; the reſt are put to trades; and the girls, after they can read, ſpin, knit, &c. are ſent to ſervice. The building is decent, but not very coſtly, and borders on one of the canals. There is a large ſumptuous hoſpital for receiving poor travellers that fall ſick; and another for the relief of maimed, ancient, and decayed ſeamen; where alſo care is taken of the widows, as well as children, of thoſe who loſe their lives in the ſervice of the public. In that called the oldeſt hoſpital, 114 poor, old, blind, and lame people, are maintained. There is St. Job's for thoſe poor that have the French diſeaſe; and a peſt-houſe for thoſe that have the plague, or other infectious diſtempers; to which even people of the beſt rank come for cure, but pay for it to the houſe. There are many leſſer hoſpitals, beſides theſe, for poor widowers, widows, orphans, &c. and great numbers of free-ſchools; beſides two work-houſes, or houſes of correction, where they manufacture rugs, and coarſe kerſeys, with which thoſe confined there are clothed, and where they alſo ſpin. Here are alſo ſocieties for making good loſſes and damage by fire.

The houſes in Hamburg are about 30,000. The churches are ancient, large, and handſome fabrics, but open thoroughfares all day long; and in ſome there are bookſellers ſhops. Here are ſix lofty ſteeples, ſome of them covered with copper, which make a grand appearance, though the frames are only of timber. The great ſpire of St. Peter's is the higheſt in the city. That of St. Nicholas is ſupported by large gilt globes. St. Michael's ſteeple is 400 feet high. St. Catherine's has a ſtately front, with abundance of ſtatues in niches; and the ſteeple is formed of ſundry lanterns, diminiſhing gradually to the laſt, which ſupports a ſpire, like St. Bride's in Fleet-ſtreet, but much taller. Round the middle of its ſteeple is a crown richly gilt. Its pulpit is of white marble, curiouſly carved, and adorned with figures, and other ornaments of gold; and its organ, reckoned one of the beſt in Europe, has 6000 pipes. That called the thum, or dome, was the cathedral while the town remained an archbiſhopric, and was built about the year 830. The ſpire, and tower that ſupports it, are near 360 feet high. There ſtill belong a dean and chapter to it, though ſecularized, from whoſe court there lies no appeal, but to the imperial chamber at Wetzlar. Many of the counts of Schawenburg and Holſtein are buried here, whoſe names are written in a fair catalogue, with their other benefactors, and hung up in the body of the church. This cathedral, with the chapter, and a large number of houſes belonging to it, are under the immediate protection of his Britannic majeſty, as biſhop of Bremen, and independent of the city juriſdiction. There are five other very large churches here, and eight leſſer churches, or chapels of eaſe. There is a Schola Illuſtris, or univerſity here, well endowed, and furniſhed with 6 able profeſſors, of whom were lately the learned Fabricius, and M. Hubner, the geographer. The ſenate-houſe and town-hall is an ancient, large, and noble ſtructure, adorned with the ſtatues of emperors, and the 9 worthies; and a building is lately added for their new bank. Their exchange is fine, but inferior to that in London; and is oppoſite to the ſenate-houſe. One part of the ſquare is planted with large trees; and the other covered with a hall, where the elders or council of commerce meet. At the other end of it is the public crane. On the ſtreet before the town-houſe the lawyers have a ſort of exchange, as the public miniſters have at an eminent toy-ſhop in the ſame neighbourhood. The emperor, and ſeveral princes of Germany, have their own poſt-houſes here, managed by perſons of their own appointment; but the poſt-houſe for England and Holland is the only one that can properly be ſaid to belong to the public. The Britiſh reſident and company have a ſtately hall built by themſelves; and the reſident has a power of judging ſuits and differences that ariſe among his countrymen. There is an opera or play-houſe here, chiefly for the entertainment of the reſidents and other foreign gentry, of whom here are ſome from moſt trading kingdoms in Europe.

This city, which is almoſt of a circular form, and about ſix miles in compaſs, is naturally ſtrong, a great part of it lying upon iſlands. The walls and fortifications, that lie open to view, are covered with graſs, and planted with rows of trees, ſo high, that none of the houſes are to be ſeen without that ſide of the walls which is next to Altena. It has ſix gates, and three entrances by water; two from the Elbe, and one from the Aliter. It is divided into the Old and New City by a canal, and ſurrounded by a fine high wall, with 23 bulwarks, beſides other out works and fortifications, in the modern way, and a very deep ditch. There is alſo a noble line, or out-work, with other works, from the largeſt baſon of the Aliter to the Elbe, about half a mile above the town: and on the other ſide of that baſon, about the midway betwixt that and the Elbe, below the town, there is a very fine fortification, called the Star-Sconce, ſo ſtrong, that the king of Denmark, with all his army, could not take it in 1686, after ſix weeks ſiege. In the New Town, towards Altena, there are large ſtreets of poor houſes, chiefly inhabited by Jews.

The two channels, called the North and South Elbe, into which that river is ſeparated, two or three miles above this city, having, with ſome ſmaller ones, formed divers beautiful iſlands towards Harburg, that belong to his Britannic majeſty, re-unite in one channel, about ſix miles below the city. Towards the eaſt it is waſhed by the little river Bille; and towards the north by another little river, called the Aliter, which forms a very large baſon juſt without the town; and another, though not ſo large as that, yet of at leaſt 1000 feet ſquare, within the walls of it; after which it drives the public mills, and, paſſing by ſeveral ſluices and canals, through the whole city, falls into the Elbe. Here are 84 bridges, 34 water-mills, (beſides 6 wind-mills,) and 6 ſluices; and it has likewiſe 6 large markets.

kets. As the tide flows in canals through moſt of the chief ſtreets, and runs 4 leagues above the city, i. e. 22 from the river's mouth, the town is frequently damaged by ſpring-tides; and houſes and families have been ruined by tempeſts. There were two ſad inſtances in 1651 and 1719. Though the harbour is ſo commodious, and river ſo deep, that large merchant-ſhips come up to the walls, yet thoſe of extraordinary ſize anchor at the new mills, 4 miles below, where they unload into ſmaller veſſels. The ſtreets are generally crooked, but pretty wide, and outſtrip all Germany for high and ſtately houſes, which are moſtly of brick. They uſually reckon here by ſtivers and lubs, of which 48 make 4s. 6d. (or a dollar.) It is the cuſtom, when a citizen dies, to leave the tenth of his eſtate to the city; and foreigners, not naturalized, pay annually for liberty to trade.

Hamburg has a diſtrict for 12 miles round, abounding with excellent paſtures, with conſiderable villages, and noble ſeats. It comprizes the bailiwicks of Rutzenbuttle, Bilwerder, Ochſenwerder, and Eppendorf. Alte-game, New-game, Kirchwerder, and Roſlacke bailiwicks, are enjoyed by the Hamburghers, in common with the citizens of Lubec, as are a caſtle, and the little town and bailiwick of Bergedorf. The merchants here are affable, but too nice in punctilio and ceremony; very frugal in their families, but as liberal in treating ſtrangers. They much affect gardens at the city gates, in the taſte of Holland. Scarce a merchant or conſiderable ſhopkeeper but has his coach. The common carts are only a long pully laid on an axle-tree between two wheels, and drawn by men, of whom 12 or more are ſometimes linked to thoſe machines, drawing 2 tons weight. Graduates at law are very numerous, though hardly a tenth of them employed in it. Every artificer, who can perform a piece of work beyond his brother artiſts, is made free of his company; a benefit not otherwiſe to be attained, but by ſervitude, marrying a freeman's widow or daughter, or at a very great expence. By the vigilance of the magiſtrates and their beadles, few or no beggars are to be ſeen in the ſtreets; which may be aſcribed alſo to the manufacture of knit-ſtockings, which is ſufficiently extenſive to employ all the poor. Officers are employed to carry wool to be carded, ſpun, &c. by the poor at their own habitations, and then fetch the work, paying them due wages. The ladies are generally attended to the church by a ſervant maid with a book, hanging by a ſilver chain on one arm; and, if it be cold weather, with a braſs ſtove on the other. The hangman's houſe is the common priſon for malefactors. After ſentence (which is always pronounced on Fridays, as execution is done the following Monday) malefactors are carried to a handſome upper room, where they are allowed a good bed, and all reaſonable comforts ſuiting their condition, and are conſtantly attended by ſome clergyman in rotation. As no criminal is puniſhable without pleading guilty, they have five degrees of tortures to extort ſuch confeſſion, in proportion to the ſtrength of evidence to ſupport accuſation. The judges are always preſent, with a clerk to write down the confeſſion, at a table with a curtain drawn round it; ſo that they can hear and ſpeak to the tortured criminal, without being eye-witneſſes of the cruelty.

A walk runs by the great baſon of the Alſter from the play-houſe to the heart of the city, called the Maidens Walk, 1000 feet long, and 20 broad, railed and bordered by trees on each ſide. On one ſide is the water with ſeveral ſtairs, on the other a row of noble houſes. Many convents, &c. ſtill remain; but, being ſeculariſed, are now Lutherans. The tenure of one of them is ſtill continued by offering a glaſs of wine to every malefactor carried by to execution. People of the beſt faſhion regale in a cave, an odd kind of tavern, which has a prodigious ſtock and vent of old hock, &c. which is well regulated by a deputy of the magiſtrates, and brings in a conſiderable revenue. Corn is meaſured by the ſchepel, of which 83 make 10 quarters Engliſh; and 100 Hamburg ells make but 48 and a half in London. Hamburg and Lincoln are in the ſame latitude; but it is conſiderably colder in winter, and hotter in ſummer, at the former.

The Dioceſe of HILDESHEIM is ſituated between the rivers Lerne and Ocker. The bailiwick of Hunderſuch lies ſeparate from it, being encloſed by the principalities of Calenburg and Grubenhagen. This dioceſe is 40 miles long and 30 broad; and the ſoil is fertile in grain, hops, oak, aſh, flax, pulſe, beech, and birch. It is likewiſe productive of ſalt, ſtone, iron ore, black cattle, hogs, horſes, ſheep, game, &c.

The inhabitants derive plenty of fiſh, of various kinds, from the rivulets which water this country.

The ſtates conſiſt of clergy, nobility, and burgeſſes. The religion is Lutheraniſm; the manufactures are cloth, porcelain, ſtockings, iron ware, &c.

The principal places are as follow:

Hildeſheim, on the Innerſte, the capital of the dioceſe, ſituated 15 miles from Hanover, is an old-faſhioned, large, irregular town. The magiſtracy and burghers are, in general, Lutherans. The principal buildings are the cathedral, ſeveral monaſteries and nunneries, many churches, the chancery, the nobility's hall, where the diets are held, the Jeſuits college, the Jews ſynagogue, the gymnaſium, and the Latin ſchool of St. Lambert. The magiſtrates poſſeſs civil and criminal juriſdiction, impoſe and collect duties, and apply them to public uſes. The town was antiently one of the Hans, and the capital of Henry the Lion; and in the neighbourhood there are two rich abbies.

Peina, on the Fuſe, has a garriſon, an epiſcopal palace, a capuchin convent, and a Lutheran church.

Weddingen is a commandery of the Teutonic order; Salz-Detfurt a market town, with ſalt-works; Mark Olderdorf a market town on the Ilme; and Salzliebendall a market town, which contains ſalt-works, and ſeveral convents.

Lamſpringe is a town on the Lannue, where there is an Engliſh Benedictine ſeminary, whoſe abbot is poſſeſſed of the lower juriſdiction of the town, and is alſo patron of the Lutheran church.

Gronau, on the Leine, contains a Dominican convent, and gives name to a bailiwick; Bekenem is a town whoſe benefice is in the gift of the elector of Brunſwic; Elze, on the Saal, is poſſeſſed of a high and low juriſdiction; and Alfeld, on the Leine, has ſimilar privileges.

GOSLAR, though an Imperial city, and independent of the Brunſwic family, is uſually deſcribed in this country, becauſe it is ſurrounded with their dominions. It is a large ancient city, 22 miles ſouth-eaſt of Hildeſheim, 25 ſouth of Brunſwic, and 26 weſt of Halberſtadt. It was built in 1201, by the emperor Henry I. who had a palace here, and alſo fortified it. It ſtands on the ſouth ſide of the Goſe, which riſes to the ſouth-eaſt of Cellerfeld, and falls into the Ocker near the confines of Hildeſheim. Goſlar enjoys the ſame privileges as other free Imperial cities, beſides an exemption from tolls in all markets of the empire but three. In all Imperial writs it is called *Nobile Membrum Imperii*. The houſes are covered with ſlate. It is ſituated in a valley, ſurrounded with mountains, in which are mines both of iron and ſilver, viz. thoſe of Steinberg, Hertzberg, Ramelſberg, Klockenberg, &c. The inhabitants are employed either in digging them, or cleanſing, tempering, and vending the metals and minerals, of all ſorts, that are dug out of them. It has been the reſidence of the emperors, for the ſake, it is ſuppoſed, of hunting; and becauſe they have often aſſembled the ſtates here, it has been called a palatinate city.

The emperor Frederick II. anno 1235, with conſent of the ſtates of the empire, granted to Otho I. duke of Brunſwic, the tenth of its mines. The houſe of Brunſwic has pretenſions to this city; and ſeveral of its princes have endeavoured to eſtabliſh them by force of arms, but hitherto in vain. The protectorſhip of it

it is in the king of Great Britain, as elector of Hanover, alternately with the duke of Brunſwic-Wolfenbuttle. There is no religion tolerated here but the Lutheran. It was in this city that Barthold Schwartz, the Benedictine monk, is ſaid to have found out the art of making gun-powder.

The Imperial Lordſhip of SCHAUEN is ſituated between the principality of Halberſtadt, and the county of Wernigerode. It belonged formerly to the abbey of Walkenreid, but now belongs to the duke of Brunſwic.

The Imperial City of NORDHAUSEN is ſituated on the Zorge, about 21 miles ſouth-eaſt from Goſſar. It was formerly one of the Hans-Towns, is celebrated for its curious works in alabaſter and marble, and carries on a great trade in the diſtillery branches. The inhabitants and magiſtracy are Lutherans; to the latter of whom the elector of Brandenburg, in 1717, transferred all his rights and prerogatives to this city, in conſideration of being paid a ſtipulated ſum. In the diet of the empire it has the tenth ſeat on the Rheniſh bench of Imperial cities, and the fourth among thoſe of Lower Saxony.

The Imperial City of MUHLHAUSEN is ſituated on the Unſtrut, 40 miles eaſt of Caſſel. It contains 2 Lutheran churches, with a Roman Catholic foundation for Auguſtine nuns. In the 14th century this city purchaſed, of the emperor Lewis, the office of Imperial judge within the city and its precincts. It poſſeſſes the ninth place on the bench of Imperial cities in the diets of the empire, and the third in thoſe of Lower Saxony. It was formerly one of the Hans-Towns, and has at preſent a tolerable trade.

BLANKENBURG and REINSTEIN, though two counties, are uſually conſidered together as one chief town. Theſe counties, together with Quedlinburg, Hohenſtein, Stolberg, and Schwarztburg, in Upper Saxony, already deſcribed, were formerly one province, and then called Hartzingow, i. e. the Hyrcanian County, having been a part of the ancient Hyrcanian Foreſt, now called Hartz, of which there ſtill remain great woods and parks, that abound with game. They are ſituated ſouth from Brunſwic, ſouth-weſt from Magdeburg, weſt from Halberſtadt, north from Thuringia, and eaſt from Hildeſheim. It is ſo cold a country that the ſnow lies on its mountains till Midſummer, and affords little corn; but the vallies are filled with cattle. The inhabitants are ſtrong and vigorous, and many of them live to a very great age. There are iron mines in their mountains, one of which, called Broeken, or Brockſberg, the Bructerus of the Latins, is reckoned the higheſt in Germany.

Betwixt Blankenburg and Elbingerode is a remarkable cave, called Buman's Hole, (from its diſcoverer, Buman,) which has a narrow entrance; but none ever found the end of it; though ſome of the miners have affirmed they have gone as far in it as Goſlar, which is 20 miles. Large bones of ſtrange creatures have been often found in it, which the neighbouring gentry keep for rarities; and, among others, the ſkeleton of a giant. There are two great rocks near the convent of Michaelſtein, and not far from Blankenburg, which repreſent two monks in their proper habits, as nicely as if they were carved out, and therefore are called the Monks Craigs. Many caſtles are found in theſe counties on the tops of inacceſſible rocks, and ſome actually hewn out of the rocks; but they are not regarded. The moſt remarkable of them is that near Brockſberg, which, the inhabitants ſay, was built 300 years before Chriſt, by the Chauci, a branch of the Saxons, who had an idol and temple of Saturn here, which were deſtroyed by Charlemagne, who called the place Hartzburg. A ſalt-ſpring being diſcovered at the bottom of this hill, in the time of Julius, duke of Brunſwic, he built a ſmall town for the workmen, called Julius Hall, which is now grown rich and large, by the trade in ſalt, copper kettles and pots, wire, &c.

The people of this country are repreſented as the dulleſt in all Germany, and mere bigots to the inſtitutions and cuſtoms of their anceſtors. This petty county was left by the late duke Anthony-Ulrich, of Wolfenbuttle, to his ſecond and favourite ſon, prince Lewis, to make him ſome compenſation for the right of primogeniture, which he had newly introduced into his family, to that ſon's prejudice: for the Brunſwic-princes had been long uſed to a partition of lands in their families, till that cuſtom, ſo pernicious to great ones, was firſt aboliſhed by the Hanover branch. As this county neither gives its poſſeſſor the rank of a ſovereign prince, or admittance into the college of princes at the diet of the empire, the then duke of Blankenburg, in order to procure himſelf both theſe privileges, made a treaty with the elector of Hanover, whereby the latter yielded him the vote and ſeat which he enjoyed in the diet for his duchy of Grubenhagen; and the duke engaged never to vote at the diet but in conformity to the ſentiments of the elector; but after his deceaſe, the vote and ſeſſion for Grubenhagen reverted to the elector.

The town of Blankenburg is ſituated 8 miles weſt of Quedlinburg, and 40 ſouth of Wolfenbuttle, on the frontier of the principality of Anhalt. It is but ſmall, and the houſes are ill-built and inconvenient. One of the dukes, who had a caſtle here, offered the inhabitants materials for building gratis, and did all in his power to inſpire them with taſte, and the arts, but without ſucceſs.

The County of RANZAU is about 10 miles long, and ſix broad, and has a ſoil tolerably fertile. It was formerly called the bailiwick of Barmſtedt, afterwards erected into a county of the empire, by the emperor Ferdinand III. Barmſtedt, a market town on the Acce, and Elmſhorn, another market town on the ſame river, are the only places of any conſideration in the whole county.

The principality of RATZEBURG belongs to the Strelitz family, but does not contain any place worthy of notice, except the town of Ratzeburg, where the regency, treaſury, and conſiſtory are held, but which belongs to the duchy of Saxe Lawenburg; and the town of Sconberg, which gives name to a bailiwick, and formerly contained an epiſcopal palace.

The principality of SCHWERIN is ſurrounded by the duchy of the ſame name, and the lordſhips of Wiſmar and Roſtock. It is 20 miles long, ſix broad, and was formerly a biſhopric, but ſecularized at the peace of Weſtphalia. The only places worthy of notice are

Butzo, a town where the biſhops formerly reſided; and Rhun, which gives name to a bailiwick, and contains a convent for ladies who are nobly born.

The county of HALDEN lies along the Elbe, is 8 miles in length, the ſame in breadth, and borders on the territory of Hamburg. It is very fertile, abounds in grain, fruit, cattle, and fiſh; has its own courts, eccleſiaſtical and civil; and was ceded, in 1731, to the elector of Brunſwic. The inhabitants are Lutherans; and the only town is Offerndorff, on the river Meden.

The Duchy of SAXE-LAWENBURG is the fartheſt province of his Britannic majeſty's German dominions. It is watered by the Elbe, which divides it; and is bounded by Holſtein on the weſt and north, by Lunenburg on the ſouth, and Mecklenburg on the eaſt.

This county is not very fertile in grain, but abounds in flax, paſturage, wood, cattle, fiſh, &c.

It is about 80 miles in length; and its greateſt breadth is near 26 miles. The manors, entitling to a vote and ſeat in the diets, are 23 in number; and the ſtates are compoſed of the nobility and burghers. Lutheraniſm is the eſtabliſhed religion; and the clergy, in general, of this duchy, may be placed as patterns for thoſe of moſt other countries; for their attention to their holy function, their humility, humanity, zeal, and benevolence, are ſuch, that they ſeem to merit, individually, the

the following character which Dryden gives of the good prieſt:

The tythes his pariſh freely paid he took,
But never ſu'd or curs'd with bell and book;
With patience bearing wrong, but off'ring none,
Since every man is free to loſe his own.
Yet of his little he had ſome to ſpare,
To feed the famiſh'd, and to clothe the bare:
For mortify'd he was to that degree,
A poorer than himſelf he could not ſee.
True prieſts, he ſaid, and preachers of the word,
Were only ſtewards of their ſov'reign lord:
Nothing was their's, but all the public ſtore,
Entruſted riches to relieve the poor;
Who, ſhould they ſteal for want of his relief,
He judg'd himſelf accomplice with the thief.
And ſtill he was at hand, without requeſt,
To ſerve the ſick, to ſuccour the diſtreſs'd.
He duly watch'd his flock by night and day,
And from the prowling wolf redeem'd the prey,
But hungry ſent the wily fox away.
The proud he tam'd, the penitent he chear'd,
Nor to reprove the rich offender fear'd.
His preaching much, but more his practice wrought,
(A living ſermon of the truth he taught:)
For this by rules ſevere his life he ſquar'd,
That all might ſee the doctrine which they heard:
For prieſts, he ſaid, are patterns for the reſt,
The gold of heav'n, who bear the God impreſt;
But, when the precious coin is kept unclean,
The ſov'reign's image is no longer ſeen.
If they be foul on whom the people truſt,
Well may the baſer braſs contract a ruſt.
With what he begg'd, his brethren he reliev'd,
And gave the charities himſelf receiv'd;
Gave while he taught, and edify'd the more,
Becauſe he ſhew'd, by proof, 'twas eaſy to be poor.

Both the nobility and commons derive their privileges from an act called the Lawenburg Act, which was granted by George I. king of Great Britain, and confirmed in all its articles by his ſucceſſors. The Lutheran ſuperintendant, appointed by the king of Great Britain, is obliged to viſit the ſeveral pariſhes annually.

Here are but few manufactures; but many commodities are tranſported from hence to other countries, particularly rye, cheeſe, timber, butter, wool, wood, &c.

Here is a regency ſubordinate to that of Hanover, and a high tribunal, the members of which are appointed partly by the king, and partly by the ſtates; but an appeal lies to Zell. The duchy has a conſiſtory of its own; and the colleges meet at Ratzeburg. The principal places are

Ratzeburg, 12 miles ſouth of Lubec, ſituated on an iſland in a lake of the ſame name. It is the ſeat of a regency, conſiſtory, and chief court of juſtice; has a fine bridge, a beautiful walk planted with limes, a cathedral, a caſtle, and a ſtrong garriſon.

Lawenberg, on a hill near the Elbe, has a conſiderable trade, particularly in corn and wood. It is 35 miles eaſt of Hamburg, has a toll, and contains the veſtiges of a ducal palace.

Mollen, a ſmall town, 16 miles from Lubec, is almoſt ſurrounded by lakes; Grunau is a market-town; Buchen, a village, where diets are held; and Schwarzenbach gives name to a bailiwick, which contains two copper mills and a paper mill.

THE CIRCLE OF WESTPHALIA.

SOME derive the name of this country from Weiſſenphalen, i. e. a white horſe, the arms of its ancient dukes; but others more probably from Weſtfield, or Weſtvelden, the country of its ancient inhabitants the Weſt Saxons, on the weſt ſide of the Weſer, betwixt that and the Rhine; as the country on the other ſide was called Ooſtvelden, or Eaſtfield. It ſtretches along the weſt ſide of the Weſer, from the German Ocean on the north, to Heſſia on the ſouth; and between Lower Saxony on the eaſt, and the Netherlands on the weſt. The greateſt extent, from ſouth to north, is about 200 miles, and 150 from eaſt to weſt. The air, eſpecially in the northern part, is very cold; and great part of the ſoil is marſhy and barren. However, it has plenty of corn and paſture; but the fruit is very ordinary, and ſerves chiefly to feed the ſwine, of which this country has good ſtore of an excellent kind; ſo that the bacon, and particularly the hams, they ſend abroad, are very much eſteemed. The chief rivers are the Weſer, the Embs, the Lippe, the Roer, the Aa, &c. The accommodations a traveller may meet with here, are humouroufly expreſſed in a diſtich, very common in Germany, which, in Engliſh, runs thus:

Four things here will drive a traveller mad;
Long miles, ſmall beer, coarſe bread, and lodgings bad.

Weſtphalia, indeed, is confeſſed to be the moſt wretched part of all Germany; and ſome writers are of opinion, that the temper of the people is, in a great meaſure, influenced by the climate. They are good ſoldiers upon the whole, but have not talents in common with the other Germans; for they apply themſelves much more to the breeding of cattle, than the cultivation of arts and ſciences. The greater part of this circle is a prey to the tyranny and avarice of certain petty princes, both ſpiritual and temporal, who, having great vanity, and ſmall revenues to ſupport it, are thereby induced to plunder, rather than protect, their ſubjects. The nobility boaſt of the antiquity of their pedigree, but diſplay neither elegance in their manner of living, or the leaſt degree of hoſpitality in their diſpoſition. There are, in this country, almoſt as many different religions as princes, ſuch as Jews, Roman Catholics, and Proteſtants, with their various ſubdiviſions; but the major part of the latter are Calviniſts.

When Charles the Great had conquered the Saxons, and planted Chriſtianity among them, he erected ſeveral biſhopricks here, to which he gave lands for their ſupport. In the circle of Weſtphalia are three very conſiderable ones, who had ſovereign princes, and increaſed their dominions at the general partition that was made of the great dukedom of Saxony, after the proſcription of Henry the Lion; and then it was that the biſhop of Munſter enlarged his country, and that the archbiſhop of Cologne obtained that part of Weſtphalia which he ſtill holds, and by that tenure ſtiles himſelf duke of Weſtphalia. The elector palatine, as duke of Juliers, and the king of Pruſſia, as duke of Cleves, are alternately condirectors of this circle, with the biſhop of Munſter.

The territories contained in this circle are the following:

The biſhopric of PADERBORN, which is ſurrounded by the dominions of Hanover, Heſſe, and Munſter, has the county of Lippe on the north and weſt; Heſſe-Caſſel, and Waldeck, on the ſouth; and Munſter, and the duchy of Weſtphalia, on the weſt. It is 40 miles from eaſt to weſt, and, in ſome places, 30 from north to ſouth. It is not very fruitful in corn; but abounds ſo much in cattle, that drovers come hither from the neighbouring countries to buy at their fairs: and they have rich ſalt ſprings, and ſome iron mines, with plenty of deer and other game. It is ſo populous as to contain 25 market-towns, 54 pariſhes, 16 monaſteries, and 20 gentlemens ſeats, all ſubject to the biſhop, who is a prince of the empire, and whoſe ſee is one of the moſt conſiderable in Germany. The chapter is compoſed of 24 capitular canons, who are all obliged to ſtudy in ſome French or Italian univerſity, muſt be 21 years old, and prove their noble extraction by four degrees. The revenues of this ſee, which is a ſuffragan of Mentz, and now enjoyed by the elector of Cologne, are

very conſiderable; and the biſhop is able to raiſe a body of 3000 men. In this biſhopric is the famous field of battle, where Quintilius Varus, with the Roman army under his command, was routed by the Germans under Arminius, and the latter thereby freed from the Roman yoke.

In the tranſactions of the Royal Society, publiſhed in December 1665, there is an account of a ſpring in this territory, which loſes itſelf twice in 24 hours; but returns with a great noiſe, and ſuch force, as to turn three mills not far from its ſource; for which reaſon it is called Bolder Born, i. e. Boiſterous Spring. There is another remarkable fountain, called Methorn, two miles from Paderborn, which is a terrible ſpring; two parts of which, not a foot and an half from each other, have very different qualities; the one limpid, blueiſh, lukewarm, and containing ſal-armoniac, ochre, iron, vitriol, allum, ſulphur, nitre, and orpiment; the other cold as ice, turbid, and whitiſh, with much the ſame contents, but ſtronger in taſte, and heavier than the before-mentioned. It is ſaid to be a perfect cure for the worms. All fowls that drink it are immediately thrown into convulſions, but ſoon recovered by an infuſion of common ſalt and vinegar. The third ſpring, which is about twenty paces from the other two, is of a greeniſh colour, but very clear, taſtes both ſour and ſweet, and is ſuppoſed to be a mixture of the other two.

The city of Paderborn, which is one of the Hans Towns, is a large, well built, fortified, and populous city, 20 miles eaſt of Lippe, and about 60 ſouth-weſt of Hanover. This city was imperial till 1604, when Theodore, its biſhop, became both its ſpiritual and temporal ſovereign. Some of its churches are magnificent. Its cathedral is a grand fabric, inferior to few in the empire. Otho II. gave a golden crucifix to it of 60 pounds weight, to the value of 60,000 guilders, or about 8000l. ſterling. The biſhop's palace is a decent ſtructure; but the biſhops, when they vouchſafe to viſit this ſmall benefice, which is not very often, reſide ſeven miles off, at Nienhus, a caſtle built in 1590. An univerſity was founded here in 1592, by the biſhop of Furſtenburg; and though this city ſtands not far from the Lippe, which joins with the Ulme, near Nienhus, yet it has its name from the Pader, a rivulet which has its riſe juſt under the high altar of its cathedral, and Born, i. e. a ſpring.

In 777 Charlemagne held a general convention here of the Franks and Saxons, where a great number, both of Saxons and Weſtphalians, were baptized. He built a church here that was deſtroyed by the Saxons, but rebuilt, in 795, by Wittekind, the great duke of the Saxons, who then, it is ſaid, tranſlated the ſee hither from Heriſtell, five German miles off, where it had been firſt planted by Charlemagne. In 999 the cathedral, with its library, &c. and the beſt part of the city, was deſtroyed by fire; and it had the like mi fortune in the years 1058, 1133, 1165, and 1340. This city was firſt walled round by its biſhop, in the beginning of the 11th century. In 1530 the inhabitants attempted to introduce Lutheraniſm; but the biſhop executed 16 of the principal citizens who had embraced it, and forced the reſt to abjure it. In 1622 the biſhop of Halberſtadt, who was duke Chriſtian of Brunſwic, made a conſiderable booty here, and ſent the gold and ſilver images of the ſaints to the mint. In 1633 it was taken by William, landgrave of Heſſe; but delivered up to the emperor in 1636. In 1646 it ſurrendered to the Swedes and Heſſians; but the latter were ſoon drove out of it by Francis William, biſhop of Oſnaburg.

Neuhaus is a borough with a caſtle; Altenbecken is a village with a remarkable ſpring; Salzkotten has its name from its ſalt-ſprings, and is the ſeat of the land diets; Lichtenau has the ſame privileges; Wunnenburg takes its name from a victory obtained here by Charlemagne over the Saxons; and Buren, on the Alure, has a college.

Lippeſpning derives its name from the Lippe, near the mouth of which it is ſituated. It is cuſtomary for the Popiſh inhabitants of theſe parts to aſſemble once a year, each with a lighted taper, and, headed by their prieſts, to repair to the woods and groves, to viſit images and relics placed there in little chapels, which, except upon theſe occaſions, are never opened.

Warburg, formerly an Imperial city, and one of the Hans, is the ſecond city in rank in the biſhopric, and the ſeat of a diet. In the neighbourhood are mines of iron and lead; and a ſtrong palatable beer is brewed by the inhabitants.

Brakel, on the Bruckt, was formerly an Imperial city, but is now greatly decayed; and Drinkenburg has a citadel, and is a ſeat of the land diets.

Beverungen, near the conflux of the Bever with the Weſer, is famous for its ſalt-ſprings, and has ſome trade; and Oldenburg, on the Houta, has a good trade by barges; and the neighbouring farmers breed great quantities of cattle.

The biſhopric of MUNSTER has the county of Mark, and duchy of Weſtphalia, on the ſouth; Embden and Oldenburg, on the north; the county of Bentheim, and the United Provinces, on the weſt; and Oſnaburg, Paderborn, and Ravenſburg, on the eaſt.

This is the moſt extenſive of all the biſhoprics in Weſtphalia, being 80 miles in length, and about 60 in breadth. It has ſome fruitful plains, a few woods, and many quarries of ſtone; but is, in general, a ſterile country. The principal rivers (which abound in fiſh) are the Embs, Vecht, Lippe, and Berkel. Great numbers of black cattle are bred here.

The provincial diets, which conſiſt of the clergy, nobles, and town deputies, are held at Munſter; and the greateſt part of the inhabitants are Roman Catholics. The biſhop of Munſter, who is alſo uſually elector of Cologne, has a very conſiderable revenue, can maintain 8000 men, and is heir to all ſtrangers who die in his territories without children. The chapter of Munſter, beſides the biſhop, conſiſts of 40 canons, who muſt be all of noble deſcent. The principal places in the biſhopric are the following:

Munſter, the capital of the biſhopric, and of the circle, derives its name from a monaſtery erected here by Charlemagne. It is ſituated at the conflux of the river Aa, with the Embs, or Enns, 37 miles ſouth-weſt from Oſnaburg, and 450 north-weſt from Vienna. It is capacious, ſtrongly fortified both by art and nature, and of a circular form. Here is a noble city, called the Brille, which was erected by the celebrated biſhop Bernard Van Galen, to be a check upon the burghers. The cathedral is alſo a ſuperb and noble edifice. Beſides theſe there are ſeveral fine convents, and other beautiful buildings, ſurrounded by very pleaſant gardens. The biſhop was formerly nominated by the emperor; but ſince the beginning of the 13th century, the privilege of nomination is in the dean and chapter. This city is celebrated for three famous tranſactions: Firſt, the revolution in 1533, occaſioned by a number of enthuſiaſts, who being headed by a taylor, denominated *John of Leyden*, from the place of his birth, diſpoſſeſſed the magiſtrates, took poſſeſſion of the city, turned out the burghers, and perpetrated the moſt horrid cruelties. At length, in 1536, after a long ſiege, the place was taken, and John of Leyden, who had aſſumed the title of king, with ſeveral of his adherents, were executed, and their bones hung up in iron baſkets on the top of the higheſt ſteeple in the city. Second, the treaty concluded here in 1648, which terminated a 30 years war. Third, the noble efforts it made in defence of its liberties, againſt the tyranny and uſurpation of the biſhop Bernard Van Galen.

Beckhem and Ahlen, on the Weſer; Telget, on the Embs; and Warendoff, on the ſame river, have all ſeats in the land diets. The latter has a capital linen manufactory.

Coesfeld is the largeſt town in the biſhopric next to Munſter; Coppenburg is independent of the biſhop; Werne, near the Lippe, ſends deputies to the diets; Bocholt, on the Aa, has a conſiderable iron work; and

Memmem

Memmem is a town and fort, at the conflux of the Haſe and Ems.

At Weerdt, on the Iſſel, the Proteſtants are tolerated: Vechla is a town and fort on the river of the ſame name; and Cloppenburg is a ſmall town, 22 miles north-eaſt of Meppen.

The biſhopric of LIEGE is bounded, on the north, by Brabant; on the ſouth by Luxemburg and Champagne; on the weſt by Namur and Hainault; and on the eaſt by Limburg and Juliers. It is about 90 miles long, but very unequal in the breadth. The ſoil is fruitful, the air temperate, and the earth rich in mines of iron, lead, and pit coal. The rivers are the Maeſe and Sambre.

The manufactures of Liege are beer, ſerge, leather, arms, nails, marble, &c.

The ſtates are compoſed of three bodies, the chapter of Liege, the nobility of the country, and the deputies of the capital.

The biſhop is both temporal and ſpiritual lord of the country; but, in the latter capacity, ſuffragan to the archbiſhop of Cologne. The chapter conſiſts of 60 perſons, who muſt prove their deſcent to be noble for four generations, from both parents, or have diplomas from ſome celebrated univerſity. The moſt conſiderable places are the following:

Liege, the ancient Leodium, called Luyck by the preſent inhabitants, (the capital,) is ſituated on the river Maeſe, 12 miles ſouth of Maeſtricht, 30 miles north-eaſt of Namur, and 50 miles ſouth-eaſt of Bruſſels, in 5 degrees, 36 min. eaſt long. and 50 deg. 40 min. north lat. being about four miles in circumference. It is a populous wealthy city; two branches of the river Maeſe, and other rivulets or canals, running through ſeveral of the ſtreets, and forming little iſlands. No city in Germany can equal it in fine churches or convents. There are not leſs than 100 churches, and a very numerous clergy belonging to the churches and monaſteries, which are moſt pleaſantly ſituated, and have ample endowments. Among other religious houſes, here is one of Engliſh nuns, and an univerſity of great fame.

The fortifications of the town, which are not very ſtrong, are commanded by the neighbouring hills; but the citadel is capable of making a good defence. Its biſhop, who was elector of Cologne, put it into the hands of the French, at the beginning of queen Anne's war; but the duke of Marlborough took it from them, anno 1702: and the French beſieging it again, anno 1705, they were obliged to raiſe the ſiege by the ſame general, on his return from the Moſelle.

The magiſtrates of Liege pretend that it is an imperial city, or ſovereign ſtate: but they have ſuffered very ſeverely for diſputing the authority of their biſhop, who is, in fact, abſolute ſovereign of the city, as well as the biſhopric. He is choſen by the 60 major canons, who are, moſt of them, of noble extraction. This biſhop is one of the moſt conſiderable eccleſiaſtical princes in Germany, having within his dioceſe 52 baronies, 18 walled towns, and 400 villages, full of people, with a revenue of 300,000 ducats per annum, and is able to maintain a body of 8000 men, without oppreſſing his ſubjects, who are generally Roman Catholics.

The trade of the inhabitants is moſt conſiderable with Holland. Great quantities of iron, ſtone, chalk, &c. are every day carried down thither by the Maeſe; and herrings, cheeſe, butter, and all kinds of grocery, are brought back in return.

There is a proverbial ſaying prevails here, to the following tenor; That this city is the women's hell, the men's purgatory, and prieſts paradiſe. The women are compleat ſlaves; as they draw their boats up the river inſtead of horſes; dig, ſaw, and carry all kinds of heavy burthens. The prieſts have truly their paridiſe here; for the greateſt princes of Europe make intereſt to be of this chapter, becauſe the revenues and power of it are greater than any other can boaſt of. As to the poor laity, if to have no money in their pockets, and their conſciences at the abſolute will and diſpoſal of the prieſts, may be called a purgatory, we ſhall not find this proverb to fall very ſhort of the truth.

Tongres, or Tungri, a very ancient town, ſituated on the river Jecker, 10 miles north-weſt of Liege, and 10 weſt of Maeſtricht, was of great fame in the time of the Romans. When Atilla, the Hun, took it, he deſtroyed 100 churches; for it was very early made a biſhopric: but the ſee, upon its decline, was removed to Maeſtricht, and from thence to Liege.

Huy, or Hugum, ſituated on the eaſt ſide of the Maeſe, formerly called Benefactum, a town of great note antiently, is at preſent a ſtrong fortreſs, 15 miles ſouth-weſt of Liege; and was frequently beſieged during the wars in the Netherlands.

Dinant, ſituated on the river Maeſe, 12 miles ſouth of Namur, was taken by the French, but reſtored to the biſhop of Liege by the peace of Ryſwick, anno 1697.

Bouillon, ſituated on the river Semoy, 30 miles ſouth of Dinant, and about 10 miles from the frontiers of Champaign, is a fortified town, and, with a ſmall territory annexed to it, gives the title of duke to the biſhop of Liege. Of this place the famous Godfrey was duke, who, for his conduct and courage in ſubduing Jeruſalem, and taking it from the Saracens, in the 11th century, was made the firſt Chriſtian king of that city.

St. Tren is famous for its Benedictine abbey, the abbot of which names one half of the magiſtrates of the place, and the biſhop the other; and for ſeveral convents of nuns and friars.

Tranchimon, ſix miles from Liege, gives name to a marquiſate; Verviers, on the Weze, has a conſiderable woollen manufactory; Cuivin, ſituated on a hill, is only noted for the ruins of an old caſtle; Thuin, on the Sambre, has a collegiate church, and ſome convents; Haſſelt, on the Damer, is a ſmall pretty town; and Lobbes, a Benedictine abbey, is immediately ſubject to the ſee of Rome.

Spa, or Spaw, is a ſmall but celebrated town, on the little river Weze, 20 miles diſtance from Liege towards the ſouth-eaſt, and 7 from Linſburg towards the ſouth-weſt. The avenues to it are exceeding ſtony and difficult; and it is ſo ſurrounded by mountains that you cannot ſee it till you approach very near to it. In travelling to Spa, either by Liege or Aix-la-Chapelle, the way lies chiefly through uncultivated deſert, and thoſe almoſt rocky. There are nothing but mountains on every ſide, which ſucceed one another, and over which travellers have made ſome imperfect traces of a road. The rains and tempeſts, which are frequent there, even make the paſſage ſometimes dangerous, by rolling down great ſtones from the precipices. The coachmen of the country are themſelves often at a loſs, becauſe the tracks are defaced between ſeaſon and ſeaſon. The town conſiſts of 4 ſtreets, in the form of a croſs, and may contain about 400 houſes, for the convenience of thoſe that come to drink the waters. It was formerly a mere village; but, through the fame of its mineral ſprings, has been enlarged, and erected into a borough.

Here are five principal wells, which go down with ſteps, like that at Tunbridge. The chief well, called Pouxhon, or Pahon, in the market-place, is the moſt reſorted to, and has this inſcription upon it, which expreſſes the qualities of the waters:

Sanitati ſacrum:

Obſtructum reſerat, durum terit, humida ſiccat,
Debile fortificat; ſi tamen arte bibas.

That is to ſay, "Sacred to health, theſe waters open obſtructions, concoct crudities, dry up exceſſive moiſture, and ſtrengthen what is weak, provided you take them with precaution." It is from this ſpring they draw that

that prodigious quantity of water which is tranſported into foreign countries, and eſpecially into England and Holland, ſealed up in bottles, with the town ſeal.

Next to the well of Pouxhon, there is a fountain of freſh water, which has its ſpring in a meadow, half a mile diſtant from the town. The bottom of it is of blue ſtone and the top of braſs: it ſpouts its water out of the mouths of three frogs, whence the people call it the Toad's Fountain.

The well called Geronſterre, or Geronſtar, is in a wood, about two miles diſtant from Spa, towards the ſouth-weſt. It is covered with a dome of blue-ſtone, ſupported by four pillars of red and white marble. It is conſiderably leſs plentiful of water than the former, and yet the moſt frequented. The three other wells, called the Saviniere, the Watroz, and the Tannelet, or little Tun, are not much uſed. The ſeaſons for drinking theſe waters are in the hot months of June, July, and Auguſt. Theſe waters have been known many ages ago.

The Capuchins have a very fine monaſtery at Spa, adorned with large gardens, where all the company walk who drink the waters. The inn, called the Court of London, is very large, and the beſt and moſt frequented.

Several princes, who have been here, have left proofs of their liberality; particularly Margaret de Valois, queen of France, daughter to Henry II. ſiſter to Henry III. and wife to Henry IV. who was here in the year 1577. Henry III. king of Poland and France, who was here in 1585. The famous Alexander Farneſe, duke of Parma, in 1591: And, at one time, king Charles II. of England, the king of Denmark, and the Great Duke of Tuſcany: And, in 1717, Peter the Great, czar of Muſcovy, drank the waters here during ſeveral weeks.

The people are good-natured, and ſpeak the ſame Walloon, or barbarous French, as at Liege. They are governed by a mayor, two burgomaſters, ſeven Echevins, and a recorder, named by the prince of Liege, and changed by him every year. The people employ themſelves in making boxes for ladies toilets, ſnuff and other boxes varniſhed after the manner of China-wares, which they ſell to the company as they go from the wells.

This town, being reſorted to by people from all parts of Europe, on account of its waters, has been always allowed a neutrality during the hotteſt wars.

The country round it is not very fruitful in corn, being chiefly woods, mountains, and heaths; but it abounds with ſprings of mineral and ſweet water, and in ſeveral ſorts of game; and the little rivers, which flow from the mountains, produce plenty of trout, and other kinds of fiſh.

The czar, Peter the Great, erected a monument here, in commemoration of the benefit he received from drinking theſe waters; the inſcription upon which is as follows:

PETER THE FIRST, by the grace of God, emperor of the
RUSSIANS,
Religious, happy; invincible
Reſtorer of military diſcipline,
And firſt planter of all ſciences and arts among his people;
Who having, by his own induſtry,
Built a moſt powerful fleet of ſhips;
Having infinitely augmented his armies,
And having ſecurely ſettled, in the very blaze of war,
His realms, as well hereditary as acquired,
Went abroad;
And having ſearched into the manners
Of the ſeveral nations in Europe,
Came through France to Namur and Liege,
To theſe waters at SPA,
As to the haven of health;
And having happily drank of thoſe moſt healthful ſprings,
Particularly that of GERONSTERRE,
Was reſtored to his former ſtrength,
And his deſired health,
In the year 1717, 22d of July;
Thence returning through Holland
To his hereditary dominions,
Ordered this eternal monument of his gratitude to be erected, 1718.

The biſhopric of OSNABURG is ſituated between the Weſer and the Ems; being bounded by Minden on the eaſt, Munſter on the weſt, Diepholt on the north-eaſt, and Ravenſburg on the ſouth-weſt. It is about 45 miles long, and 25 broad, and produces rye, paſturage, cattle, turf, coals, marble, &c.

The inhabitants, who are partly Proteſtants and partly Roman Catholics, cure great quantities of, and deal conſiderably in, hams, bacon, &c.

By a treaty concluded here in 1648, this biſhopric was to be an alternative between the Roman Catholics and Proteſtants; and the Proteſtant biſhop was always to be a younger prince of the houſe of Brunſwic-Lunenburg, or, in caſe of failure thereof, of Brunſwic-Wolfenbuttle. In conſequence of this ſtipulation, his preſent Britannic majeſty's ſecond ſon, Frederick, born Auguſt 16, 1763, is now biſhop of Oſnaburg. But though this biſhopric is thus alternatively hereditary in this Proteſtant family, it is not ſo with regard to its Roman Catholic biſhops; for they are choſen out of different families, by a chapter of 25 canons, of whoſe prebends the revenues of 18 are enjoyed by the Romiſh eccleſiaſtics; thoſe of four are appropriated to the ſupport of a college; and the other three by the Lutheran canons, who are capable of electing, but not of being elected, biſhops, as the Roman Catholics are. When they have a Popiſh biſhop, he is ſuffragan to the archbiſhop of Cologne: but the Proteſtant biſhop, who is a temporal prince, indeed, has little to demonſtrate him an eccleſiaſtic, but the title; and it was agreed, by the treaty aforeſaid, that when there is a Proteſtant biſhop, the archbiſhop of Cologne ſhould ſuſpend the exerciſe of his metropolitan juriſdiction, with regard to the Proteſtants. Since the reformation, introduced here in 1634, the biſhop, whether Papiſt or Proteſtant, has little more than the name; the Lutherans not allowing the exerciſe of epiſcopal juriſdiction, and the Papiſts not being ſtrong enough to obtain it for the biſhop of their own opinion. It is obſerved by hiſtorians, that Charles the Great, who founded this ſee, and dedicated the cathedral to St. Peter, and the two martyrs Criſpin and Criſpinian, exempted its biſhop from all manner of homage and ſervice, except in an embaſſy, at the emperor's charge, to negotiate any match that ſhould be propoſed betwixt the families of the eaſtern and weſtern emperors.

The revenue of this biſhopric amounts to upwards of 30,000l. and the biſhop is able to raiſe 2500 men; though he has only one hereditary officer, a grand maitre, or ſteward. The manufactures are coarſe linen, woollen and yarn. The diets are held at Oſnaburg; and the principal places are the following.

Oſnabrug, or Oſnaburg, the capital, was formerly an imperial city, and one of the Hanſe, but is now ſubject to the biſhop. It has its name from a bridge over the Oſe, which divides it into the Old and New Town; and is ſituated 67 miles weſt of Hanover, in the midſt of a fine plain. It is a neat, well-built city, and adorned with ſeveral handſome public ſtructures. It is encompaſſed with walls and ditches; but commanded by a mountain within cannon-ſhot; upon which there is an abbey, or ſacred retirement, for men of quality. The biſhop's palace, called Peterſburg, or St. Peter's caſtle, is well fortified, and ſeparated from the town by a bridge. It is an hexagon, with a court in the middle, and at each corner a turret. In one of the apartments of this palace George I. expired, the 11th of June, 1727, in the arms of his brother, prince Erneſt, and, as ſome ſay, in the very room wherein he was born.

The

The Papiſts hold the cathedral church, and the church and monaſtery of the Dominicans in the Old City, and the collegiate church of St. John in the New. The Lutherans have the great parochial church of St. Mary in the Old City, and a voice in chuſing the magiſtrates of both: therefore the government of the city is mixed. Here are three convents for monks, and five for nuns. The inhabitants, who are very induſtrious, not only breed abundance of ſwine, and other cattle, but carry on a conſiderable trade in making linen; in brewing a palatable, though thick ſort of beer, called Buſe; and in making the beſt white bread in all Weſtphalia.

In the cathedral are ſtill ſeen ſome ornaments of Charles the Great, among which are his crown of ſilver gilt, his comb, battoon, &c. As the exerciſe of both religions is equally free, neither Papiſts or Proteſtants are moleſted during the government of a biſhop of the oppoſite perſuaſion. The Brunſwic family having conſidered this city and biſhopric as part of their territories, it is obſerved, that when the poſſeſſion of it comes to their turn, they are more than ordinarily careful of it, and leſs exacting on their ſubjects, than where the incumbents poſſeſs only for their lives, and chuſe to make the beſt of their poſſeſſion, without regard to the benefit of their ſucceſſors.

Iburg, or Iborg, about 10 miles ſouth of this city, is only noted for a commodious caſtle, in which its biſhop formerly reſided. It was taken and plundered by Philip the Great, of Brunſwic, in 1553.

Furſtenau gives name to a diſtrict, which contains 15 pariſhes, and formerly had a palace, where the biſhops reſided. In one of the pariſhes round Borſtel, is a noble foundation for Lutheran ladies.

Widenburg, on the Ems, is a ſmall town, with a collegiate church, two nunneries, and a magiſtracy of its own.

Melle is a borough, containing a Roman Catholic and a Lutheran church, and having a council and burgomaſter of its own.

Vorden has the ſame privileges as Melle, and contains a church, common to both Lutherans and Roman Catholics.

Quackenburg, on the Hoſe, is a little town, with a Lutheran and Popiſh church; and the revenues of the college of canons is divided between both religions; but one of the Lutheran canons of Oſnaburg is always provoſt of Quackenburg.

The county of HOYE, one of the elector of Hanover's domains, has Bremen on the north, Minden on the ſouth, Lunenburg on the eaſt, and Diepholt on the weſt. It formerly belonged to counts of an ancient Saxon family, to whom it was given by the emperor Lotharius; but after the death of the laſt, in 1582, it was divided between the families of Brunſwic and Heſſe. Hoye and Nyenburg, Liebenaw and Bruckhauſen, became ſubject to the duke of Lunenburg; the forts of Seltzenaw, Ezenburg, and five more towns, to the houſe of Brunſwic; and Freudenburg and Ucht to the landgrave of Heſſe; the latter of which gave their ſhare to the counts of Bentheim: ſo that now it belongs almoſt wholly to his Britannic majeſty.

Its chief town, of the ſame name, ſtands on the eaſt ſide of the Weſer. It is ſmall, but well fortified, having one of the ſtrongeſt caſtles in Weſtphalia.

Nyenburg, on the eaſt bank alſo of the Weſer, 10 miles ſouth of Hoye, is another well-fortified town, which ſuſtained ſeveral ſieges during the wars of Germany. It was formerly the reſidence of the counts of Hoye; and its territory abounds with all ſorts of grain, fruits, paſture, and cattle. It has a caſtle on the weſt ſide of it, with broad deep ditches, and a good rampart, which commands the Weſer, and great part of the town, which has ſtrong walls, with a double ditch, and other works, that almoſt ſurround it. It had a fine bridge over the Weſer, which, being ruined, is ſupplied by ferry-boats, to preſerve the commerce between the two circles of Weſtphalia and Lower Saxony, which conſiſts chiefly of corn, wool, flax, honey, wax, and cattle. Nyenburg has alſo a fine pariſh church, with all the ornaments that architecture can give it; in which are the monuments of many of the counts of Hoye.

Old Bruckhauſen is a borough, with a caſtle and manor belonging to the ſovereign; Liebenaw contains manufactories of lace and ſcythes; Drakenburg is a borough on the Weſer; and Harpſtadt is a borough on the Delme, with a territorial juriſdiction.

Baſſum is a borough belonging to the landgrave of Heſſe; but it contains a noble foundation for ladies, of which the king of Great Britain is the ſuperior; Kellingerode has a ſimilar foundation; and Suhlingen, the reſidence of a ſuperintendant, has four conſiderable yearly fairs.

The country of VERNENBURG appertains partly to the archbiſhop of Treves, and partly to the count of Lowenſtein-Wertheim, both of whom it entitles to a ſeat and voice in the Weſtphalian college, and alſo in the diets of the circle. It is almoſt ſurrounded by the archbiſhopric of Treves, and contains only one place worth notice, viz. the borough town of Vernenburg, which is defended by a citadel.

The county of STEINFURT, which is 15 miles long, 10 broad, and ſurrounded by the biſhopric of Munſter, belongs partly to the empire, and partly to the primate of Munſter; is watered by the Aa, and gives to its count a ſeat and voice in the Weſtphalian college, and in the diets of the circle. The only place worth notice is the town of Steinfurt, which ſtands on the Aa, and contains a Calviniſt and Roman Catholic church, a commandery of St. John, and a college for the ſtudy of the liberal arts.

The Duchy of VERDEN, which is, in length, 22 miles, and in breadth 18, is bounded by Hoye on the ſouth, Bremen on the north, Lunenburg on the eaſt, and the Weſer on the weſt. It is well watered, but the ſoil is poor. The inhabitants are Lutherans; and the whole belongs to the king of Great Britain, who, on account of this duchy, has a ſeat among the princes at the diets of the empire, and thoſe of the circle. The only places worthy of obſervation are,

Verden, on the Aller, the capital, 50 miles ſouth-weſt from Hamburg, which was once an imperial city, ſtrong and populous, is now decayed; but, however, ſtill contains a cathedral, three other churches, and a Latin ſchool.

Rotenburg, on the Wumme, 15 miles from Verden, has ſome trade, is populous, and formerly contained a biſhop's palace.

The ſmall diſtrict called the Abbey of CORVEY, is tolerably fertile, watered by the Weſer, and has a Benedictine abbey, founded by the emperor Lewis I. The firſt monks having been taken from Corbie in Picardy it is called Corbie, or Corvey Abbey, which abbey is the only place deſerving of notice in the diſtrict, the abbot being a prince of the empire, and having a ſeat in the college of princes, and at the diets of the circle and the empire.

MALMEDI is a ſmall town, ſituated amongſt high hills, on the little river Lecht, 25 miles diſtant from Liege to the ſouth-eaſt, and nine from Limburg to the ſouth. They reckon here about 400 houſes, moſt of them inhabited by leather-dreſſers, or woollen-drapers. Here are ſeveral ſprings of mineral waters, which ſome phyſicians ſay are as wholeſome and ſtrong as thoſe of Spa. This city, though within the territory of the prince of Liege, is, nevertheleſs, in ſpiritual matters, under the juriſdiction of the archbiſhop of Cologne. The parochial church is dedicated to St. Gereon the Martyr; and here is a convent of Capuchins, and another of nuns of St. Sepulchre. But it is chiefly remarkable for its abbey of Benedictine monks, under the ſame abbot with that of Stavelo.

STAVELO (erroneouſly called Stablo by ſome) ſtands on the little river Ambleve, which falls into the Recht.

It is about 6 miles diſtant from Malmedi to the eaſt, and 9 from Limburg towards the ſouth. There are here about 400 houſes; and the inhabitants carry on a pretty good trade; tho' this town being quite open, has ſuffered very much during the wars. Here is a famous abbey of Benedictine monks, founded in the year 657, at the ſametime with that of Malmedi, with which it is united under the ſame abbot. But the jealouſy between theſe two religious houſes is the reaſon why they can never agree in choice of a regular abbot from amongſt themſelves; ſo that ever ſince the year 1576 they have always choſen commendatory abbots.

The abbey church, which is at the ſame time parochial, is a ſtately building, after the modern taſte. Under it there is a Crypta, or ſubterraneous church, with five altars. The abbot of Stavelo, who is ſtiled a prince of the empire, is ſpiritual and temporal lord of this town, and of its territory, which is very large, including the town of Malmedi; and his yearly income amounts to about 12,000 crowns.

The trade of this town conſiſts in woollen cloth, and other ſtuffs, and chiefly in a great quantity of leather curried here. There are alſo ſome mineral ſprings, ſaid to be very wholeſome.

The diſtrict belonging ro the Abbey of Werden is ſituated in the county of Mark. St. Ludger, whoſe eſtate it was, in 778 founded the abbey for monks of the order of St. Benedict. The revenue is about 20,000 rix dollars. The king of Pruſſia claims the right of ſovereignty here; and the only remarkable place is Werden, a little walled town on the Roer, which, beſides the abbey, contains a Lutheran church.

The diſtrict, or territory, of the Abbey of ST. CORNELIS MUNSTER is ſurrounded by thoſe of Juliers, Limburg, and Aix-la-Chapelle. The abbot has a ſeat at the diets of the empire, on the Rheniſh bench of prelates; but at thoſe of the circle he ſits among the princes.

The Abbey of Eſſen, and its territory, is ſurrounded by Berg, Cleves, Werden, and the county of Mark. The abbey was founded by Alfred, biſhop of Hildeſheim, in the year 877. The king of Pruſſia is hereditary protector. The abbeſs ſtiles herſelf princeſs of the holy Roman empire. The chapter conſiſts of none but noble ladies, and the abbey has a ſeat in the diets of the empire and circle. The hereditary officers are the marſhal, ſteward ſewer, and chamberlain.

Eſſenwick, the only place of any conſideration in the territory, is ſubject to the abbeſs as its ſovereign, but has very extenſive privileges. It is large, has ſome trade, a cloth manufactory, an academy, a gymnaſium, a commandery of the Teutonic order, and ſeveral Roman Catholic and Proteſtant churches,

The Abbey of THORN is ſituated in the biſhopric of Liege, and county of Hoarn. It is an Imperial free ſecular foundation; was erected in the year 1000; has a ſeat at the diets of the empire and circle; and a chapter, which conſiſts of princeſſes and counteſſes, of the order of St. Benedict.

The Abbey of HERFORD, ſituated in Ravenſburg, was erected in the eighth century, has a ſeat at the diets of the empire and circle, gives title of princeſs and prelateſs of the holy Roman empire to its abbeſs, contains none but noble canoneſſes, and is a Lutheran foundation. The number of ladies is indeterminate. The abbeſs is ſuperior of the collegiate church of St. Mary of the oppoſite mountains, and the prebends are in her gift. The canoneſſes wear a ſcarlet ribbon, with a ſilver border hanging from the right ſhoulder, having a croſs at the end, with the figures of our Saviour and the Virgin Mary; and on the left breaſt is a ſtar, with the ſame figures.

The Duchy of BERG is 50 miles long, 20 broad, and takes its name from being mountainous. It is bounded on the weſt, by the Rhine; on the eaſt by Weſtphalia; on the north by the county of Mark; and on the ſouth by the electorate of Cologne. Though mountainous, in many places, in ſome parts it produces corn, paſturage, fruit, vines, wood, and herbs; is rich in coals, iron, &c. The manufactures are cloth, iron and ſteel. The ſame regency and diet ſerves for this duchy and that of Juliers. The moſt conſiderable places in Berg are the following:

Duſſeldorp, at the conflux of the Duſſel with the Rhine, is 20 miles from Cologne, and 57 from Munſter. It ſtands in the midſt of a fine fruitful plain. The Rhine runs againſt it with ſuch violence, that they have been obliged to make great works to break the current. It was an Imperial city, and had a good trade before the removal of its fairs to Frankfort. It is large, pleaſant, well built, and defended by a citadel, which is ſeparated from it by a ſmall harbour, formed by the Rhine, and conſiſts of two royal baſtions faced with brick; and in the other parts it is fortified by five baſtions. The public buildings, towards the river, make a fine appearance; particularly its ſtately palace, an old Gothic building, (with paintings by Van Dyke, Raphael, Paul Veroneſe, Rubens, Julio Romano, Titian, &c. braſs antiques, ſtatues of marble, portable cabinets, &c.) which was the elector palatine's chief reſidence during the devaſtations of the palatinate by the French towards the end of the laſt century. In the market-place, over againſt the palace, is an equeſtrian ſtatue in braſs, on a pedeſtal of grey marble, of the elector John William, in armour, with the electoral bonnet on his head. Here are three weekly markets for corn, which is imported hither from the low countries, and exported in great quantities to Cologne, and other parts of Germany. The elector's reſidence being fixed at Manheim, a regency is eſtabliſhed here, for the countries of Berg and Juliers, which bring in a great revenue to the elector, are governed by ſtates, without whoſe conſent he can lay no taxes. All religions are here tolerated; but the Catholics alone are admitted to civil employments. Though the poſſeſſion be the elector's, yet the title is diſputed by thoſe of Saxony and Brandenburgh.

Ratingen has a ſeat and voice at the diets; Solingen is famous for its ſword-blade manufactory; Neſſelrode gives name to an ancient and noble family; Lenneſt has the firſt place and voice at the diets, and a cloth manufactory; Elverfeld has a manufactory of thimbles; and Kornberg is defended by a ſtrong caſtle.

Benſberg has a ſtrong fort and monaſtery, of the order of the Holy Croſs, which was built in 1298, and is the firſt of its kind in the empire. The caſtle, or palace, here, was built in a foreſt, on a hill, by the elector John William, and is worthy of notice. It ſtands three leagues from the Rhine, between Cologne and Duitz. It is built of a very hard ſtone; and the ornaments, particularly the pillars that ſupport the gallery in the front, are a kind of grey marble, dug out of the neighbouring quarries. The apartments are large, well decorated with the fineſt paintings; and they have an extenſive proſpect of the city of Cologne, the Rhine, and all the flat country; containing a great variety of beautiful ſcenes and enchanting landſcapes.

Principalities of NASSAU-SIGEN, or SIEGEN, NASSAU-DILLEMBERG, &c.

Sigen, or Siegen, near which is an iron mine, ſtands on the river Siega, 15 miles from Dillemberg, and 30 north-eaſt from Naſſau, on the top of a rocky hill, defended by a ſtrong wall, and regular fortification; and gives names to a county, of which it is the capital, as well as title to another branch of the Naſſau family. In 1559 the prince of Naſſau-Siegen's Pædagogium was brought hither from Herborn, and ſoon became ſo famous, that it was frequented by ſtudents from Germany, Poland, Livonia, Denmark, &c. to which an academy was added for training up youth in martial exerciſes. There is a caſtle here, in which the elector of Cologne keeps a garriſon as director of the circle; and not far from hece is a very good iron mine.

Dillemberg

Dillemberg ſtands on the river Dilla, 16 miles weſt from Marpurg, and 32 north-eaſt from Naſſau, and gives name to a county. It has a good trade in cattle and woollen goods, and two yearly fairs. The counts of that branch, called Naſſau-Dillemburg, had their ſeat in a fine ſtrong caſtle, that ſtands on the top of a neighbouring hill, where is a large arſenal, furniſhed with arms and ammunition for ſeveral thouſand horſe and foot; and the jaw-bone of a monſtrous whale caught near Catwick in 1598, which is worth ſeeing. The caſtle is ſurrounded by the town, which is built in a ſemicircle to the weſt, north, and eaſt; and there is a fine church, where the counts of this branch are interred. The court guard is on the ſouth ſide of the caſtle, and adorned with pavilions, walks, and other embelliſhments.

Beilſtein, or Beilinſtein, 15 miles north-eaſt from Naſſau, gives name to a county which was the inheritance of the Hadamars, a younger branch of the family of Naſſau, and was the capital of it. It is an old town among rocky hills; but has a caſtle, and a church, worthy a traveller's view. It lies in the midway betwixt Coblentz on the weſt, and Marpurg on the eaſt.

Hadamar is the capital of a territory on the confines of the electorate of Treves, which had the title of a principality before the extinction of that branch of the Naſſau family. It ſtands on the Lohn, 20 miles north of Mentz, and is defended by a good caſtle.

The County of Sayn belongs reſpectively to the margrave of Brandenburg Anſpach, the burgrave of Kirchburg, the counts of Witgenſhein and Hornburg, and the Elector of Treves.

The two firſt have a voice in the college, but all together have only one voice in the diet of the circle. Lutherans, Calviniſts, and Roman Catholics, have equally the free exerciſe of their religions. The only places worth mentioning are,

Altenkirchen, the capital, and ſeat of a regency, which contains a Lutheran and Calviniſt church, and is defended by a caſtle.

Freuſburg, on the Sieg, is defended by a fortreſs, as is the neighbouring town of Triedwald; and Hachenburg, which has a ſtrong caſtle.

The County of Wied is divided into two parts, New-Wied, or Lower County, and Wied Runkel, or Upper County. The only places here are Runkel, on the Lohn, a ſmall town, containing about 120 houſes, and a caſtle; Dierdorf, which is defended by a fortreſs; and New-Wied, a ſmall but regular town on the Rhine.

The County of Shauenburg is watered by the Weſer, and ſurrounded by Calenburg, Minden, Lippe, and Ravenſburg. It produces corn, paſture, ſalt, allum, cryſtals, with gold, ſilver, wood, ſheep, free-ſtone, lime-ſtone, pit-coal, gipſum, copper, iron pyrites, cattle, fiſh, &c.

It is 30 miles long, 20 broad, and the inhabitants are moſtly Lutherans. The county belongs partly to the king of Great Britain, the landgrave of Heſſe, and the count of Shauenburg Lippe.

The two firſt have a diſtinct voice in the diets of the circle, and a joint voice in the college of the Weſtphalian counts of the empire. The principal places are,

Hagenburg, with a caſtle, poſt-houſe, and manufactories of linen and buckram; Steinhude, on the Steinhuder lake, with the ſame manufactories as the former, and a fiſhery; and Sadthagen, which is well fortified, has a caſtle, orphan houſe, a ſtately mauſoleum, and a celebrated mineral ſpring.

Shauenburg, from which the county derives its name, at preſent exhibits only the ruins of an old caſtle; Viſbeck, on the Weſer, has a Lutheran foundation for an abbeſs and 12 ladies; and Mollenbeck is the veſtige of an ancient cloiſter in a neighbouring wood.

Buckburg is remarkable for ſix things, a ſtrong caſtle, a beautiful church, a well endowed orphan houſe, an elegant town ſchool, a large Calviniſt church, and an admirable fountain in the market-place.

Rinteln, a fortified town between the Weſer and Exter, has an univerſity, the profeſſors of which are partly Lutherans, and partly Calviniſts. Here is a regency, conſiſtory, and ſuperintendancy; and ſome trade is carried on by means of the Weſer. To the univerſity of Town belong the revenues of Egeſtorf, formerly a Benedictine nunnery.

Soltorf is famous for its fine white ſalt; Obernkirchen for a noble foundation for Lutheran ladies; and Rodenberg for its caſtle and medicinal ſpring.

The County of Delmenhorst, which is tolerably fertile, is ſurrounded by the Weſer, Oldenburg, Diepholt, and Wildhauſen. The government is veſted in the regency of Oldenburg; and the only place of any conſideration in it is Delmenhorſt, from which it takes its name. This town is ſituated on the river Delme, and has a ſtrong caſtle to defend it.

The County of Oldenburg is 40 miles long, 30 broad, and bounded by Eaſt Frieſland on the weſt; Delmenhorſt, and the Weſer, on the eaſt; Jover and Jode on the north; and Munſter on the ſouth. It is ſecured by dykes againſt inundations, and produces paſturage, cattle, and turf. It is noted for its horſes.

The king of Denmark, to whom this county belongs, is entitled in right thereof to a ſeat and voice both in the Weſtphalian college of counts of the empire, and in the diets of the circle. The adminiſtration is veſted in a regency, ſubordinate judicatories, a royal conſiſtory, and a ſuperintendance. The principal places in this county are,

Oldenburg, a town regularly fortified, and ſituated at the conflux of the Hunte and the Haare. It has a caſtle, which is now the reſidence of the regency; and a church, which was formerly the burial place of the counts of Oldenburg. The celebrated horn, called the horn of Oldenburg, was once kept in the caſtle, but it is at preſent in the muſeum at Copenhagen.

Varel, ſituated in a wood, called *The Buſh of Varel*, was formerly the capital of a ſeigniory, and had a wing of its fine caſtle burnt down in 1751.

The County of Bentheim is 40 miles long, 15 broad, ſurrounded by Munſter and the United Provinces, and abounds in wood, ſtone quarries, grain, paſturage, honey, veniſon, game, cattle, fruit, and fiſh. It has linen and woollen manufactories. The count has a ſeat and voice in the college, and in the diets of the circle. The inhabitants are Lutherans, Calviniſts, and Roman Catholics. The principal places are,

Bentheim, from which the county takes its name, a large borough town, 30 miles north-weſt from Munſter. It is defended by an old caſtle, where the counts reſide, is ſituated in a wood, and has a Roman Catholic and a Calviniſt church.

Wietmarſen has a noble foundation for ladies, and a ſeat and voice at the land diets; Schuttorf, on the Vechte, is the oldeſt town in the county; North-horn, ſurrounded by the Vechte, has a tolerable trade; and Frenſwegen, a cloiſter of regular canons of the order of St. Auguſtine, has a ſeat and voice at the land diets, and was formerly the burial place of the counts.

Dortmund is an Imperial city, has a ſeat and voice at the diets of the circle, and alſo at thoſe of the empire. It was formerly one of the Hans-Towns, has four Lutheran churches, two monaſteries, and one nunnery. It is populous and rich, has a communication with the Rhine by means of the Empſer, and carries on a tolerable trade.

The Imperial City of Aix-la-Chapelle is 15 miles north-eaſt from Limburg, 13 ſouth-weſt from Juliers, and 23 north-eaſt of Spa. It lies in a valley, ſurrounded with mountains and woods; yet it enjoys a very wholeſome air; and the hills are covered with vines. Its Latin name, Aquiſgranium, is ſuppoſed to be derived from Serenius Granus, lieutenant-general of Gallia Belgica, who, having diſcovered the ſprings here

here, anno 53, adorned them like the Roman baths, and built a palace near them: in confirmation whereof the natives ſtill ſhew, at the end of the town houſe, a piece of ancient architecture, which they call Granus's Tower, and ſay it was a part of his palace; though the building does not appear ſo ancient. According to Charlemagne's Pragmatic Sanction, this Granus was brother to Nero and Agrippa; and the Chronicle of Utrecht ſays, he was baniſhed hither by Nero. Artila, the Hun, having plundered and deſtroyed this city, it lay in ruins till the time of Charlemagne, who, hunting in the neighbouring woods, his horſe happened to ſtrike his hoof into one of the ſprings. The emperor obſerving this, and finding, by the ruins of ſeveral great buildings, that this muſt have been the old Aquis, ordered the baths to be ſearched out, and rebuilt; founded and endowed the collegiate church of St. Mary, in which he employed a great quantity of marble, that he ſent for from Rome and Ravenna; and was ſo charmed with the ſituation of the place, that he built a palace here, together with all that part of the city which is encloſed by the old wall; and made it the ſeat of his empire on this ſide the Alps; ordaining, that the future kings of the Romans ſhould be crowned here with an iron crown, as at Milan with one of ſilver, and at Rome with one of gold; which, though obſerved for a while, has been long ſince diſuſed.

Both the palace and town were burnt in 882, by the Normans; but the church, having ſo much marble, ſtood its ground. After the town was rebuilt, it ſuffered much by other fires, in 1146, 1172, 1224, 1236; and particularly in 1656, when 20 churches and chapels, and 5000 houſes, were burnt; but ſoon after rebuilt. In 1688 the famous treaty was made here between France and Spain. This town is called, by the French, Aix-la-Chapelle, from a chapel in the great church, where are abundance of reliques. It is noted for ſeveral councils, in the time of Charlemagne, and Lewis the Pious, concerning the proceſſion of the Holy Ghoſt, reformation of manners, the regulation of monaſteries, and ſuch as had ſeized the patrimonies of the church. It ſuffered much during the civil wars of Germany, when moſt of the citizens were Proteſtants: but the marquis de Spinola took the town in 1614, and re-eſtabliſhed Popery: ſo that the Proteſtants have not ſince been allowed any place of worſhip here, but go to church about two miles off, in that part of Limburgh which is ſubject to the Dutch.

Succeeding emperors continued to honour this city with their preſence, and to enlarge its privileges; ſo that it was made free and imperial. They were crowned here for 500 years after Charlemagne, as is expreſsly ordained by the golden Bull of Charles IV. but ever ſince Maximilian I. when 37 emperors had been crowned here ſucceſſively, that ceremony has been performed at Frankfort, which, being in the centre of the empire, is more convenient for the princes; but particularly for the ſpiritual electors, and for the elector palatine, who may ſend for their equipages, and return them back by the navigable rivers, the Rhine, Maine, &c. Nevertheleſs, the emperors, when crowned at Frankfort, proteſt, it ſhall be without prejudice to the privileges of this city: for Charlemagne having himſelf been a canon of its cathedral, and ordered his ſucceſſors to be ſo, they take an oath as ſuch, when crowned; at which time the magiſtrates ſend Charlemagne's ſword, ſhoulder-belt, and the works of the four Evangeliſts, in golden letters, to the elector of Mentz, who gives ſecurity for reſtoring them to this city when the coronation is over.

This city recovered its loſſes in the above-mentioned fires, by the bounty of ſeveral emperors, and the great concourſe of people to its baths. Frederick I. built the outer walls, towers, and ditches, in 1172. The circuit of the whole city is a league and a half, and the inner town three quarters. The inner wall has 10 gates, and the outer 11. The town-houſe, or ſenate-houſe, which was built in 1553, and ſince repaired by the citizens, in hopes of having the congreſs there, and not at Soiſſons, is a noble ſtructure of free-ſtone, and one of the fineſt in Germany. It is adorned with the ſtatues of all the emperors ſince Charlemagne, and with curious hiſtory-paintings; particularly thoſe by Amiſſaga, highly valued; among which are that of the reſurrection, and that of Charlemagne's giving the city their charter. The uppermoſt ſtory of it is one hall, 162 feet by 60; in which the emperors, who formerly received their firſt crown of iron here, uſed to entertain the electors, and other princes, who aſſiſted at the coronation. In the market-place, over againſt the town-houſe, there is a large ſtately fountain, with four ſprings, that run, from above, into a copper ciſtern 30 feet in diameter, and weighing 12,000 pounds. Round the edges of it there is a Latin inſcription, importing the diſcovery of the hot ſpring by Granus; as well as the renewing of the baths by Charlemagne; as that the cold fountain did formerly run into the baths; and that the ſenate adorned it, with this ciſtern, in 1620. From this the water runs, by ſix pipes, into a ſtone ciſtern below, and from thence it is conveyed through the city. On the top of the fountain there is a large braſs ſtatue of Charlemagne in armour, richly gilt, with his face towards Germany. As the city lies in a valley ſurrounded with mountains and woods, there are 20 other public fountains of good and clear water, beſides many private ones. Here are ten hot mineral fountains, and ſome cold ones, without St. James's Gate, beſides ſeveral in the adjacent fields; and the ſtreams that run through the town keep it very clean, and drive ſeveral mills.

Here are 30 parochial or collegiate churches, beſides the cathedral, a large old-faſhioned Gothic pile, which was conſecrated by pope Leo III. in preſence of the emperor Charlemagne, and 365 biſhops. The ſteeple, at the weſt end, is adorned with ſeveral pyramids; and on the top there is a large globe and croſs. From this tower, which is much higher than the body of the church, runs a gallery, ſupported by a long arch, to a cupola near the middle of the fabric. The inſide is beautified with a vaſt number of pillars of marble and braſs, gilt ſtatues, braſs doors and partitions, and a great deal of Moſaic work. Over the place where Charlemagne was firſt interred hangs a large crown of ſilver and braſs gilt, adorned with 16 ſmall towers, ſurrounded with 48 ſtatues, each a foot high; and 32 leſſer ſtatues, all of ſilver; among which are commonly placed 48 candleſticks; and, at certain grand feſtivals, no leſs than 450 tapers. This crown was the gift of the emperor Frederick I. who, removing Charlemagne's body, interred it in a ſilver coffin, under the altar of the choir, and covered it with the white marble tomb-ſtone it had before, with the buſt of Proſerpine upon it, ſuppoſed to have been taken from the tomb of Julius Cæſar. Out of this tomb were taken a great many rarities and reliques, which the ſaid emperor had got from Aaron, king of Perſia, the Patriarchs of Jeruſalem, Conſtantinople, &c. Here is alſo the monument of the emperor Otho I. in black marble.

The four chief reliques ſhewn to pilgrims here, at the jubilee, once in ſeven years, are theſe: (1.) What they call the gown, ſaid to be worn by the Virgin Mary at the birth of Our Saviour, made of a ſort of flax, that ſeems to be neither linen or callico; and being only expoſed from the top of a high tower, it is not eaſy to determine what part of apparel it is. (2.) A coarſe linen cloth, ſaid to have been girt about Our Saviour on the croſs. (3.) A piece of the cord he was bound with. (4.) Some of the blood of the protomartyr St. Stephen, richly inchaſed in gold and precious ſtones, on which the emperors are ſworn at their inauguration. Here is the picture of the Virgin Mary, with Our Saviour in her arms, emboſſed on a jaſper, about two inches broad, found in the emperor Charlemagne's tomb, and ſaid to be the work of St. Luke; alſo a MS. copy of the goſpels, in a cover of ſilver-

gilt, found in the ſame tomb; and Charlemagne's ſword, put on by his ſucceſſors at their coronation, and uſed in the dubbing of knights, and conferring other honours. At the eaſt end of the cathedral Our Saviour is repreſented ſitting in ſtate, with a long robe, on a throne, round which are the four animals repreſented in Ezekiel's viſion. Over his head is a circle of golden ſtars; and underneath is a ſymbol of the croſs, which appeared to Conſtantine when he defeated Maxentius. Here is alſo a repreſentation of the 24 elders, mentioned in the Revelations, riſing from the ſeats, laying aſide their crowns, and falling down before the throne. The windows are curiouſly gilt, and the pavement is of chequered marble. There is an immenſe treaſure here, conſiſting of veſſels of gold, and ſilver-gilt, copes embroidered with pearl, and other rich veſtments. Over the chief altar there is a cheſt of ſilver and gold, of antique workmanſhip, and curiouſly engraved, in which are kept the four reliques above mentioned. At the entrance of the choir there is a pulpit, covered with plates of gold and ſilver, and adorned with precious ſtones, eſpecially a very large agate, the gift of the emperor Henry II. The altar of the choir is covered with plates of gold alſo, repreſenting Our Saviour's paſſion, which, it is ſaid, was found in Charlemagne's ſepulchre. In the upper part of the church, over-againſt the prince's altar, between two pillars, is a throne, or chair, of white marble, ſuppoſed to have been placed there by the emperor Charlemagne, in which the emperors uſed to ſit when conſecrated, and receive the firſt obeiſance of the electors and the chapter of the cathedral, in quality of king of the Romans. It is not poliſhed, becauſe it was formerly covered with plates of gold, though they are not now to be ſeen.

The emperor, as duke of Brabant, and the elector palatine, as duke of Juliers, are protectors of this city. The latter names the mayor, or conſul, who is for life; and aſſiſted in the government by 2 burgomaſters, or joint conſuls; 14 eſchevins, or aldermen, who are alſo for life, and act as judges; and 120 common-council, that are elected, as are likewiſe the burgomaſters, by 15 trading companies of the burghers, and continue in their office two years.

The baths of this city are well known, and much frequented by the Engliſh, and moſt other Europeans. There are three within the inner walls of the Old Town, viz. the Emperor's, the Little Bath, and St. Quirinus's. Charlemagne was ſo much delighted by the firſt, that he often invited his ſons, and his nobles, to bathe and ſwim there with him; for it was the cuſtom anciently to bathe there, an hundred, perhaps, together; but it is now divided into five bathing-rooms. The Little Bath joins to it; and the ſprings of both riſe ſo hot, that they let them cool 10 or 12 hours before they uſe them. They are impregnated with nitre and ſulphur; and ſometimes cakes of brimſtone and ſalt-petre, of a conſiderable thickneſs, are taken out of them. They are unpleaſant to the taſte at firſt, and ſmell like a rotten egg.

Near theſe baths there is a fountain of warm water, much reſorted to in ſummer mornings, and drank for chronical diſeaſes. Thoſe in the New Town, which are the Roſe Bath, the Poors Bath, and St. Corneille's, are not ſo hot and clear as the former, and their ſmell is ſomewhat offenſive. Near the hot ſprings lie many cold ones, by which their heat might be tempered; and, with a little charge, they might be made the moſt delightful baths in the world. A phyſician of eminence ſays, that bathing in theſe waters is good againſt all nervous diſorders; ſuch as convulſions, palſies, numbneſs, trembling, ſciatica, gout, ſwellings, diſtempers of the bowels, vertigoes, tingling of the ears, nephritic diſtempers, moiſt and cold affections of the womb, barrenneſs, abortion, ſcabs, and the dregs of mercury. Though they are propereſt for bathing, they are alſo drank, in ſeveral caſes, with ſucceſs, againſt hot diſtempers of the liver, ſpleen, reins, and bowels; obſtructions of the meſentery, pancreas, liver, ſpleen, and reins. They cure the yellow jaundice and its effects, a cachexy and dropſy. They are good againſt inveterate and ſtubborn fevers, tertian and quartan agues, and bleeding at the noſe. They produce good effects in the ſcurvy, rheumatiſm, and other diſtempers, proceeding from too much ſerum in the blood. They kill worms, dry over-moiſt parts, and help conception. They purge the urinary veſſels of all impurities, cure ſtranguries and ſtoppages, and ſometimes diſſolve and expel the ſtone and gravel. They are excellent againſt aſthmas, and the moſt inveterate cholics, ſcirrhous ſwellings, ſcrophulous diſtempers, impoſthumes of the meſentery, diarrhœas, ulcers of the mouth, and diſtempers of the gums and teeth. The drinking of theſe waters is relief alſo in melancholy and hypochondriacal diſtempers. They recover loſt appetites, ſtrengthen weak and flatulent ſtomachs, and quench immoderate thirſt. From theſe virtues may be ſeen the agreement between the waters of this place and thoſe of the Engliſh baths. In fine, all thoſe baths, eſpecially ſome that are very lately repaired, are neat and commodious, the accommodations and proviſions good and reaſonable, and they are frequented by the beſt company.

About a furlong out of the ſouth gate lies the charming village of Borcet, or Porcet, which had its name from the wild hogs that abounded formerly in the neighbouring woods. Here are alſo many hot ſprings on both ſides of a ſmall cool rivulet, which runs through the town. They are conveyed by pipes and conduits into 14 houſes, in which are formed 28 baths. Some of them are much hotter than thoſe in the town, and muſt be cooled 18 hours before they can be uſed. Their water is clear and pleaſant, without any diſagreeable ſmell. They are, for the moſt part, five or ſix yards ſquare. There is one quite open to the air, called the Poor Man's Bath, which has a ſpring ſo hot, that the people ſcald pigs, and boil eggs with it; but it is obſerved, that they only harden the yolks, and not the whites. Theſe baths are not ſo ſtrong as thoſe in the city, and, of conſequence, the better for weak people; and thoſe of all ages and conditions bathe in them for their diverſion, without any danger. They are good againſt the ſame diſtempers as the others, and particularly againſt defluxions of the head and breaſt, moiſt and ſqueamiſh ſtomachs, dropſies, ſoft ſwellings, &c. and may be drank, as well as thoſe of the city; but the latter are more ſolutive, and thoſe of the village more ſtrengthening. The fountains are, in both places, ſo plentiful, that they are capable of filling, ſeveral times in a day, above 50 baths, of 60 or 70 tuns each; and moſt of them, but thoſe for the poor, are ſo contrived, that the old water is drawn off by ſubterraneous conduits, and the baths cleanſed from all impurities. It is computed, that, from the baths in the city, and in this village, there flow 6000 tons of water per day, which carry as many pounds weight of ſalt. The firſt ſeaſon for theſe baths is about the 18th of May, the ſecond about the 18th of Auguſt, and continues each time ſix weeks.

The village of Borcet is well built, has four handſome churches, and a nunnery of Bernardines, whoſe abbeſs is a princeſs of the empire; but there lies an appeal from her court to the eſchevins of the city.

The adjacent country abounds with corn, fruit, and paſturage. The woods furniſh the inhabitants with materials for fire and building, as the quarries do with ſtone. They have alſo rich coal mines, beſides others of iron, lead, vitriol, ſulphur, und lapis calaminaris; and are well ſupplied with neceſſaries by the Rhine and Maeſe. The territories of the city are large, and contain near 200 villages, enclоſed on all ſides with mountains.

Beſides the places already deſcribed, the circle of Weſtphalia contains the following leſs conſiderable counties, ſeigniories, &c.

The County of Diepholt lies ſouth of Delmenhorſt, is 12 miles long, 5 broad, and contains a lake called

Dummerſee, which abounds with fiſh and wild ducks. The ſoil is ſterile; and the inhabitants profeſs Lutheraniſm. Their trade is in coarſe linen and woollen, which they manufacture, and alſo in black cattle. Diepholt, the only town, is a borough, ſituated on the Hunte.

PYRMONT, famous for its mineral waters, lies on the borders of Hanover, near Ludge, 38 miles ſouth-weſt of Hanover, and 20 eaſt of Lemgow. It is the capital of a county, with a very ſtrong fort, formerly ſubject to its own lords, and now belongs to the prince of Waldeck. There is a great reſort of German and other nobility hither to drink the waters, which are preferred even to thoſe of Spa, and exported abroad from Bremen, to which they are carried by the Weſer. In the neighbourhood are one or two ſalt-pits; and the king's iron and ſilver mines are not far off.

The county of SPIEGELBURG is held by the prince of Orange of the elector of Hanover; hence the civil and eccleſiaſtical judicatories are ſubordinate to thoſe of Brunſwic-Lunenburg; and the elector has a ſeat in the college, and at the diets. The only place in this county worthy of obſervation is Spiegelberg, an ancient caſtle on a mountain, in the vicinity of which there is an hoſpital for old women, and a caſtle to which pilgrimages are made.

The county of Rittburg is ſurrounded by Ravenſburg, Lippe, Paderborn, and Oſnaburg. Its length is 17 miles, its breadth 6. Its count enjoys a ſeat and voice in the college, and in the diets of the circle; and its only town, called Rittburg, is ſituated on the Ems.

The little diſtrict of Gronsfeld was erected into a county by the emperor Rodolph II. and entitles its count to a ſeat in the college, and in the diets of the circle; as does the county of Reckum, which is ſeparated by the Maeſe from the duchy of Limburg.

The ſeigniory of Anhalt belongs to the prince of Salm, who, on its account, enjoys a ſeat and voice in the college, and in the diets of the circle; as does the count Metteruich, for the ſeigniories of Wrurienburg and Bielſtein.

The county of Holzapfel belongs to the prince of Anhalt-Bernburg-Hoym. The ſeigniories of Wittem, Eyſs, and Schlenacken, belong to the count of Platterburg; and both entitle their proprietors to a ſeat in the college, and in the diets of the circle.

The counties of Blankenheim and Gerolſtein, the ſeigniories of Gehmen, Gimborn, and Neuſtadt, Wickerhad, Mylendonk, Reichenſtein, Kerpen, and Lommerſum, Schleinden, and the county of Hallermund, all entitle their reſpective proprietors to a ſeat and voice in the college, and in the diets of the circle.

THE CIRCLE OF THE UPPER RHINE.

THIS circle is bounded by the Lower Rhine, which almoſt interſects it, and by Weſtphalia, Franconia, Swabia, Upper Saxony, Lower Saxony, Alſace, and Lorrain. It was anciently much larger than it is at preſent, as a great portion hath been diſmembered from it by France. The diets are held at Frankfort, the archives are kept at Worms, and it preſents two aſſeſſors to the chamber of Wetzlar. Its diviſions and ſubdiviſions are the following:

The Biſhopric of WORMS is about 12 miles in length, and 8 in breadth where broadeſt. It is interſected by the Rhine, and ſurrounded by the lower palatinate. In general it is barren, mountainous, and woody; though ſome few parts are fruitful in corn and wine. The Proteſtants here are miſerably oppreſſed. The chapter chuſes the biſhop, whoſe revenue does not exceed 2,500l. and who, in ſpirituals, is ſubject to the archbiſhop of Mentz.

Worms, the capital city, is ſituated on the weſt ſide of the Rhine, at the diſtance of 26 miles ſouth of Frankfort on the Maine. While the Imperial chamber was kept here, it was one of the moſt conſiderable cities in the whole empire. It is celebrated for the great diet held here in the year 1521, to which Luther came according to his ſummons; though his friends would fain have diſſuaded him, by reminding him of John Huſs, who was burnt by a decree of the council of Conſtance, notwithſtanding the paſſport granted him by the emperor Sigiſmund; but Luther, far from being terrified, ſaid, "That though he was ſure to be engaged with as many devils as there were tiles upon the houſes of Worms, he was reſolved to go." He came hither accordingly; and made ſuch a defence of his doctrine, that he was proſcribed, and obliged to abſcond; during which time he wrote that book called his *Works from the Deſart*. The Lutherans have only one church for their uſe; and the Papiſts have all the reſt of the churches. The Calvaniſts have one at Newhauſel, half a league out of the city, where the Lutherans ſometimes ſcruple not to have their children baptized, contrary to the cuſtom of Frankfort. The town has no other fortification than a double wall; and is as large as Frankfort, ill-peopled, and poor. It was often taken and retaken during the civil wars in Germany; but ſuffered moſt by the French, who, in 1689, laid in aſhes, in a few hours, what had been the work of ages.

In 1698 the Popiſh clergy, who had not been allowed to make any proceſſion, except on the day after Eaſter, nor to carry the hoſt in public, determining to carry it in proceſſion through the ſtreets on Chriſtmas day, the magiſtrates ſent a notary to forbid it; but the prieſt, at the head of the proceſſion, ſtruck him over the head with a cenſor that he carried in his hand. Moſt of the burghers, being Proteſtants, ran to aſſiſt the notary; but a great number of Popiſh peaſants, brought in for the purpoſe, fired upon them, which ſo incenſed the Proteſtants, that they drove the proceſſion back to the church from whence it came, and wounded ſeveral of the Papiſts, particularly the inſolent prieſt. The Papiſts complained of this as a breach of the treaty of Ryſwick, betwixt France and the empire, which reſtored Worms, and its dependencies, to the biſhop. The Proteſtants pleaded the treaty of Weſtphalia in their own defence. Some of the principal authors of the tumult were ſeized, and a Palatine regiment quartered in the city to prevent diſturbances. At the ſame time the elector encloſed it with a wall.

The city is ſubject to the biſhop, but under the protection of the elector palatine. The Papiſts, who are very numerous here, have the cathedral; but the magiſtrates, and moſt of the inhabitants, are Lutherans. There is ſo much vacant ground in the town as, being planted with vines, yields annually 1500 fodders of wine, each containing 250 Engliſh gallons. This wine is ſo much eſteemed, that the magiſtrates make preſents of it, with ſome fiſh, to princes, and other travellers of quality. The preſent of the fiſh is to denote their right of fiſhery on the Rhine.

The churches of St. Paul and St. John are very ancient. The latter is built of vaſt ſquare ſtones, in an irregular manner, with narrow windows, and galleries round the outſide, juſt under the roof; and the walls are above 12 feet thick; ſo that it ſeems to have been deſigned for a fort rather than a church. The cathedral is a long, high, and ſtrong ſtructure, with a tower at each of the four corners. The ornaments are Gothic; and over one of the gates there is an hieroglyphic, being a figure of the ſize of an aſs, with four heads, viz. thoſe of a man, an ox, an eagle, and a lion. The two firſt are looking upwards, and the two other downwards. It is ſuppoſed to be a repreſentation of the four beaſts in Ezekiel's viſion; or, as ſome think, of the hieroglyphics of the four evangeliſts. A woman ſits on its back, which they ſay repreſents the goſpel.

There are two public halls here, in one of which the magiſtrates aſſemble twice a week for matters of ſtate, and in the other for the adminiſtration of juſtice. It was in the former that Luther, being heated with the debate, and the fire that was near him, called for a

glaſs of wine; which, being brought, he was ſo eager in his diſcourſe, that he forgot to drink it, and ſoon after it broke to pieces on the bench, without any body's touching, or being near it; whence the Lutherans concluded that there was poiſon mixed with the wine; whereupon they broke the bench, and ſtill kept the pieces as a memorial of his deliverance. A fine church was built here for the Lutherans not many years ago, in which the hiſtory of that great man is well painted.

There is a mint here, which is a noble ſtructure, with a ſpacious portico, where a vaſt number of bones and horns hang between the arches; the former of which, they ſay, are thoſe of giants that lived among the ancient Vangiones; and the latter, the horns of oxen that drew the ſtones which built the cathedral. The outſide of the houſe is adorned with many pictures, particularly ſome of thoſe giants in armour.

Since this city was laid in aſhes by the French, in 1693, it is little more than the ſhadow of its former beauty. The richeſt traders, conſidering how much both they and their anceſtors had ſuffered by reaſon of their lying ſo open to France, retired to Frankfort and Holland; ſo that its chief ſupport now is from the biſhop and chapter; the firſt of whom, however, being always a pluraliſt, and often an eccleſiaſtical elector, very ſeldom reſides here. The citizens, as are, indeed, thoſe of moſt other Imperial towns, are very complaiſant to ſtrangers. There is a ſenate, or ſupreme council, here, compoſed of 25 members, whereof 13 are for life. There is the fineſt country in the world, from this city to Oppenheim and Fendale. The fine ſpacious plain in which it ſtands abounds with corn, vineyards, and fruit-trees. A wine is produced here, which is called Lieben-Frauen-Milch, i. e. Our Lady's Milk. The Rhine is about 3 or 400 paces from the town; but it is ſaid it formely ran cloſe by its walls. Which way ſoever one approaches the town, the four towers of the cathedral are ſeen, which are all built of red free-ſtone. In the campaign of 1743 king George II. took up his quarters in this city, and lodged in the biſhop's palace, after the battle of Dettingen.

Stein, though only a fortreſs on the river Weſchnitz, gives name to a baiſiwick; and Leiningen is a town on a mountain, the citadel of which was deſtroyed by the French.

Neuhauſen, Turkeim, Rhein, Hockheim, and Dirmſtein, are all boroughs, with Proteſtant churches; in which, however, the Roman Catholics are allowed to perform their religious duties.

The Biſhopric of SPIRE is interſected by the Rhine. The other parts are ſurrounded by the territories of the elector palatine, and the margrave of Baden Durlach. Some parts are mountainous and woody, and others level and fertile, in corn, almonds, vines, and cheſnuts. It extends 32 miles in length, and 12 in breadth. The biſhop, though ſuffragan to the archbiſhop of Mentz, as a prince of the empire, has a ſeat and voice in the diets thereof, and of the circle.

The Imperial city of Spire is ſituated on a delightful plain, on the eaſt ſide of the Rhine, 12 miles ſouth-weſt from Heidelburg. It was erected before the time of Our Saviour, and the ſee was founded in the fourth century. The magiſtrates, and many of the inhabitants, are Lutherans; but the Roman Catholics have many churches, convents, &c. It has a ſeat, and votes in the diets of the empire, and thoſe of the circle, paying an aſſeſſment to the empire, and the chamber of Wetzlar. The French, who burnt this city in the year 1689 murdered, indiſcriminately, men, women, and children; deſtroyed ſeveral valuable marble monuments of emperors and empreſſes; even ranſacked the graves, and ſcattered about the bones of the venerable dead. Previous to this devaſtation it was the ſeat of the Imperial chamber. Since that time it has been built with additional beauty; but the Imperial chamber has been removed. At the diet held here in 1529, the word *Proteſtant* took its riſe; ſince which time perſons of the reformed religion have been diſtinguiſhed by that appellation. It is ſingular, that the biſhop is not permitted to reſide in this city; and when he is choſen, before he is ſuffered to enter it, he muſt redreſs all complaints. Then, ſitting on horſeback, between the two outermoſt gates, with one hand on his left breaſt, he muſt give it his benediction. He then makes his public entry, and the citizens pay him homage. This city is under the protection of the elector palatine. The fortifications are but very indifferent.

Philipſburg, eight miles to the ſouth of Spire, was at firſt but a little town. Afterwards it was encompaſſed by a wall, and at length erected into a city in 1443. It is conveniently ſituated for commanding the adjacent country, and was therefore fortified with ſeven royal baſtions, by Philip, biſhop of Spire, (who was alſo biſhop of Tiers,) in 1629, before the civil wars in Germany, and called by his own name. The elector palatine, Frederic V. under whoſe ſovereignty and protection it was, ſuſpicious of the biſhop's deſigns in fortifying this place during a peace, ordered him to deſiſt; but he refuſed, alledging, that he had the emperor's placart for his warrant. Upon this the elector raiſed troops, and demoliſhed the fortifications; for which the emperor ſummoned him and his confederates before the chamber of Spire, and deſigned to proceed againſt them with the utmoſt ſeverity, which was one of the cauſes of the civil wars in Germany. It has ſuffered ſeveral memorable ſieges, in the ſpace of 100 years. Spinola, the Spaniſh general, repaired the fortifications, and made it almoſt impregnable, in 1633. It was taken the year after by the Swedes, who gave it to Lewis XIII. and was retaken by the Imperialiſts in 1635. It was taken from them in 1644 by the French, under the prince of Condé, who joined the German Proteſtants. The French kept it till 1676, by virtue of the treaty of Munſter; and Lewis XIV. added ſo greatly to the fortifications, that they extended to the Rhine, which lies a quarter of a league from the town; and over the great gate put a Latin inſcription; thus, rendered into Engliſh:

"Lewis XIV. the moſt Chriſtian king of France and Navarre, having finiſhed the wars in both Germanies, and reſtored peace every where, cauſed this fortreſs to be ſtrengthened with theſe ramparts and walls at his own royal charge, as a monument of his own valour, and of the recovery of the German liberty. He compleated it in 1666, for the terror of his enemies, the ſupport of his allies, and a ſecurity to the French; it being the ſecond bulwark of France on this ſide of the Rhine, and a key into Germany; the loweſt in ſituation, but not in ſtrength.

"What he ſhuts, no man opens; and what he opens, no man ſhuts."

In 1676 the Imperialiſts retook it: and the emperor ordered the ſaid Latin inſcription to be eraſed, and another put up in its ſtead. In Engliſh it runs thus:

"Leopold, the emperor, pious, ſucceſsful, and auguſt conqueror, having undertaken a neceſſary war for aſſiſting his confederates, defending his ſubjects, curbing his enemies, and reſtoring peace every where, took this fortreſs by ſiege, that it might be a monument to poſterity of his breaking off the yoke of ſlavery from the neck of common liberty; and reſtoring it to Germany, from which it had been unjuſtly taken.

"In the year of our ſalvation 1676.

"For the terror of his enemies, the defence of his ſubjects, and the ſecurity of Germany, he ſhut againſt the French, and opened to the Germans, this ſecond bulwark of France on this ſide of the Rhine, and key to Germany, as a happy omen of his like ſucceſs in recovering more.

"What the French ſhut, the Germans open."

The

The Germans having regained it, after a ſiege of four months, it was granted to them by the peace of Nimeguen. In 1688 the French took it again; but it was reſtored to the empire by the treaty of Ryſwick in 1697, with the fortifications on the right ſide; but thoſe on the left were demoliſhed. It was again taken by the French in 1734, after a long and bloody ſiege, in which the famous duke of Berwick (natural ſon of king James II.) was killed by a cannon ball, betwixt his two grandſons, as he went to take a view of the trenches; but they reſtored it upon the peace that followed, at the beginning of the year 1736.

The biſhop of Spire reſides in the caſtle, a noble pile, founded in 1513, in a plain ſurrounded with marſhes, by George, count palatine of the Rhine, and biſhop of Spire; and repaired, in 1570, by biſhop Marquard de Hatſtein. The emperor has the right of garriſoning it; but the biſhop has alſo ſome ſort of juriſdiction in it.

Bruxhall, or Bruchſal, is a large open town in this biſhopric, on the river Saltza, with a caſtle, which is the ordinary reſidence of the biſhop, nine miles ſouth-eaſt of Philipſburg, and 12 north-eaſt of Durlach. Here prince Eugene kept his head-quarters during the ſiege of Philipſburg by the French, 1734.

Altrip, in the ſame dioceſe, though but a village, was formerly fortified, becauſe it commands a paſſage of the Rhine a little above Manheim. In the Notitia of the empire it is called de Alta Ripa, becauſe the bank of the Rhine is here very high. It was a place of ſuch importance to the Romans, that they kept a garriſon in it.

Eideſheim, Weibſtat, and Rottenburg, are ſmall towns. The firſt is ſituated on the Hart, the banks of which yield good wine; and the latter is defended by a caſtle.

The rich Provoſtſhip of WEISSENBURG was originally an abbey of Benedictines, ſituated in the ancient imperial city of Weiſſenburg, in the Lower Alſace; but, in 1546, it was converted into a temporal provoſtſhip, and annexed to the biſhopric of Spire, on which account the biſhop has a ſeat and voice in the diets of the empire and circle.

It is neceſſary here to obſerve, concerning the biſhopric of Straſburg, or Stratſburg, the cathedral and chapter of which are in the city of Straſburg, in Alſace, which is under the dominion of France; that, therefore, in reſpect to that part of his dioceſe, the biſhop is ſubject to France; but, on account of his bailiwick on the other ſide the Rhine, he retains the title and ſtate of a prince of the German empire, and has accordingly a ſeat and voice in the diets of the empire, and of this circle. But, in ſpirituals, he is ſubject to the archbiſhop of Mentz.

The Biſhopric of BASIL is extenſive; but the ſituation is in different dominions, as part of it lies in Switzerland, and part in this circle. The inhabitants are partly of the Roman Catholic, and partly of the Proteſtant perſuaſion; and the ſtates conſiſt of the clergy and nobility, with the towns and bailiwicks. The biſhop, whoſe cathedral ſtands in the city of Baſil, is a prince of the empire; having, as ſuch, a ſeat and vote in the diet of the empire, and of the circle. He is likewiſe an ally of the Swiſs. The only places in his dominions, which belong to this circle, are,

Bellelay, and abbey, whoſe abbot is mitred; Seehof, under the protection of the Canton of Bern; St. Urifitz, on the Daux, which contains a provoſtſhip; Bamtrut, on the Allen, containing a biſhop's palace, with a college and a Capuchin cloiſter; Arleſheim, on the ſame river, is the reſidence of the chapter; and Schelingen a market-town on the Rhine.

The territory of the abbey of the town of FULDA, called Buchen, by the Germans, was, by the Latins, called Fagonia, becauſe it was anciently a wilderneſs of beech-trees; but it is now improved to a rich ſoil, fruitful in every thing, particularly good wines. It lies ſouth of Heſſe, and north of Hanau, Reineck, &c. and is about 25 miles in length, and 12 in breadth, It belongs to the circle of the Upper Rhine, and is divided into 13 ſmall bailiwicks. Some reckon it a part of Heſſe, others of Wetteravia; and ſome again make it independent; becauſe its abbot, who is elected by friars, that muſt be all of rank, by 16 deſcents, is lord of the town and country, and primate of all the abbots in Germany and Gaul; is a prince of the empire; ſits at the foot of the emperor's throne in all general diets; and depends immediately on the pope, to whom he pays 400 florins, or 40l. on his inſtallation. But the country bordering on ſeveral Proteſtant ſtates, as Saxe-Gotha, &c. as well as Heſſe-Caſſel, there are ſeveral here of that religion. The abbot is, moreover, perpetual chancellor to the empreſs, and puts the crown upon her head at her coronation. The revenue of this country is betwixt 20 and 30,000l. a year. The abbot is able to raiſe 4 or 5000 men. His chapter conſiſts of eight provoſts. He has all the four great officers, rich equipages and livery, and a magnificent houſhold; and there is always a company of horſe-guards, and a regiment of foot-guards, well cloathed and mounted, to attend him.

Fulda, which is the capital of the county, ſtands on a river of the ſame name. It is contiguous to the abbey, which is of the Benedictine order, and one of the nobleſt in all Europe. It was founded, anno 744, by St. Boniface, and endowed with great privileges by ſeveral emperors. The great church, dedicated to that ſaint, is a ſtately free-ſtone pile of ancient architecture. The monks have two MSS. one of the New Teſtament complete, and the four Evangeliſts diſtinct; all ſaid to be written by St. Boniface, in a character much different from any now in uſe. It is an open town, but dirty, and not very well built. The palace is a ſtately pile of free-ſtone, with apartments richly furniſhed, and, together with the abbey, may be reckoned among the nobleſt buildings in Germany. A traveller of rank ſays, he was glad when he got out of this country, becauſe here he met with very hard drinkers, bad roads, and diſmal lodging. It was formerly a free and imperial city, till it became ſubject to the abbot.

Hirchfeld, on the ſame river, 20 miles north from Fulda, and 30 ſouth-eaſt of Caſſel, is a ſmall but neat city, noted for another abbey, which is of as noble a ſtructure as any in the empire, being built upon an arch ſupported by 16 pillars, of one entire ſtone each. It was founded by Pepin; endowed by Charles the Great; and one of its firſt abbots was Alcuinus, or Albinus, his preceptor, who lies buried in it. Since 1606, when its laſt abbot died, the revenues have been kept by a branch of the family of Heſſe, as adminiſtrator, and it was ſecularized by the treaty of Munſter. Its diſtrict, which has the title of a principality, is about 12 miles long, and the ſame in breadth, and lies on the eaſt ſide of Heſſe, towards Thuringia.

The Maſterſhip of ST. JOHN conſiſts only of the town of Heſterſheim, and a few villages belonging to the order of St. John. The Grand Maſter is a prince of the empire, and has a ſeat and vote among the princes in the diet of the empire and circle. Heireſham is a market-town, and the reſidence of the Grand Maſter.

The Abbey of PRUM is ſituated in the foreſt of Ardemes; was founded, in the eighth century, by Pepin, king of the Franks; and, in 1570, incorporated with the archbiſhopric of Triers. Hence the archbiſhops became its adminiſtrators, and, as ſuch, have a ſeat and vote in the diets. Prum, from which the abbey takes its name, is an inconſiderable town on a ſmall rivulet.

The duchy of SUINNERN was long poſſeſſed by a collateral branch of the palatine family; but that failing, it devolved to the electors, who, on that account, ſit and vote in the college of princes, and, joined with the biſhop of Worms, are ſummoning princes for the circle. Suinnern, the principal town, which takes its appellation from a river of the ſame name, is 30 miles weſt

weſt of Mentz, and has ſeveral churches. The duchy contains, beſides Suinnern, ſeveral ſmall and inconſiderable towns.

The little Duchy of Lauteren, in the laſt century, reverted to the electoral houſe, which is thereby entitled to a ſeat and voice in the diets: as did the bailiwicks of Lauteren and Veldenz, beſtowing, at the ſame time, ſimilar privileges. Veldenz is ſituated on the Moſelle, and Lauteran on the Glan.

The Imperial and free City of Frankfort on the Maine was anciently called Francofordia, that is, *The Ford of the Franks*; for the Franks uſed to croſs the river here, in order to make their incurſions upon the Saxons; on which account the latter at length built this city to reſtrain their ravages. It is now called Frankfort on the Maine, not only on account of its being ſituated on that river, but to diſtinguiſh it from Frankfort on the Oder. It is 18 miles eaſt of Mentz, and 20 from the Rhine. It is ſpacious, populous, and opulent; one of the Hans-Towns, and the ſeat of the Imperial diet. The river interſects and divides it into two parts, which have a communication by means of an elegant ſtone bridge, conſiſting of 14 arches, with a tower at each end 400 paces aſunder; but the whole is under the juriſdiction of the ſame magiſtrates. The river is about half as broad as the Thames at London. The town is ſurrounded by walls, encompaſſed with deep ditches of running water, and fortified with 11 baſtions, ſuitable counterſcarps, outworks, &c. The Maine, Rhine, &c. render its ſituation admirable for trade, particularly for bringing great quantities of corn and wine from Franconia, and the Palatinate. It has two annual fairs, which are frequented by merchants with various commodities, particularly books from moſt parts of Europe, of which they diſtribute printed catalogues; ſo that there is greater choice here than in any town in Chriſtendom, during the mart, which laſts three weeks; but at other times the booksellers have ſcarce any buſineſs. There are three marts every year; and the names of the foreign merchants are written over the arch, before the doors of their ſhops, which, when the marts are ended, are ſhut up. Moſt of the ſtreets are large, except two or three, which are full of traders ſhops. Some of the houſes are built of red marble, or timber plaiſtered, and painted or covered with ſlates.

On the north ſide of the city there is a ſpacious horſe-fair, or market, where a vaſt number of good horſes are ſold to the French king, and the neighbouring princes. The Jews are the chief jockies. The city is round, and has no ſuburbs; but is much larger, richer, and more populous than Mentz.

The chief ſtructures are the following: St. Bartholomews's cathedral, which, though too dark a pile within, is a ſtately venerable piece of architecture, built by Pepin, father to Charlemagne. In a long narrow part of this church, called the conclave, they uſed to chuſe the emperor. It has a very mean altar and benches for ſo celebrated a place. The other part, in which he was crowned, being a cloiſter of iron, faſtened to the baluſtrades of the choir, looks like a great bird-cage, having no ornament but an ordinary crucifix of braſs. A French writer takes notice of a curioſity here of another ſort, the tomb and white marble ſtatue (ſtanding in a niche of black marble) of John Charles, biſhop of Worms, who, as the inſcription ſays, was deſcended from the barons of Frankenſtein, who trace their genealogy from father to ſon, for more than 1000 years back.

The town-houſe, where the emperor and electors meet in council after the election is over, beſides the throne, has only ſome benches, covered with green cloth, and ſome pictures. The great hall, where the Imperial feaſt is kept on the coronation day, is not very regular, though large. The floor is covered with black and yellow cloth, the livery of the houſe of Auſtria. On the ceiling is painted the ſtory of Ganymede carried away by Jupiter's eagle; and of a raven tearing out the eyes of a perſon who had falſely accuſed another of murder. Before the houſe is a great ſquare, where, at this ſolemnity, an ox is roaſted, ſtuffed with veniſon, wild-fowl, and ſucking-pigs; and thither one of the electors comes in perſon for a ſlice of beef, which he carries to the emperor; and, after he has dined on it, it is abandoned to the populace. Another of the electors carries him a glaſs of wine, which, on that occaſion, runs from a fountain in the middle of the ſquare. A third carries him a meaſure of oats from thence: and in this ſquare, after the coronation, another diſtributes the medals, &c. ſtruck upon the occaſion. Here is a veſtry, where the electors are ſhut up during the election: at which time the marſhal of the empire ſtands before the door with his ſword drawn, to prevent the princes from coming out till it is over.

Braunfeld, which was formerly the emperor's palace, is now the manſion-houſe of the Teutonic knights, where debtors have a ſanctuary for 14 days, after which they may be taken up.

There is a port, or harbour; and

The citadel or fortreſs of Saxenhauſen. There are alſo ſeveral noble fountains in the city, and particularly three in the great market-place; and divers mineral ſprings and baths belonging to the city.

This city is governed by a prætor, 12 burgomaſters, 14 eſchevins, or aldermen, one of which is always a burgomaſter, and 42 common-council. The ſenate, which chuſes two burgomaſters annually out of their own number, is divided into three benches: the firſt is that of the eſchevins; the ſecond is that of the literati, or learned, out of which the firſt bench is ſupplied in caſe of a vacancy; and the third is that of tradeſmen, who never riſe higher. The grand bailiff, who is always preſident of the council, is choſe out of the eſchevins; and his office is for life, as well as the eſchevins. Beſides theſe, there are ſyndics, whoſe power is much limited.

The magiſtrates are choſen from among the nobility, but named by all the corporations of tradeſmen, except the taylors, becauſe one of them was chief in a revolt againſt the magiſtrates. The government here is milder than in moſt of the Imperial towns; and their liberties, which they boaſt of holding originally from Charlemagne, ſeem better eſtabliſhed.

The magiſtrates, and moſt of the inhabitants, are Lutherans, and have five churches, in one of which is much painting and ſculpture, an altar of black marble, a marble pulpit, and reading-deſk: the figure of our Saviour, with a globe, and a crucifix, both of alabaſter, &c. The altar-piece is a repreſentation of our Saviour's paſſion in the garden; and the cieling, and the fronts of the galleries, are painted with ſcripture hiſtories. The Roman Catholics are permitted to perform their religious duties in the cathedral, and have ſeveral chapels, and two convents; but they are not ſuffered to make public proceſſions. The Calviniſts have two churches about a league from the city, one for German and the other for French refugees; but the ceremonies of baptiſm and marriage, muſt be performed in the Lutheran churches. In the council held here in 794, three hundred biſhops aſſiſted againſt the Neſtorian hereſy. This city was one of the firſt that had ſpirit enough to demand the free exerciſe of the Lutheran religion, which, being refuſed by their magiſtrates, 1522, they depoſed them, and choſe others; and, in 1530, the Augſburg confeſſion was eſtabliſhed here.

This city was beſieged twice in 1552, by Maurice, elector of Saxony, and by Albert, margrave of Brandenburg, who took it; but it ſoon recovered its liberty, and has flouriſhed ever ſince. On the wall of the great bridge of Saxenhauſen, is an indifferent, though much celebrated, picture, repreſenting a dead infant beſmeared with blood, and an inſcription beneath, denoting, that, on Palm Sunday, 1475, a child, of two years and a half of age, called Simon, was murdered by the Jews. Under the child a Jew is exhibited in a black cloak, with a ruff, ſtriding on a hog,

hog, with his face towards its tail, which he holds in his hand inſtead of a bridle. A monſtrous figure follows, and ſpits in his face; and a mob of women and fiends ſurrounds him, inſulting both him and his companion, whom another fiend carries on his ſhoulders. The populace firmly believe this ſtory; yet it is well known to the learned, and more ſenſible part of the inhabitants of Frankfort, to be an abſolute fiction, deſigned merely to prejudice the people againſt the Jews. This ſect have a ſynagogue here; but the walls are as black and ſmoaky as thoſe of a kitchen; and they are confined all night to their particular quarter, which is in a ſtreet about a mile in length, but very narrow and dirty, with a gate at each end of it, that is ſhut every evening, and the keys carried to the magiſtrates. Their houſes are generally of timber, plaſtered, and four, five, or ſix ſtories high, but as naſty as a hog-ſtye: yet, in this little quarter, it is ſaid, there are 3 or 4000 ſouls. Their chief trade is buying and ſelling old wares, hawking toys at the inns, and changing ſuch money as is not current here; but none of this can they do on Saturday, which is their ſabbath; nor on Sunday, which is ours; for if they were to appear in the ſtreets upon the latter, they would certainly be pelted by the mob; ſo much are they hated by the German populace; who, in 1614, roſe againſt their anceſtors, and pillaged them cruelly upon this account. The citizens of Frankfort quarrelled with their magiſtrates to ſuch a degree, that the mob beſet the ancient ſenators in the council-chamber for four days together, and thereby forced them to quit the place, as well as their offices; and they could not be reſtored, notwithſtanding two mandates came from the emperor to that purpoſe. During this, on St. Bartholomew's day, a great mob vented their fury alſo on the Jews, who barricadoed the gates of their ſtreet, made the beſt defence they could, and killed and wounded ſome of the ring-leaders. This ſo exaſperated the reſt, that they broke upon their quarter, and forced them to their burying-place, and to abandon all that they could not carry thither to the ravage of the plunderers. They were, however, ſtopt in their riot early next morning, by the majority of the citizens, foot and horſe, well armed, who ſeized the plunderers, ſecured the effects they had taken from the right owners, and ſo put an end to the inſurrection. The Jews, however, who had intrenched themſelves in their burial-place, fearing the populace might riſe again, and force them out of it, begged and obtained leave to retire out of town, with their families, and ſuch effects as were ſaved or recovered from the plunderers.

This fatal day they afterwards called the Day of their Tribulation, as they had called their quarter Little Jeruſalem, and, it is obſerved, that the day they were obliged to fly from Frankfort was a ſolemn faſt, which they had been uſed to keep in memory of the deſtruction of the ancient Jeruſalem by Nebuchadnezzar, and by Titus Veſpaſian. Mean time the remains of theſe poor Iſraelites, at Frankfort, are obliged, under ſevere penalties, to fetch water, when any fire breaks out in the city, be it ever ſo diſtant from their quarter. In recompence, the magiſtracy permits them to chuſe 12 judges, out of their own body, to decide their own differences, who are called bawmeeſters; and thoſe who will not ſubmit to their deciſions, are allowed to appeal to the Lutheran tribunals. They are obliged to wear a piece of yellow cloth, that they may be known from the other inhabitants: though their habit is very diſtinguiſhing; for the men generally wear coarſe thread-bare cloaks, flat-brimmed hats, old greaſy ruffles, and thick pointed beards. The women wear over their clothes ſhort cloaks of black crape, bound about their necks by claſps of gilt copper; and round their ſhoulders a ſparkling border of tinſel, a foot in breadth. As for their head-dreſs, it is only a courſe wrapper, ending at their forehead in two large horns, about four fingers broad, one of which is covered with black gauze, and the other with a bit of lawn dyed blue. The Jewiſh girls are diſtinguiſhed from the married women by their head-dreſs, which is nothing but a piece of red taffeta bordered with a gold gauze, with which their hair is gathered and tied. A great number of the Jeweſſes here wear earrings, which repreſent the ſigns of their houſes or ſhops, be they cat, dog, or any other animal. By their ſynagogue they have their hot and cold baths. The former are in two little rooms, where there are cauldrons to heat the water. The cold are in a ſubterraneous place, 30 feet deep, ſurrounded by an iron rail, where the women peep over, to ſee that ſhe who bathes plunges over head and ears into the water, according to their old law, which ordains, that every hair be purified. There is a place with ovens, for baking their victuals on their ſabbath-day, to which each family carries their pot, or pan, on the eve, and it is taken home next day, when the ſervice is over. Their timber houſes being ſo cloſe, and apt to catch fire, their quarter has been twice burnt down.

At ſeveral houſes in Frankfort there are pine-trees planted by the doors, denoting they are taverns; and cyphers painted on the door-poſts, marking the different prices of the wines.

Saxenhauſen formerly belonged to the elector of Mentz, but was bartered for the town of Hochſt, which depended on Frankfort; and ſince this change one of the city council muſt reſide at Saxenhauſen.

As to the three originals of the famous Golden Bull of which two are preſerved at Prague and Nuremberg, the third is kept in an apartment of the town-houſe of Frankfort; but is never ſhewn to ſtrangers, except in preſence of two of the council, and the ſecretary. It is a ſmall manuſcript, in quarto, conſiſting of 42 leaves of parchment, with a gold ſeal of 3 inches diameter, weighing 20 ducats, appended to it by a cord of yellow ſilk. It is written in Latin and Gothic characters, without diphthongs; and kept in a black-box, together with two written copies of a tranſlation of it into the German language. This Bull, which they likewiſe call the Caroline Law, contains the rules and ceremonies to be obſerved in the choice of the emperor; ſettles the power and authority of all ranks of the nobility; and ſo binds the emperor and the princes to one another by oath, that neither may, with impunity, inſtigate or attempt any thing to the detriment or danger of the commonwealth, the country, the empire, or its neighbours; and, amongſt other conditions for which the author of it is eſpecially commended, it decrees, "That whoſoever hereafter had a view to the Imperial dignity, ſhould be well acquainted with the languages, particularly the Latin, Italian, French, Tuſcan and German; that, when he was emperor, he might be able to anſwer his ſubjects in the ſeveral languages, without an interpreter."

An ingenious writer thus characterizes this famous city, and the inhabitants of it. "There are, (ſays he) few places, upon the whole, more diſagreeable, and few towns in Germany where the common people are more unpoliſhed. The burghers are not to be matched for affectation. As moſt of the electors and princes of the empire have their agents here, to whom they give the title of reſidents, they are for the greateſt part, merchants of this city, who ſolicit the title, in order to be exempt from the authority of the ſenate, and from the payment of the cuſtoms, and to qualify themſelves to place over their doors the arms of the princes to whom they ſend the newſpapers."

While the empire was in the hands of the French the princes were all obliged to appear in perſon, unleſs they were excuſed by the emperor and electors; but now moſt of them ſend their deputies to ſave charges, which much retards their proceedings; becauſe their deputies are often obliged to ſend for their inſtructions. To ſuch abbots and biſhops who are not deputies, the emperor does not write, but only to their directors, that they may give them notice. Though, ſince Maximilian's time, many of the princes have forborne to ſend deputies, yet they are as much obliged

obliged to ſubmit to the reſolves of the diet as if they did. Sometimes, in caſes of great importance, the emperor not only ſends letters, but ambaſſadors, to require their preſence; and, in urgent affairs, thoſe who do not ſend, make their ambaſſadors plenipotentiaries. All the princes bear their own charge, or that of their deputies. When they arrive, they give notice to the hereditary marſhal of the empire, under the elector of Saxony, who aſſigns them apartments according to their quality. If the emperor be preſent, they beg audience of him, ſhew their ſummons, thank him for calling the diet, and promiſe concurrence for the good of the empire. If he be abſent, the princes ſend officers, to notify their arrival to the director of Mentz; but if they are deputies, they ſend their ſecretaries with their full powers, as do alſo the deputies of the towns. When they are all come, the marſhal of the empire acquaints them when and where the emperor, or his commiſſary, is to tell them what he has to propoſe. There is no upper and lower houſe, but all aſſemble in one room. The emperor goes in his robes to the throne, which he aſcends by three ſteps. The electors ſit on a bench, which they aſcend by two ſteps; and the princes on other benches, not raiſed ſo high. If the emperor is preſent, the firſt thing they do is to attend him to church, where prayers are put up for a bleſſing on their conſultations. When they are returned, the elector of Treves, in the name of the ſtates, thanks the emperor for calling a diet; and the ſecretary of the empire, receiving the propoſals from the vice-chancellor, reads them. After this, the colleges retire to their ſeveral apartments; and, when they have conſidered them, agree upon a day for meeting and imparting their thoughts to one another, which, when paſſed into a reſolve, they ſend to the emperor; and, if approved by him, it becomes a law or conſtitution of the empire. The princes are divided into benches, called the ſpiritual and the ſecular.

The archduke of Auſtria, and the duke of Burgundy, though ſecular princes, ſat formerly on the eccleſiaſtical bench, becauſe they were princes of extraordinary eminence; and the maſter of the Teutonic order does the ſame. The Lutheran princes were formerly excluded from the diet, till, by the treaty of Weſtphalia, they were allowed a place by themſelves, between the eccleſiaſtical and ſecular princes. All the eccleſiaſtical and ſecular members have not equal votes; for ſuch of both as have princely dignities, are allowed ſingle votes; but thoſe who have not, give their votes by companies, as the deputies of the towns of the bench of the Rhine, or of Suabia. The towns of Franconia and Suabia, which include thoſe of Saxony, are alſo allowed two benches, and two votes. The deputies of the Imperial towns make up the third rank of members. The deputies of the city where the diet is held, ſit at a table by themſelves, and take an account of the voices of the other delegates, which are brought to them, and regiſtered by the two regiſters of Ulm and Spire; the former repreſenting the cities in the circle of the Rhine, and the latter thoſe of Suabia. All the votes in this auguſt aſſembly are ſaid not to exceed 250.

The emperor's throne is covered with cloth of gold; and the chairs and benches of the other princes and ſtates, with cloth of ſilver, velvet, ſatin, ſilk, &c. according to their rank and quality. The elector of Treves ſits at the foot of the throne, as director of the electoral college. The electors of Cologne, Bohemia, Palatine, and Brandenburg, ſit on the right; and thoſe of Mentz, Saxony, Bavaria, and Hanover, on the left. The eccleſiaſtical princes ſit under the electors on the right, and the ſecular princes under the electors on the left. The deputies of the towns, and of the bench of the Rhine, ſit under the eccleſiaſtical; and the deputies of the towns, and the bench of Suabia, ſit under the ſecular princes. The deputies of Lubec and Oſnaburg ſit at the croſs bench before the elector of Treves; and the marſhal of the empire ſits at a table, in the middle of the hall, before the croſs bench. The directoral table, with the officers attending it, is on one ſide, before the ſecular princes. Thoſe princes only have a right to ſit in the college of princes, and to have a deliberative and deciſive voice, who contribute to the ſupport of the empire, according to the Matricula. The directors of this college are the archbiſhop of Saltzburg, and the archduke of Auſtria, who preſide alternately, as freſh matters come upon the tapis. The votes of the ſecular and eccleſiaſtical bench, which are taken alternately, are collected by the marſhal; after which, the archbiſhop of Saltzburg, and the archduke, draw the reſult, and report it to the diet. Such princes as poſſeſs ſeveral dominions, have a vote for each. The magiſtrates of the city where the diet is held, are directors of the college of the towns. The abbeſſes, who are princeſſes, ſend deputies.

Though the point of precedency, among the electors, has been long ſince ſettled by the Golden Bull, yet the other princes, and the repreſentatives of the cities, have not agreed on the matter to this day; inſomuch, that it occaſions perpetual quarrels: and the diet would ſometimes break up in confuſion, if ſome of them did not, for peace ſake, yield to the reſt; entering a proteſt only, that ſuch an inſtance ſhould not be made a precedent. One fourth of a ſeſſion is ſaid to be generally ſpent in diſputes on this ſubject; a ſecond in drinking matches; a third in diſputes with the emperor about their privileges; and ſcarce a fourth upon the buſineſs propoſed to them from the throne; the emperor alone having the power of propoſing what is to be debated in the diet.

There is another aſſembly of the empire, called the aſſembly of deputations; where the deputies, choſen for that purpoſe, determine things that have been referred to them by a diet; or when the elector of Mentz, in the emperor's name, ſummons the deputies, at the requeſt of the directors or captains of one or more circles, to take orders about their affairs, or to ſettle controverſial points, which they are not able to decide themſelves.

The Lordſhip of Ollbruck belongs to the Wald bott-Baſſenheim family; that of Dochſtul belongs t the family of Oettingen-Baldern, and gives the proprietor a ſeat and voice in the diet of the circle: the Lordſhip of Britzenheim, on the banks of the Nahe, belongs to the elector of Cologne, who, in conſequence of poſſeſſing it, enjoys a ſeat and voice at the diet of the circle; and the counts of Wurtemburg, for the little county of the ſame name, have a ſeat and vote in the diets of the Upper Rhine, and in thoſe of the empire.

The Imperial city of Wetzlar, or Westlar, on the borders of the county of Solms, has nothing in it worth notice, but the great church. However, it is, at preſent, the ſeat of the Imperial chamber, which was removed hither from Spire in the year 1689, when that city was taken and deſtroyed by the French. The provoſtſhip of the town belongs to the prince of Heſſe-Darmſtadt, to do juſtice in his name. It ſtands on the confluence of the rivers Lohn and Dillen.

The Imperial City of Friedburg is ſeated at the foot of a ridge of hills called De Hohe, and enjoys large privileges, granted by the emperor Frederick II. The mart now held at Frankfort was kept here till the year 1340, when it was removed thither at the deſire of the merchants; and, in lieu of it, this city has four annual fairs; one of which is held on the firſt Sunday after Trinity, in remembrance of the dedication of their church on that day, which brought pedlars thither with toys, and at length cauſed the eſtabliſhment of a ſubſtantial trade. Some of the emperors reſided here formerly, certain months in the year. This town has ſuffered by terrible fires, particularly in 1383, when 900 houſes were burnt; and in 1447, when 700 more ſhared the ſame fate. The laſt fire was ſaid to be owing to a quarrel between two of the townſ-

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men, one of whom fired the other's houſe, to be revenged on him. It was attended with ſuch a loſs to the citizens, that they were forced to ſell or mortgage the villages in their territory, to defray the expence of rebuilding their houſes. Friedburg is noted for the depth of its cellars, there being, in ſome houſes, two or three one under another.

The Duchy of DEUX-PONTS gave title to its dukes, a branch of the palatine family, one of whom was Charles Guſtavus, king of Sweden; but it became extinct in 1732, in the perſon of Guſtavus Leopold. Since that time it has been in ſequeſtration; the landgrave of Heſſe-Darmſtadt, and the abbot of Fulda, both Roman Catholics, being adminiſtrators. The elector palatine, as duke of Newburg, claimed this ſucceſſion, as does alſo the prince of Birckenfeldt, who is a Proteſtant, and next claimant to the electoral dignity after the houſe of Sultzbach. The duchy, which is ſuppoſed to have been an ancient fief of the biſhopric of Mentz, is divided into five bailiwicks; one of which, called Biſchweiler, lies in Lower Alſace, where there are other lands belonging to the family. It is, upon the whole, a mountainous, barren country, but has ſome fertile vallies. It has two ſmall rivers that join near the capital, from whence it has its name, and run ſouth to the Saare. Calviniſm was generally profeſſed in this duchy, till the Swedes became poſſeſſed of it, when Lutheraniſm began to flouriſh, the king of Sweden giving ſome of the beſt livings and preferments to the Lutheran clergy, which created great animoſities between the two opinions: but the late king of Sweden dying without iſſue, and the duchy devolving on, or at leaſt being claimed by, a Popiſh family, the Proteſtant ſubjects thought fit to unite, leſt their common enemy, the Papiſts, ſhould take advantage of their quarrels.

The city of Deux-Ponts, which, in the German language, is called Zweybruggen, and, in the Latin, Bipontium, from its two bridges over the ſmall rivers of Bliſe and Schwolb, whereon it ſtands, is ſmall, but neat, and was once defended by a good caſtle, ſince demoliſhed. It ſuffered much during the civil wars in Germany; and alſo in thoſe between France and the empire, when it was taken in 1676, by the French; but reſtored to the king of Sweden hy the treaty of Ryſwick.

The Landgravate of HESSE is ſituated on the north ſide of the river Maine. The whole country is bounded on the north by Weſtphalia; on the weſt by the duchy of Berg, and electorate of Triers; on the ſouth by the electorate of Mentz and Franconia; and on the eaſt by the duchy of Weimar and Thuringia. Its utmoſt extent, from north to ſouth, is about 100 miles, and the ſame from eaſt to weſt.

The air is cold, but healthful; the water wholeſome, and the ſoil fruitful, producing much corn; and, towards the banks of the Rhine and Lohn, grapes. Here are large foreſts, with abundance of deer, and game in general. In the mountains are ſome mines of copper and lead.

The houſe of Heſſe, which is one of the moſt ancient in Germany, is divided into two principal branches, Caſſel and Darmſtadt. The former compriſes Heſſe-Caſſel and Heſſe-Rhinfels; the latter Heſſe-Darmſtadt and Heſſe-Homburg.

The rights and prerogatives of the ſovereign princes of this houſe are great, they having three votes at the diet of the empire. They belong to the circle of the Upper Rhine; but Heſſe-Caſſel has a voice among the counts of the bench of Weſtphalia, for the county of Schaumburg. Cauſes, not exceeding 1000 florins, are determined by the courts of the county without appeal. Theſe princes have ſeveral privileges in common, ſuch as the right of protection and Imperial prefecture of the city of Wetzlar, which is at preſent exerciſed by Darmſtadt alone. The princes of Heſſe-Caſſel are not deemed of age till they are 25; but thoſe of Darmſtadt are at 18.

The eſtates of the landgrave of Heſſe-Caſſel are Lower Heſſe, in which are the counties of Pleſs, Caſſel, and Zigenheim; Marpurg, in Upper Heſſe, and Frankenburg; the principality of Herſhfeld, a ſecularized abbey on the Fulda; the lower county of Catzenellebogen; the county of Schaumburg, except Buckeburg, which belongs to the county of Lippe; and Smalwald, in the county of Henneburg; the bailiwicks of Rottenburg and Saxenhagen.

The landgrave of Heſſe-Darmſtadt, who is little inferior to the former, either in dominion or wealth, poſſeſſes the greateſt part of the upper landgravate, in which there are Gieſſen, Butzbach, Aendorf, Battenberg, Berg, &c. the county of Nidda, which conſiſts of ſeveral bailiwicks; the lordſhip of Itter; the upper county of Catzenellebogen, in which lies Darmſtadt city; the land of Epſtein, Braubach in Lower Catzenellebogen, and Kirnbach in Suabia. The ſucceſſion alſo of the county of Hanau was, in 1736, upon the death of its count, awarded to the prince of Heſſe-Darmſtadt, as next heir, on condition of his paying a ſtipulated ſum, by way of compenſation, to the houſe of Caſſel. The king of Poland, as elector of Saxony, ought to have had his ſhare in the ſucceſſion; but his majeſty gave up his rights to the landgrave of Heſſe-Caſſel by a treaty.

The branch of Rhinfels poſſeſſes the greateſt part of the lower county of Catzenellebogen, viz. Rhintel, St. Goar, fort Catz, Schwalbach, and Gevernhauſen; the bailiwicks of Richenburg, Florenſtein, and Brau; Rottenburg, and its diſtrict; Wanfried, Eſchweiga, and Sontra in Lower Heſſe.

The branch of Homburg poſſeſſes Homburg and its territory; Bingheim; and Wevelinghen and Helmſtadt, with its dependencies. The prince of Homburg has moreover an appendage of about 1000l. a-year from Heſſe-Caſſel, and 2000l. from Darmſtadt.

The branches of Caſſel and Homburg are Calviniſts; the branch of Darmſtadt Lutheran; and Rhinfels profeſſes the Roman Catholic religion, which is, however, not tolerated in the dominions of the other three princes, except in the ſmall principality of Herſhfeld. In theſe counties are ſeveral univerſities and academies. The ſituation of the country betwixt Upper and Lower Saxony, and the neigbourhood of Weſtphalia, occaſions the language of the people to be a mixture of High and Low Dutch. The laws moſt in force here are, the Roman or Civil, to which they join municipal laws of their own. The people are numerous and warlike, being raiſed and diſciplined by the younger ſons of the nobility, who are made lieutenants and captains in ſeveral diſtricts, and receive pay of the regent. In the prince of Heſſe-Caſſel's military ſervice are a general, two lieutenant-generals, a major-general, a colonel of the artillery, two commiſſaries-general of war, and one chief paymaſter; two troops of life-guards, one of white, and the other of black-horſes; three other regiments of horſe, three of dragoons, and five of foot; one of which is guards; beſides the militia commanded by a lieutenant-general. The landgrave has a privy-council, or court, for the game and foreſts; a chancery, or ſecretary's office; a treaſury and conſiſtory, for eccleſiaſtical affairs: and another court, called the French commiſſion, relating particularly to the French in his dominions. All the privy counſellors are members of the conſiſtory, to whom are added a ſuperintendant, a metropolitan, one of the court preachers, and a ſyndic.

The principal places in the landgravate of Heſſe are the following:

Caſſel, the capital city of the Lower Heſſe, ſituated in a rich pleaſant plain on the river Fulda, near the confines of the duchy of Brunſwic, 40 miles ſouth eaſt from Paderborn, and 98 north-eaſt from Mentz, is a place of good trade for wool and other merchandize; and fortified to the weſt with walls, ditches and a ſtrong citadel. It is the ſeat of the landgrave, whoſe

palace

palace ſtands without the town, ſurrounded by bulwarks, with apartments contrived in the very ramparts, to lodge his family during a ſiege, out of the reach of bombs. The palace is of free-ſtone, magnificent, both within and without, and adorned with curious gardens and fountains. It is obſerved as a reproach to the inhabitants, that for want of induſtry, they ſuffer other nations to run away with the profit of manufacturing their wool. There is a gymnaſium, or academy, here, which has been much eclipſed by the univerſity of Marpurg. Here is a great arſenal of free-ſtone, with arms for 25,000 men; and in the room under it are 200 pieces of cannon, ſome 64 pounders. From the palace there is a proſpect of no leſs than 60 towns, the leaſt of which contains 300 houſes. The ſtreets of this city are ſpacious, full of ſhops, and contain ſeveral fine markets, with good proviſions of all ſorts. The landgrave has a library well furniſhed with books and curioſities. In the great church are the monuments of the landgraves, in braſs, copper, and marble, of very good workmanſhip. The cathedral, dedicated to St. Martin, is very ſpacious. There are four other churches, which have two miniſters each, beſides the ſoldiers church, which has but one. There is a church likewiſe in the palace, for the worſhip of the court. A fine ſtone bridge over the river divides the city into two parts, of which that called the New Town is well built, with uniform houſes; and the ſtreets are pretty even and ſpacious. The landgrave, the founder of it, has alſo made one of the fineſt aqueducts in the whole country.

Wetter formerly contained an abbey, the revenues of which were allotted by Philip the Magnanimous, to portion out the daughters of ancient noble families.

Louiſendorf, in the bailiwick of Geiſmar, is inhabited chiefly by French refugees.

Hania, on the Wohra, contains one of the four high hoſpitals of Heſſe, in which 400 poor and ſick are carefully attended and maintained, out of the revenues of the Ciſtertian convent. The governors of each of theſe hoſpitals are nobles, alternately nominated by the two princes of Heſſe.

Rodemburg, a town on the river Fulda, is pleaſantly ſeated, and has a collegiate church, with a dean and 20 canons, well endowed. This place ſtands in a valley between two hills in Upper Heſſe, and gives title to a branch of the Heſſian family. It is divided into the Old and New Towns. In the Old there is a caſtle, which was demoliſhed in the year 1212, by the Imperialiſts; but rebuilt by William IV. landgrave of Heſſe, who, in 1574, adorned it with a fine garden, and a church, built throughout with white marble, dug out of a quarry at Morſſen, a village juſt below the town, on the ſame river.

Homburg, a town with a caſtle, in the Upper Heſſe, is the reſidence of the branch of the family, from thence called Heſſe-Homburg, which has the bailiwick, of which this is the head town, for its appendage.

Ziegenhein, on the river Schwalm, in the lower landgravate, is a ſmall but neat city, and gives name to a county, of which it is the capital; and was united by Lewis the Pacific, the landgrave, to his domain, in 1543. The ſucceſſion to this eſtate was formerly diſputed by the counts De Hohenloe; but their claim being referred to the diet at Worms, it was adjudged in favour of the landgraves of Heſſe, who have enjoyed it ever ſince.

Geyſmer, 12 miles north from Caſſel, is the capital of a bailiwick in Lower Heſſe.

Eſchwege, 24 miles from Caſſel, is a walled town, built by Charles the Great, deſtroyed by the Huns, and rebuilt by Henry II. It ſtands on the bank of the river Werra, by which wood and coals, the principal commodities of theſe parts, are conveyed down to the Weſer, and from thence to the neighbouring counties. It is ſituated in the Lower Heſſe, near the confines of Thuringia; and has belonged, with its territory, to the landgrave of Heſſe-Rhinfels ſince 1387, when it was taken from the elector of Mentz.

Smalcald, a town on a rivulet of the ſame name, has a good trade for iron ware, many mines of the neighbourhood furniſhing the inhabitants with plenty of that metal, which they work, and ſend to foreign parts. They alſo make and temper ſteel, from whence a village near it is called Stahlburg. This place was famous for the aſſemblies of the Proteſtant princes in 1530, 1531, 1535, and 1537, in order to make a league for the defence of the Augſburg confeſſion againſt the emperor Charles V. and the Popiſh princes of Germany, which league grew ſo powerful, that they forced the emperor to a treaty, held in 1557, at Paſſaw, by which Lutheraniſm was eſtabliſhed in ſeveral parts of the empire.

Marpurg, which ſtands in a pleaſant country, on the river Lohn, was once a free and Imperial city, afterwards ſubject to its own lords, and is the chief town of the Upper Heſſe, and the ſeat of the ſupreme court of judicature, to which appeals are brought both from Caſſel and Darmſtadt. It has a ſtrong caſtle on a hill, and is otherwiſe well fortified. The great church is a ſtately building, and has many noble monuments. The univerſity here, founded in 1526, is one of the moſt conſiderable in Germany. The profeſſors are Calviniſts. The town is large and well built, with ſpacious ſtreets. It has a very large ſquare, adorned with a town-houſe of curious architecture. The caſtle is ſeparated from the town by the river. In the other part is a ſtately building, the houſe of the commander of the Teutonic knights. The palace of the landgrave, ſtands on a riſing ground, from whence there is a view over large plains and vallies, watered with rivulets; beſides hills and vineyards, of which there is a fine proſpect alſo, from its free-ſtone bridge over the river.

Connefeld is a village, with a fine white alabaſter rock near it; Melſungen contains a ſeat belonging to the prince; Friedwald contains another princely ſeat; and Vach, on the Werra, which gives name to a bailiwick, is a much frequented thoroughfare, between Leipſic and Frankfort on the Maine.

Waldkappel and Allendorf both give name to bailiwicks; the former having ſome coal-pits, and the latter containing ſeveral ſalt-works.

Grebenſtein, on the Eſſe, gives name to a bailiwick, and is famous for its bridge, where, in the open air, a court of judicature is held, called the *Bridge Court*, in which every defendant is obliged to depoſit a fine; but on acquittal it is returned him, and the plaintiff immerſed in double the ſum.

Felſburg contains a palace belonging to the landgrave, and is defended by a caſtle; Gudenburg is remarkably fertile, and contains Nidenſtein, a very ancient town, and Merxhauſen, one of the four high hoſpitals of Heſſe.

Frankenburg, a large town, ſaid to be built by Theodorick, king of France, in 520, ſtands 15 miles ſouth-eaſt of Waldeck, in the weſternmoſt bounds of the landgravate of Upper Heſſe, towards Weſtphalia. In 1590 ſome mines of ſilver and copper were diſcovered here, but they turned to little or no account. About ſix miles weſt is Sachſenburg, where are the ruins of an old fort, built by the ancient Saxons, to ſecure their frontier from any incurſion by the French garriſon at Frankenburg.

Alſfeld, 19 miles eaſt from Marpurg, is one of the ancient towns of Heſſe, and had formerly very great privileges, even power over life; but it loſt its charter in an accidental fire many years ſince; ſo that now the inhabitants have only a memorial of it, by the chief magiſtrate's having a ſword carried before him. The town-houſe is an handſome building; and over the door is a monument in remembrance of the fire, with a Latin inſcription, denoting "That when things are irrecoverably loſt, it is the beſt way to forget them." This was the firſt town in Heſſe that embraced Luther's reformation.

Gieſſen, a town in Upper Heſſe, is defended by a ſtrong wall, and regular fortifications, and has a well ſtored arſenal. Its trade is dreſſing and ſelling of cloth. It has four gates, and as many ſpacious ſtreets, with a ſquare or market-place in the centre. The compaſs of its ditch is about an hour's walk. It has one great church dedicated to St. Pancras; and is governed by a council and a magiſtrate, beſides the officers of the landgrave. It has a fair between Eaſter and Aſcenſion day, which laſts a week. Round the neighbourhood are ſeveral caſtles, as Solms, Konigſburg, Fetzburg, Gleiber, &c. It once had an univerſity, which began to flouriſh upon the deſertion of Lutheraniſm by the profeſſors at Marpurg, and their adhering to Calviniſm: but, in 1625, the landgrave Lewis, who was a Calviniſt, ſuppreſſed this univerſity, and recalled the ſtudents to Marpurg.

St. Goar, the capital of the lower county, is ſituated on the weſt ſide the Rhine, where a toll is paid, the produce of which belongs in common to the two ſovereign branches of the houſe of Heſſe. On a high rock, in the vicinity, is the ſtrong fortreſs of Rhinfels.

Goarſhauſen is a ſmall town, on the eaſt ſide of the Rhine, oppoſite to St. Goar; Rechenburg is a caſtle on a high rock, with a mineral ſpring; Granan is an hoſpital for women, and one of the four called the high hoſpitals of Heſſe; and Langenſchwalback is a large village in the bailiwick of Hohenſtein, famous for its mineral waters; in which bailiwick there is likewiſe Harlſthalerlead, a celebrated medicinal bath.

Upper Roſbach, a ſmall town, will be ever famous for the great victory obtained here over the French, by the king of Pruſſia, on the 5th of November, 1757.

Philipſec is a palace, which was erected by the landgrave Philip III. Bredencap is famous for its iron works, foundery, and a ſilver mine; and Thal-Itter for a copper mine.

Freyſtadt, on the Rhine, was erected in the year 1745, by the landgrave Lewis, and contains an aſylum for debtors.

Hofheim, one of the four high hoſpitals of Heſſe, is ſituated in the bailiwick of Domburg.

Zwingenberg is ſituated on the Berge-Straſze, or Hill-ſtreet, a road ſo called, which extends 40 miles over the mountains from Darmſtadt to Heidelberg.

Branbach, on the Rhine, is defended by two caſtles, and celebrated for its mineral ſprings, and copper and ſilver mines.

Ems is a large village, famous for its baths; and Old-Catzenellebogen has a caſtle, and ſome iron mines.

Darmſtadt, ſituated on a river of the ſame name, at the diſtance of 12 miles ſouth from Frankfort on the Maine, is encloſed by paliſadoes, and defended by a ſtrong caſtle, which is the landgrave's palace. For the better ſecurity of the county, there are two forts; one on the Rhine, named Markburg, or Marienburg; and another on the Maine, called Ruſſelheim. The palace is a ſtately ſtructure, and, had it been finiſhed according to its model, would have been one of the largeſt and moſt magnificent in Europe, fit for lodging the emperor and all the nine electors; but the magnificent works that were intended, have been quite laid aſide. However, the parts that are finiſhed make a grand appearance, and are beautified with a ſpacious garden, abounding with all ſorts of fruits, and yielding annually great quantities of rich wines. The emperor has, beſides, two fine pleaſure-houſes, two miles from hence, Kranchſtein and Sensfeld. Though the town is not large, it makes a good appearance, moſt of the houſes being built of free-ſtone, and very high. Though well fortified, it has ſeveral times been ſurpriſed and taken. In this town the Germans firſt gave over tilts; becauſe in 1403, the Franconians and Heſſians having challenged one another to this exerciſe, ſeveral of the Franconian nobility, and nine of the Heſſians, were killed on the ſpot.

The deer come ſometimes cloſe to the paliſadoes of the town; there being no province in Germany more proper for hunting, nor in Europe where there are more deer; the great plenty of which is very troubleſome to the poor peaſants, who are abroad day and night to watch their fields, and guard them from their encroachments. It is a flat even country, with a gravelly ſoil, which produces excellent pulſe, and is interſperſed with woods, through which are cut excellent roads.

The County of Sponheim was anciently divided into hither and farther, the former of which is now commonly called the county of Sponheim, and the other that of Starkenburg. It is ſituated between the Rhine and the Moſelle.

In the hither county, of which three-fifths belong to the elector Palatine, and the remaining two-fifths to the prince of Baden-Baden, the principal place is

Kreutznach, or Creutznach, the capital, a well-built town, divided by the river Nahe into the Old and New Towns. The firſt emperors of the Franks had a palace here, in which they ſometimes reſided. Near the town is a caſtle, and, at no great diſtance up the river, two ſalt-works.

In the farther county, of which one half belongs to the duke of Deux-Ponts-Birkenfeld, and the other to the prince of Baden-Baden, are,

Birkenfeld, which once gave the title of duke to a branch of the family of Deux-Ponts. This branch afterwards ſucceeding to the duchy of Deux-Ponts, added Birkenfeld in their title to Deux-Ponts.

Trarbach, or Tranerbach, is a town lying on the Moſelle, and containing a church common to the Roman Catholics and Lutherans, with a Lutheran gymnaſium. In the neighbourhood are many vineyards. The town was once very ſtrong, but the fortifications, have been demoliſhed.

Starkenburg is a caſtle on the Moſelle, by the name of which this county is now generally diſtinguiſhed, the counts having reſided in it frequently.

The Principality and County of Solm is ſituated between Lorrain and Lower Alſace; and, to diſtinguiſh it from the County of the ſame name in the duchy of Luxemburg, it is called the Upper county, and the other the Lower. The princes of Solm are now divided into two branches, Hoogſtrat, or Solm-Zuſalm; and Leutz-Loes, or Solm-Kirburg; each of which poſſeſſes an equal ſhare of the eſtates belonging to the former counts, and vote alternately at the diets.

The Principality of Nassau lies moſtly in the Wetterau. The length of it is computed at about 50 miles, and the breadth at about 30. Though it is, in general, woody and mountainous, there are ſome fine paſtures and corn-lands in it, beſides excellent baths and mineral waters, and ſeveral mines of iron, lead, copper, and other metals. Moſt of the princes and inhabitants are Calviniſts. The principality is divided into ſeveral counties, belonging to the different branches of the family, which is one of the moſt ancient and illuſtrious of Europe, having produced, beſides many other great heroes, Adolphus, emperor of Germany, and king William III. of Great Britain. The elder line, or that of Walram, conſiſts, at preſent, of the branches of Naſſau-Saarbruck-Uſingen, Naſſau-Saarbruck-Saarbruck, and Naſſau-Weilburg. The repreſentative of the laſt of theſe married the late prince of Orange's only ſiſter. The other line, or that of Otho, which conſiſted formerly of the ſeveral branches of Naſſau-Siegen, which was Popiſh, Naſſau-Dillemberg, Dietz, and Hadamar, is now reduced to that of Naſſau-Dietz, the repreſentative of which, William, prince of Orange, enjoys all the territories that belonged to the other branches; and, on account of them, has ſeveral votes in the diet of the empire, and thoſe of this circle and Weſtphalia. All the branches pay a matricular and chamber taxation; but thoſe of the elder line have no ſeat, or votes, in the college of the princes of the empire, being only members of that of the Imperial Wetterau counts. The chief places in this principality are

Dietz

Dietz, the capital of another county, belonging to another branch of the Naſſau family, of which the prince of Orange is the head. It is pleaſantly ſituated on the river Lohn, 9 miles eaſt from Naſſau, and 19 ſouth-eaſt from Coblentz. It is walled, and has two fine caſtles, or towers, ſtanding upon two hills in the town. It has a bridge over the river, which communicates with Fregen-Dietz. It had a collegiate church, ſubject to the electors of Treves; but ſince the reformation, the revenues have been applied to the univerſity of Herborn. The county in which this town lies is about 14 miles long, and 10 broad. It is, in general, ſtony and hilly; has plenty of veniſon and ſheep; but in the vallies there is corn and wine enough for the inhabitants.

Naſſau is a ſmall town on the Lohn, near which formerly ſtood Naſſau-berg, a very ancient caſtle, which was the original ſeat of the family. From this caſtle the principality, family, town, and bailiwick, took their name. The caſtle, according to ſome, derived its own name from Naſgau, the original name of the county, ſignifying, in the German, a marſhy track, ſuch as it antiently was; but, according to others, from Naſua, a famous German commander. Of the bailiwick, named from the town, a part belongs to Naſſau-Dietz, another to Naſſau-Weilburg, and another to Naſſau-Uſingen; and of that of Camberg adjoining, Naſſau-Dietz, and the elector of Triers, are joint proprietors.

Weilburg is a handſome town on the river Lohn, which gives name to a county, and title to the prince thereof, who has a fine palace and gardens in the town. Over the river is a ſtone bridge; and in the neighbourhood of the town are a large menagerie and pleaſure-houſe.

Weilmunſter contains ſome ſilver and copper mines, and a great deal of iron ore.

Wiſhbaden is a handſome, populous town, ſituated on the Rhine, and noted for its warm baths.

Bibarich, a village on the Rhine, contains a palace; Schierſtein is celebrated for its wine; Lohn, on the Schutter, gives name to a lordſhip; Otiweilar contains a Lutheran and Roman Catholick church; and Saarbruck, on the Saar, takes its name from a bridge over a river of the ſame name.

Homburg, a town ſituated on the Weſgau, belongs to Naſſau-Saarbruck-Saarbruck. The ſame prince has a ſhare of ſome other diſtricts in this part of the principality of Naſſau.

The County of WALDECK terminates ſouthward on Heſſe, northward on the dioceſe of Paderborn, weſtward on the duchy of Weſtphalia, and eaſtward on Heſſe, and the bailiwick of Fritzlar, in the electorate of Mentz. Its length is computed at about 24, and its breadth at 20 miles. It yields iron, lead, copper, marble, ſlate, mineral ſprings, and abounds in grain, wood, and cattle. Gold is ſometimes found in the river Eder. The inhabitants, in general, are Lutherans. There are ſome woollen manufactories, beſides thoſe of iron and paper, in the county. The title of the family of Waldeck runs thus: "Waldeck, prince of the ſacred Roman empire, count of Pyrmont and Rappolſtein, lord of Hoheneck and Gerolſeck, &c." The females, notwithſtanding, are only counteſſes. The prince has not yet obtained a ſeat and voice among the princes in the diet of the empire, but in that of this circle he has. To the empire, his aſſeſſment for Waldeck is 4 horſe, and 18 foot, or 120 florins, monthly, in lieu of them; and to the chamber of Wetzlar 67 rix-dollars, 74 kruitzers. The county is a fief of Heſſe-Caſſel; the ſucceſſion to which was firſt ſettled on the eldeſt ſon, and his iſſue, in the year 1697. Here are the uſual high courts and colleges, for the government of the county, and the adminiſtration of juſtice. The revenue of the county is pretty conſiderable; and the prince generally maintains five companies of foot. The chief places here are

Corbach, the capital, divided into the Old and New Towns, which contains a gymnaſium, with two churches; in one of which is a ſtately monument of marble and alabaſter, erected by the ſtates of the United Provinces to the prince of Waldeck, who was field-marſhal of their forces.

Lower Weldungen is a pretty large well built town, having the epithet of Lower, to diſtinguiſh it from Old Weldungen, a ſmall town, with a caſtle, called Frederichſtein. In the choir of the church belonging to the former of theſe towns, is a monument of alabaſter, erected by the republic of Venice, to a prince of Waldeck, who was commander of their forces. In its neighbourhood alſo are ſome mineral ſprings.

In Rhoden is a ſeat belonging to the prince. Near Waldeck ſtands an old caſtle, which gives name to the county, and title to the prince.

Arolſen is a regular well built town, ſtanding not far from the river Aars, and containing a palace, which is the uſual reſidence of the prince, and a church for each of the three religions. Here is alſo the ſeat of the high colleges.

Adorf is a village in the bailiwick of Eiſenburg, in which are iron works, with two copper mines, and a Lutheran foundation for ladies. There are copper works in ſome of the other bailiwicks; and at Kleinern, a village in the bailiwick of Waldeck, are two chalybeate ſprings.

The County of HANAU-MUNZENBURG is fertile in corn, wood, wine, and fruit. It produces likewiſe ſalt, cobalt, ſilver, and copper.

The rivers are the Maine, Kinzeg, and Nidda. The eſtabliſhed religion is Calviniſm; but Lutherans and Roman Catholics are tolerated. It is a populous manufactoral and commercial county, and the chief places are the following:

Hanau, its capital, is ſituated on the river Kinzeg, which divides it into the Old and New Towns, both of which are fortified. The New Town, which was built at firſt by Flemiſh and French refugees, who had great privileges granted to them, is regular and handſome. The caſtle, in which the counts uſed to reſide, and which ſtands in the Old Town, is fortified, and has a fine flower-garden, with commodious aparments. The Jews are tolerated here, and dwell in a particular quarter. The Magiſtracy of the New Town, and the diſpoſal of all offices in it, belong to the French and Dutch congregations. Here are an univerſity, with ſeveral manufactories, particularly that of roll tobacco, and a very conſiderable traffic. A canal runs from the town to the Maine, on which river, near the town, is Philipſrue, i. e. Philip's Repoſe, a pretty villa, built by one of the counts of the name of Philip.

Bergen, a ſmall town, yields excellent wine; Bieber is a thriving town, with ſilver, copper, iron, and cobalt mines and works; and Glenhauſen, on the Kinzeg, 16 miles north-eaſt from Hanau, was formerly an Imperial city, but now belongs entirely to the landgrave of Heſſe-Caſſel.

In Nauheim, a ſmall town, is a ſalt-work of conſiderable value.

Territories belonging to the Princes of SOLMS.

The houſe of Solms is divided into many branches, of which thoſe of Solms-Laubach-Baruth, with their collateral branches, have their eſtates in Luſatia, and the electorate of Saxony. The matricular aſſeſſment of thoſe of this circle is 252 florins; and, to the chamber of Wetzlar, about 130 rix-dollars. In the diet of the empire, and the college of the Imperial counts of the Wetterau, they have four votes, and the like number in the diets of this circle. The lines of Braunfels and Hoen-Solms are Calviniſts, that of Sonnenwald Catholic, and all the reſt Lutherans. In the territory of Solms-Braunfels are

Braunfels, a town ſituated on a high hill. Near it is a palace, ſtrongly fortified in the ancient manner, and giving

giving name to a bailiwick, which, with the town and caſtle, belong to the Braunfels branch; and contains, beſides other places, Altenburg, a Promonſtratenſian convent for ladies; near which the higheſt court of the county is held annually in the open air, unleſs in ſtormy weather; and Burg-Solms, a village, in which ſtood formerly the ancient family ſeat of the counts of Solms. The bailiwick has alſo ſeveral iron mines and woods in it, and abounds in grain and cattle.

Hungen is a ſmall town ſeated on the Horloff, in that part of the lordſhip of Munzenburg which belongs to this family. In the town is a palace of the counts, and without it a park for deer. In the ſame part of the above lordſhip ſtands alſo Arenſburg, a rich abbey of Bernardines, ſubject to the archbiſhop of Mentz, the revenue of which is ſaid to amount to about 30,000 florins.

Wolfeſheim, Gambach, and Hoen-Solms, all give names to bailiwicks, and the latter contains a palace. Laubach, on the Wetter, gives name to a bailiwick, and title to a prince. In the neighbourhood of the latter town excellent fuller's earth is found in great abundance.

In the territory of Solms-Rodelheim are

Rodelheim, a large county town on the Nidda, containing the count's palace, and giving name to a bailiwick, the greater part of which belongs alſo to a count; and Affenheim, a ſmall town, ſituated at the conflux of the Nidda and Wetter, and giving name to a bailiwick, of the greater part of which the count is alſo proprietor.

The County of KONIGSTEIN lies in the Wetterau, along a ridge of mountains called the Hoe. The elector of Mentz at preſent poſſeſſes nearly the whole of the county, a ſmall part only being held by the counts of Stolberg, who, however, have, at various times, pretended to have a right, and laid claim, to the whole. In the mean time both theſe princes continue to vote, on account of it, in the diet of the Upper Rhine, and both are members of the college of the Imperial Wetterau counts. Of the matricular aſſeſſment for Konigſtein, Mentz pays 80 florins, and Stolberg 20. The places in this country are

Konigſtein, which gives name to it, and contains a caſtle on a high rock; Soden, a free Imperial village, in which there are ſome ſalt-pans and a medicinal bath; Ranſtall, a ſmall town belonging to the ſame count; and Ordenburg, defended by a caſtle.

The County of UPPER-ISENBURG, ſo called to diſtinguiſh it from Lower-Iſenburg, on the Lower Rhine, was made a county in 1442, having been only a lordſhip before. It contains wood, corn, and wine; is well watered; and belongs partly to the houſe of Iſenburg, partly to that of Heſſe-Darmſtadt, and partly to the counts of Stolberg. The houſe of Iſenburg, on account of its portion of this county, has a ſeat in the diets of this circle, and alſo among the Wetterau counts. The principal places in it are as follow:

Birſtein, famous for its iron mines; Langen-Diebach, and Offenbach, on the Maine, belonging to the prince of Iſenburg-Birſtein.

Hayn-zur-Dreyeichen, in the Imperial foreſt of Dreyeichen; and New Iſenburg, a regular built town, belonging to the above-mentioned prince.

Budingen, though a ſmall town, is the capital of the whole county, and gives name to a diſtrict, which, with two others, belongs to the count of Iſenburg-Budingen, who has a palace in the town. In its neighbourhood is a park for deer, with ſome ſalt-works and vineyards.

Wachterſbach is a ſmall town, giving name to a diſtrict, which, with the town, and two other diſtricts, belong to the counts of Iſenburg-Wachterſbach, who reſide in the town.

Meerholz is a village on the river Kenzig, in which the counts of Iſenburg-Meerholz reſide, and which gives name to a diſtrict belonging, with ſome others, to the ſame counts.

Of the WILD *and* RHINE-GRAVES, *and their Territories.*

The Wild, or Wald, or Rau-Graves, in Latin, *Comites ſalutarii, foreſtarii ſilveſtres, & hirſuti*, were ſo called from the rough and woody territories, which, as well as thoſe of the Rhine-Graves, lay diſperſed about the Rhine, between Baſil and Bonn. In the 12th century the territories of the former fell to the latter, from whom are deſcended the counts of Salm, the counts of Grumbach, the Rhine-Graves of Stein, and Wild-Graves of Daun and Kirburg. Each reigning houſe ſits and votes in the diets of this circle, and in thoſe of the empire, in the college of the Imperial counts of the Wetterau, paying each a matricular aſſeſſment, and alſo to the chamber at Wetzlar. The Wild and Rhine Grave lands are moſtly fiefs.

In the territory of the counts of Grumbach are

Grumbach, a town which gives name to a lordſhip, or bailiwick, lying on the river Glan, and affording amethyſts, cornelians, agates, mochas, &c.

Tronchen, on the Tron, gives name to a lordſhip, which contains Talfang, a market town, and 14 little villages.

The territories of the Rhine-Grave of Stein contain only Rhingrafenſtin and Wildenburg, which have both caſtles; Grehweiler, which has a palace; and the large village of Worſtall.

The Wild-Gravate of Daun contains Daun, an elegant ſeat on a hill, near the Suinnern; Kirn, a town on the Nahe; Diemringen, a market town, which gives name to a bailiwick; and Putlingen, from which a lordſhip receives its appellation.

Leiningen, or Linage, the capital of its county, ſtands eight miles ſouth-weſt of Worms, and north-weſt from Spire. This county, which borders upon Frankendale, is ſhared among four branches of the family, who take their name of diſtinction from the ſeveral parts of it in their poſſeſſion. The county of Linage, properly ſo called, is a fief of the biſhop of Mentz, and therefore was united to France in 1681; but, by the treaty of Ryſwick, thoſe counts were reeſtabliſhed in their ancient ſtate, and they are therein expreſsly ſtiled the counts of Leiningen. The principal places in it are New-Leiningen, Turcheim, Grunſtadt, and Lanſheim. The other branches of theſe counts, who are all Lutherans, are in poſſeſſion of Hartenberg, in the middle of the Palatinate, not far from Worms; Broich caſtle, on the Rhine, near Duiſburg; Dachſburg, in the Weſtreich, in Alſace; and Weſterburg, in Waſteravia.

The Lordſhip of Reipoltzkirchen belongs to the count of Hilleſheim, on which account he has a ſeat and voice in the diets of the circle; as hath the count of Wied Runkiel for the lordſhip of Kirchingen.

The county of Falkenſtein belongs entirely to the emperor; but contains only Falkenſtein, a ſmall town, defended by a caſtle; and Winweiler, which gives name to a bailiwick, and has a fortreſs.

The County of WITGENSTEIN, which is about 18 miles in length, and 14 in breadth, is environed by the territories of Heſſe-Darmſtadt, Naſſau-Dillemberg, and the Duchy of Weſtphalia. It produces little grain, but good paſture, and plenty of wood; with mines of ſilver, copper, and iron; and is watered by the rivers Lohn and Eder. The counts, who are of the ſame family as thoſe of Sayn, are divided into the two branches of Sayn-Witgenſtein, of Witgenſtein, and Sayn-Witgenſtein of Berleburg. The county entitles both branches to a vote in the college of the Wetterau counts, both at the diet of the empire, and thoſe of this circle. The revenue of the county of Witgenſtein, including that of the lordſhip of Homburg, which lies between the duchy of Berg and county of Mark, and belongs to the counts of Witgenſtein, is conſiderable. In this county are

Witgenſtein, a caſtle, ſeated on a high mountain, the reſidence of the counts of Sayn-Witgenſtein, of Witgenſtein;

Witgenſtein; and Berleburg, a ſmall town, on the little river Berlen, containing a fine palace, belonging, with the town, to the county of Sayn-Witgenſtein-Berleburg.

The CIRCLE of the LOWER-RHINE.

THIS circle is bounded on the eaſt by Franconia, and the lower part of the circle of the Upper Rhine; on the weſt by the upper part of the circle of the Upper Rhine, Lorrain and Luxemburg; on the north by the circle of Weſtphalia; and on the ſouth by that of Swabia. It contains, excluſive of the Palatinate, &c. the three archbiſhopries and electorates of Mentz, Triers, or Treves, and Cologne.

The diets of this circle are held at Frankfort on the Maine; and the elector of Mentz is the ſummoning prince and director of it. It is one of thoſe called the anterior circles; and its contribution to the empire has generally been equal to that of the Upper Rhine.

In deſcribing this circle we ſhall obſerve the following ſubdiviſions.

The Archbiſhopric and Electorate of Mentz lies on the banks of the Maine, between the electorate of Triers on the weſt, the Palatinate on the ſouth, Franconia on the eaſt, and the Wetterau on the north. It is about 60 miles in length, and 50 in breadth. Beſides the Main, it is watered by three other principal rivers, the Rhine, the Jaxt, and the Lohn. It is, in general, exceeding fertile, and produces great plenty of corn, cattle, wines, fruit, ſalt, flax, tobacco, and timber. It has ſeveral kinds of manufactures, particularly thoſe of woollen and linen cloth, glaſs mirrors, and porcelain, in which, as well as in wine, almonds, cheſnuts, flax, and tobacco, a conſiderable trade is carried on with the adjacent countries.

As the electorate of Mentz is under the dominion of an eccleſiaſtic, almoſt the whole property of it belongs to prieſts, monks, and nuns; and all places and offices are poſſeſſed by the clergy. The predominant religion of the electorate is the Roman Catholic; but, in ſeveral places, there are many Proteſtants.

The elector is choſen by the chapter, which conſiſts of 42 canons, 24 of whom are capitulars. He is not only the firſt archbiſhop, but alſo elector of Germany, in conſequence of his being arch-chancellor of the empire; and he always ſits on the right hand of the emperor in all public conventions. He is viſitor of all the courts of the empire, director of its poſts, and guardian of the archives and matricula. He crowns the emperor, nominates a vice-chancellor of the empire, and holds a chancery at the Imperial court. To him alſo all foreign princes and ſtates direct what propoſitions they make to the empire, as well as apply for the redreſs of grievances. In ſpirituals he ſtands immediately under the ſee of Rome. The biſhoprics ſubject to this juriſdiction are thoſe of Worms, Spire, Straſburg, Conſtance, Augſburg, Coire, Wurtſburg, Eichſtadt, Paderborn, Hildeſheim, and Fulda.

For the government of the country, and the adminiſtration of juſtice, the chief colleges are the privy conference, the privy chancery, the Aulic council, and the reverſion judicatory; to the laſt of which appeals lie from the inferior judicatories.

The revenues of the elector are ſuppoſed to amount annually to about 100,000l. ariſing chiefly from the tolls on the Rhine and Maine, the tax on wine, and that paid by the Jews, the latter of which is very conſiderable. He is able to maintain 5 or 6000 men at all times; but, to ſave unneceſſary expence, ſeldom keeps above half that number of regular troops; for his income, when he is only archbiſhop of Mentz, without commandams, (which is ſeldom the caſe,) will not allow of any greater ſtate or expences; and his houſhold is ſuited rather to his ſacred than his temporal character.

The moſt conſiderable places in this electorate are the following:

Mentz, which ſtands on the Rhine, near where the Maine falls into it, is the capital of the archbiſhopric and electorate. It is called, in Latin, Moguntia, Moguntiarum; and, in French, Mayence. It is ſituated 15 miles weſt from Frankfort, 20 north from Worms, 48 from Heidelberg, 45 from Spire, 186 from Straſburg, 60 from Triers, and 74 from Cologne. It is a large and populous city; but moſt of the ſtreets are narrow, and the common buildings very plain and irregular. The elector has ſeveral palaces in and about the city, moſt of which are ornamented with beautiful and extenſive gardens. It was made an archbiſhopric in 729, by Pepin and pope Gregory III. The cathedral is a lofty vaulted building; and in it are ſome fine monuments, erected to the memory of deceaſed electors. The veſtments in which the electors ſay maſs are extremely rich; and the canopy under which the hoſt is carried in proceſſion is entirely covered with pearl. The elector's chief palace is built of reddiſh marble ſtone, embelliſhed with ornaments, and is regular and magnificent, though but two ſtories high, and built after the old German manner. On the windows of this building, as well as on thoſe of the cathedral, are painted a wheel, which is a part of the elector's coat of arms. Beſides the cathedral, here are many collegiate and other churches, with ſeveral monaſteries, nunneries, and hoſpitals. Here are likewiſe an univerſity, founded in the year 1482, by the elector Diether; a bridge of boats over the Rhine; manufactories of ſtockings and ſtuffs; and two yearly fairs. But the moſt conſiderable building in this city is the charter-houſe, which, for elegance and extent, is one of the fineſt in Europe. It has apartments large and commodious enough to lodge a ſovereign and his retinue, and is beautifully ſituated on an eminence fronting the Rhine. At the foot of this houſe ſtands the Favorita, a ſmall but elegant electoral palace, with moſt delightful gardens.

Mentz has a flouriſhing trade, eſpecially in Rheniſh wines, of which the vineyards in this neighbourhood yield the beſt, particularly thoſe of Hockham, from whence the fineſt ſort of Rheniſh wine has obtained the name of Old Hock. The city of Mentz claims the invention of the art of printing, which, if not invented, was at leaſt much improved, by John Fuſt, or, as others ſay, by John Guttenburg, about the year 1450.

Aſchaffenburg is ſituated on the conflux of the rivulet Aſchaff and the Maine. Here is a fine caſtle, in which the elector frequently reſides during the ſeaſon for hunting in the Spaſſart, together with a collegiate church, a college, and a large cloiſter. The town gives name to a bailiwick, in which are alſo Seligenſtadt, a town ſituated on the Maine, with a Benedictine cloiſter; the abbot of which ſtiles himſelf lord of Geiſalbach, Omerſbach, and Hofſtaden; together with Obernburg, a ſmall town, and Dettingen, a village on the Maine, remarkable for a battle fought near it in 1743, between the Engliſh and French, in which the latter were repulſed.

Bingen is a pleaſant town, ſituated on the weſt ſide of the Rhine. It had a fort in the time of the Romans; and has a caſtle at this day, which ſtands on a hill, and overlooks the town. It is 15 miles weſt from Mentz, and was formerly an Imperial city; but it is now ſubject to the dean and chapter of Mentz. It has a handſome ſtone bridge over the river Nahe, which runs through the town, and empties itſelf into the Rhine. A toll is levied here for whatever paſſes up or down the Rhine, which is twice as broad at this place as the Thames at London. Not far from the town is the celebrated Bingerloch, where the Rhine is confined between two high rocks, which, with the waterfall, occaſioned by the river Nahe's emptying itſelf there into the Rhine, renders the paſſage very dangerous. At a ſmall diſtance from hence, in an iſland or rock on the Rhine, is the famous Mouſethurm, that is, the Mice or Rats Tower, ſo called, as the people

here will have it, from the following circumſtance. An archbiſhop, who had a great antipathy to beggars, and uſed to call them the rats that eat up the corn, was, by the juſt vengeance of heaven, ſo peſtered with rats and mice, that though he fled to this tower to avoid them, yet they purſued him acroſs the river, and at length devoured him. Others reject this ſtory as fabulous; and think the tower was ſo called, from the Germans giving the name of rats to the officers that were placed in it to levy the tolls, old buildings being generally called rats neſts.

Cronberg is a ſmall town ſituated on a mountain, the inhabitants of which are partly Proteſtants and partly Roman Catholics. It once belonged to the landgrave of Heſſe. The diſtrict, which it gives name to, contains ſome fine woods, with great numbers of cheſnut and other fruit trees.

Eltvil, or Elfeld, a ſmall town, five miles weſt from Mentz, has a ſtrong caſtle, and is the capital of the Rhinegau, a track lying along the Rhine, and very fruitful, eſpecially in excellent vines. There are ſeveral other ſmall towns and cloiſters in the Rhinegau.

Miltenburg, on the Maine, contains a caſtle, a Franciſcan cloiſter, and a gymnaſium.

Fritzlar, a pretty ſtrong town on the river Edos, contains two collegiate churches, with an Urſuline nunnery. It gives name to a territory which lies betwixt Lower Heſſe and the county of Waldeck, and has another ſmall town in it, called Naumburg, or Numburg.

Beſides thoſe already mentioned, there are ſeveral other inconſiderable towns in this electorate.

The Archbiſhopric and Electorate of TRIERS, or TREVES, lies between Cologne, Berg, and Juliers, on the north; Lorrain and the Palatinate on the ſouth; Luxemburg on the weſt; and Wetterau on the eaſt. Its extent, from north to ſouth, is about 80 miles; and its breadth, from eaſt to weſt, about 60. It is watered not only by the rivers Rhine and Moſelle, but alſo by the Saar and Kyll. On the banks of the two former the country is populous, and fruitful in corn and wine, but elſewhere mountainous and woody, yet abounding in game and acid ſprings, as alſo in metals and minerals of various kinds.

The ſtates conſiſt of the prelates or abbots, with the repreſentatives of the clergy, and of certain towns. The inhabitants are all Papiſts, except in ſuch places as the elector poſſeſſes in common with other princes, where there are ſome Proteſtants. Under the archbiſhop are 5 archdeacons, and, ſubordinate to thoſe, 20 provincial deans. The ancient Treveri, from whom the city of Triers and the electorate take their name, were a very warlike people. Their general, Ambiorix, cut off a whole Roman army. They worſhipped Mars, and Apollo, till Conſtantine eſtabliſhed Chriſtianity among them: but at what time the biſhopric and archbiſhopric were created is uncertain. The church of Treves, however, is commonly accounted the moſt ancient in Germany. The chapter, which elects the archbiſhop from among themſelves, and make him ſwear to a capitulation, conſiſts of 16 capitulary canons, all of whom are of noble deſcent. At every new election the pope receives large ſums for confirmation, the pallium, and for annats, or firſt fruits. The archiepiſcopal title is, "By the grace of God, archbiſhop of Treves, of the Holy Roman Empire, throughout Gaul and the kingdom of Arles, arch-chancellor and elector, and alſo adminiſtrator of Prum." He is the ſecond elector in rank, and at the election of an emperor has the firſt voice. The tolls on the Moſelle and Rhine, his demeſnes, and his office of noble guardian of the Minors, with the taxes he lays on his ſubjects, are ſuppoſed to bring him in about 70,000l. per annum. For the government of this electorate, and the adminiſtration of juſtice, beſides the regency and reviſion court, there are the two aulic judicatories, to which appeals lie from the inferior courts. There are alſo two ſpiritual high courts. The hereditary officers are the marſhal, the chamberlain, the ſewer, and cupbearer. Among other prerogatives, this elector has power to baniſh excommunicated perſons out of the empire, if they do not reconcile themſelves to the church within a year; and to take poſſeſſion of the eſtates of minors, till they are of age. He has alſo a right to re-unite all the fiefs of his dioceſe, upon failure of heirs, to the domains of his church. His ſubjects may appeal to the chamber of the empire, in all cauſes above 1000 florins. The regular troops he maintains, beſides a militia, amount to between 11 and 1200; beſides a life-guard of 40 men.

The chief places in this electorate are the following:

Triers, or Treves, the capital of the archbiſhopric, is ſituated on the Moſelle, over which it has a handſome ſtone bridge. It is 60 miles weſt of Mentz, 52 ſouth of Cologne, and 82 north of Straſburg. This city vies with moſt in Europe for antiquity, having been a large and noted town before Auguſtus ſettled a colony in it. It was free and imperial till the year 1560, when it was ſurprized, and ſubjected, by its archbiſhop, James III. The private buildings are very mean; and the city is neither well fortified or well inhabited. Near the cathedral, a large Gothic edifice, is the elector's palace, which was a few years ago rebuilt, and is a tolerable handſome building. Here are 3 collegiate and 5 pariſh churches, 13 monaſteries and nunneries, an univerſity founded in 1472, a houſe of the Teutonic order, and another of that of Malta, with ſome remains of the ancient Roman theatre.

Near Triers is a ſmall town on the Moſelle, called Pfabzel, where, in the time of the Romans, ſtood a palatium. It gives name to a diſtrict, in which is Conz, a borough on the Saar, over which there is a bridge here, called Conſarbruck.

Coblentz is a large town, ſituated near the conflux of the Moſelle and Rhine, 35 miles north-weſt from Mentz, 40 ſouth-eaſt from Cologne, and 52 north-eaſt from Triers. It is well built, and ſtrongly fortified; has a bridge of boats over the Rhine, and another of ſtone, conſiſting of 14 arches, over the Moſelle. Here are ſeveral collegiate and other churches, beſides monaſteries and nunneries, a gymnaſium, an archiepiſcopal ſeminary, and a caſtle. The Romans had a fort at this town; and the firſt kings of the Franks frequently reſided in it.

On the other ſide of the Rhine, nearly oppoſite to Coblentz, is Hermanſtein, or Ebrenbreitſtein caſtle, an impregnable fort, well defended by out-works, on the ſummit of a ſteep rocky hill, which commands the city and the two rivers. It is eſteemed one of the ſtrongeſt citadels in Germany; and the aſcent to it is by a winding road cut out of the rock, in the courſe of which are four handſome gates. On the outermoſt gate there is a ſtatue of braſs, above 15 feet high, repreſenting the Virgin Mary, with the infant Jeſus in her arms, and a lily in one hand. In the middle of the citadel is a ſquare, on one ſide of which is the governor's houſe. The other three are occupied by magazines and barracks. Among other curioſities here is a prodigious cannon, 18 feet and a half long, a foot and an half diameter in the bore, and 3 feet 4 inches in the breech. The ball made for it to carry weighs 180 pounds, and its charge of powder is 94 pounds. According to the inſcription on it, it was made in 1529, by one Simon. In another ſquare is a very fine fountain, being a large baſon of ſtone, in the centre of which ſtands a marble pillar on a braſs pedeſtal, with the elector's arms, ſurrounded with four dolphins of the ſame metal. On the top of this column is a ſtatue of the Virgin Mary, bruiſing the head of the ſerpent, which is alſo of braſs, about 12 feet in height. There is a well here, dug out of the rock, 280 feet deep, the water of which is clear, and exceedingly wholeſome. At the foot of the caſtle is an electoral palace, encloſed on one ſide by the Rhine, and on the other by a rock. It is but an indifferent building; and the apartments are low, incommodious,

modious, and much expoſed to the ſun; but they are adorned with beautiful tapeſtries and paintings; and the chapel is very elegant. The garden, though ſmall, is embelliſhed with ſtatues, water-works, a charming orangery, and a bower, more than 300 feet in length, by the ſide of the Rhine, from whence, through the openings, which are well contrived for the purpoſe, are ſeen the Rhine, the Moſelle, the city of Coblentz, the bridge acroſs the Moſelle, the charter-houſe, and a very fine country to the diſtance of three or four leagues. The way to the charter-houſe, which is a handſome building, beautifully ſituated about two miles from the caſtle, is full of chapels, in the manner of oratories, adorned with ſtatues, repreſenting the principal actions of Our Saviour, from his birth to his reſurrection.

Oberweſel is ſituated on the weſt ſide of the Rhine, at the foot of a hill, 21 miles ſouth from Coblentz, and 18 weſt from Mentz. It was once an Imperial and free city, but has been ſubject to the archbiſhop of Triers ever ſince the year 1312. It has four churches, and a very large caſtle.

Limburg, a town on the river Lohn, over which it has a ſtone bridge, contains a collegiate church with three cloiſters, and gives name to a bailiwick, in which alſo is Lower Brechen, a ſmall town, and Lower Salters, a village on the Emſbach. Near the laſt is the celebrated mineral ſpring, the waters of which are ſo much uſed and exported, that, in 1755, 18,000 rix-dollars per annum were offered for a leaſe of it. In this bailiwick alſo ſilver has been found.

Berncaſtle, on the Moſelle, contains a ſtrong caſtle and a Capuchin cloiſter, and gives name to a bailiwick, in which is a copper mine; and a place called Noviomagum, on the Moſelle, where Conſtantine the Great had a camp.

Wittlich, on the river Leſer, contains a Franciſcan cloiſter, and a caſtle, called Ottenſtein; and gives name to a bailiwick, in which is a college of canons regular, where adoration is paid to a celebrated image of the Virgin, and whither many pilgrimages are made. In this diſtrict the French were defeated by the Imperialiſts in 1735.

Welſchbillig is a ſmall town, near which is a cloiſter of the Brother of the Croſs.

St. Maximin is one of the oldeſt and richeſt abbies in Germany. The abbot is the firſt among the provincial ſtates here, as well as in the duchy of Luxemburg. The yearly revenues of the abbey are eſtimated at 6000 ducats. Beſides the bailiwick of St. Maximin, with the juriſdiction and regalia therein, to the abbey belong alſo the ſeigniory and burgravate of Freudenburg on the Saar, and other eſtates, with the ſuperiority, juriſdiction, and right of taxation in them.

Werheim is a borough, in which, and the bailiwick named from it, as belonging in common to the elector of Triers and the prince of Naſſau-Uſingen, both the Roman Catholic and Proteſtant religion are tolerated.

Munſter-Meinfeld, a ſmall town, gives name to a bailiwick, which yields ſome copper and gold, and contains Carden, a very ancient borough on the Moſelle, with a collegiate church, and a Franciſcan cloiſter.

Mayen, a ſmall town on the Nette, contains a caſtle, and gives name to a bailiwick; in which alſo is Montreal, a ſtrong little town, on the Elz; together with Kayſerſeſch, a ſmall town, and the Benedictine abbey of Lock.

Boppard, a town and caſtle on the Rhine, where a toll is levied, contains three cloiſters, and gives name to a bailiwick.

Engers has a ſtrong caſtle on the Rhine, between Coblentz and Andernach, which gives name to a neighbouring territory. Here is a noble bridge, founded by Cuno, archbiſhop of Triers, who died in 1388.

The greater part of the Archbiſhopric and Electorate of COLOGNE lies on the weſtern bank of the Rhine, where it runs near 100 miles in length; but the breadth is hardly any where more than ſeven or eight. It is bounded by the duchy of Cleves on the north, and the electorate of Triers on the ſouth; the duchy of Juliers on the weſt, and that of Berg on the eaſt. It is a pleaſant and fruitful country, (eſpecially that part ſituated on the Rhine,) and produces excellent wine, corn, and moſt of the neceſſaries of life. The archbiſhop is the ſupreme lord of it, as alſo of a pretty large track in Weſtphalia; and is richer and more potent than either of the other two eccleſiaſtical electors. His dominions contain 52 towns, and about 17 boroughs. He has the ſecond ſuffrage in the electoral college; and crowns the emperor, when the ceremony is performed in his own dioceſe, or thoſe of his ſuffragans. His ſee was raiſed from a biſhopric to an archbiſhopric in the eighth century. His ſuffragans, at preſent, are the biſhops of Liege, Munſter, and Oſnaburg; as were formerly alſo thoſe of Utrecht and Minden; but he has no authority in ſpirituals over the Proteſtants of the biſhopric of Oſnaburg. His title is, "By the grace of God archbiſhop of Cologne, and arch-chancellor of the holy Roman empire throughout Italy; as alſo elector and legatus-natus of the holy apoſtolic ſee, duke of Engern and Weſtphalia, &c." The right of electing the emperor, excluſive of the other princes, devolved on him, and the other arch-officers of the empire, about the end of the 13th century. The great chapter of Cologne is one of the nobleſt in Europe, conſiſting of 40 canons, who are generally princes or counts of the empire. Of theſe 25 chuſe the archbiſhop, and may advance one of their own body to that high dignity, if they are ſo inclined. The revennes ariſing from the archbiſhopric amount to about 130,000l. ſterling; but the elector is generally poſſeſſed of ſeveral other great benefices. He has his hereditary officers and his life-guards, conſiſting of halberdiers and yeomen, beſides a regiment of foot-guards, which make a handſome appearance.

The chief cities and towns in this electorate are as follow:

Cologne, the capital, which gives name to the electorate, is ſeated on the Rhine, 20 miles ſouth-eaſt from Duſſeldorp, 16 eaſt of Juliers, 40 north from Coblentz, 60 eaſt from Maeſtricht, 68 north of Triers, 70 ſouth of Munſter, 82 north-weſt of Mentz and Nimeguen, 100 from Bruſſels and Antwerp, and 120 from Amſterdam. It is one of the largeſt cities of Germany, and very conſiderable on account of its buildings, number of inhabitants, and great trade in Rheniſh wine, and other commodities of Germany, which, by means of the Rhine, are brought hither, and tranſported to Holland. It is a free city, being governed by its own ſenate, who order and judge all civil matters and cauſes: but criminal cauſes are judged by the elector. It is called, by ſome, Second Rome, becauſe of its ſenate, buildings, and extent; and, by others, the Holy City, becauſe of the many churches and religious houſes in it; here being, beſides the cathedral, which is a very magnificent, though unfiniſhed, pile, ten collegiate and 19 parochial churches, alſo 37 monaſteries, and great numbers of chapels and hoſpitals. The walls of the city are flanked with 83 towers, and encompaſſed with three deep ditches, beautified with fine rows of trees; and all the churches and houſes are covered with ſlates. The government of this city is in ſix burgomaſters, ſeven eſchevins or aldermen, and 150 common-council, who hold their offices during life. Only two of the burgomaſters are regents, during a year, by turns. The eſchevins are choſen by the archbiſhop, and the council by the companies of the city. There are only 50 of the council in power for a year, ſo that it returns to the ſame perſons once in three years. When a burgomaſter dies the council have power to chuſe another. Moſt of the inhabitants are Papiſts; but there are many Proteſtants, who are their chief traders. The Lutherans have a church in this city; and the Calviniſts one on the other ſide of the Rhine, at Maltheim. Moſt of the houſes of the canons and prebends have large gardens and vineyards. In St. Greon's church

church they pretend to ſhew 1000 heads of martyrs, who ſuffered in the reign of Maximinianus. Some of the heads of the pretended virgin martyrs, moſt noted for miracles, are kept, in caſes of ſilver, in the church dedicated to St. Urſula: others covered with ſtuffs of gold; and ſome have caps of cloth of gold and velvet. Here is alſo a ſhrine, with a glaſs door, through which they ſhew ſeveral ſacred relics. The whole revenue of this church, which muſt be conſiderable (excluſive of the offerings and gifts made by pilgrims and other devotees) belongs to an abbeſs and ſix canoneſſes, who muſt be all counteſſes, to do honour to St. Urſula. In the church of the Carmelites, the only one in the city whoſe altar is placed to the eaſt, is a pulpit, the moſt magnificent in Cologne. In the Cordelier's church is the tomb of the famous Duns Scotus, ſurnamed the Subtle Doctor, on which is engraved this epitaph: *Scotus me genuit*; *Anglia me ſuſcepit*; *Gallia me docuit*; *Colonia me tenet*. Among other curioſities in the cathedral, they ſhew the tombs of the three wiſe men that came to worſhip our Saviour, called from hence the three kings of Cologne. They lie in a large purple ſhrine, ſpangled with gold, ſet up on a pedeſtal of braſs, in the middle of a ſquare mauſoleum, faced within and without with marble and jaſper. It is opened every morning at nine o'clock, if two of the canons of the cathedral are preſent, where theſe kings are ſeen lying at full length, with their heads bedecked with a crown of gold, garniſhed with precious ſtones. Their names, which are Gaſper, Melchoir, and Balthaſar, are in purple characters, upon a little grate of the ſame metal with that before the ſhrine, which is adorned with an infinite number of large rich pearls and precious ſtones, particularly an oriental topaz, as big as a pigeon's egg, valued at above 30,000 crowns. Over-againſt them are ſix large branches of ſilver, with wax candles, which burn night and day. It is ſaid, the bones of theſe men were brought to Conſtantinople by Helena, the mother of Conſtantine; from thence to Milan, by Eutorpius, biſhop of that ſee; and afterwards to this place, by archbiſhop Rainold.

Here is a very flouriſhing univerſity, re-eſtabliſhed by Urban VI. in 1388. The town-houſe is a vaſt fabric, after the Gothic manner, where are ſeveral rooms adorned with noble paintings; and others full of bows, arrows, bucklers, and all ſorts of antique arms; particularly a croſs bow of whalebone, 12 feet long, 8 inches broad, and 4 inches thick. From the tower of this houſe there is a beautiful proſpect of the city and country. On the front of it is the figure of a man in Baſſo Relievo, engaged with a lion, repreſenting one of their burgomaſters, who, having exaſperated their clergy, they put in a lion upon him, which he ſlew on the ſpot. In the grand hall are five pictures with inſcriptions, to perpetuate the memory of the battle of Hochſtet. Several eccleſiaſtical councils have been held here; the firſt in the year 346. Another was held by Charlemagne's order, in the eighth century; and ſeveral in the ninth, for reformation of manners, againſt inceſtuous marriages, and oppreſſion of the poor. The pope generally has a nuncio here, to take care of his intereſts with the Popiſh electors. Though the elector, by his officers, adminiſters juſtice in all criminal cauſes; yet ſo jealous are the citizens of him, that they will not permit him, in perſon, to reſide above three days at a time in the city, nor to come into it with a great train; for which reaſon he generally reſides at Bonne. Cologne was made an archbiſhopric in 755, and, in 1260, entered into the Hanſeatic league. It has the precedence of all the Imperial cities, and is fortified in the ancient manner. It has upwards of 20 gates, guarded by the militia, which conſiſts of four companies of foot; but the ſtreees, in general, are dirty, and badly paved; and the windows compoſed of ſmall round pieces of glaſs.

A late traveller ſays, "though this is one of the greateſt cities, it is one of the moſt melancholy in Europe; there being great numbers of prieſts, friars, and ſtudents, many of whom beg alms with a ſong; and nothing to be heard but the tolling of bells." He ſays alſo, "That there are as many churches and chapels in it as days in the year; that there are very few families of quality; that the vulgar are extremely clowniſh; and that the noblemen of the chapter ſtay no longer in town than their duty obliges them." As a free Imperial city it has a ſeat and voice at the diets of the empire and circle; in the former of which it has the firſt place on the Rheniſh bench.

On the other ſide of the Rhine, directly oppoſite Cologne, is a village called Deutz, inhabited chiefly by Jews tolerated by the elector; but they are not ſuffered to enter the city without a guard, nor to lie one night in it; and they pay a florin of gold for every hour they ſtay. The Jews in Deutz live by fattening herds of ſwine for the Chriſtians; ſo that more beaſts than men are ſeen in the ſtreets, which are extremely filthy and ill-paved; and the houſes are built with pieces of timber intermixed with clay. The principal buildings belonging to this village are a Benedictine convent, and a parochial church on the brink of the river.

Bonne, the uſual place of reſidence of the elector, is ſituated on the weſtern ſide of the Rhine, 15 miles ſouth of Cologne, 28 north-weſt from Coblentz, 21 ſouth-eaſt from Juliers, 57 north-eaſt from Treves, and 62 north-weſt from Mentz, in a fruitful country, which produces very good wine. The woods abound with variety of game, as does a ridge of mountains on both ſides of the Rhine, from hence as far as Bingen. It is a ſmall city, but well inhabited. The elector's palace, ſituated in the caſtle, is a very elegant and ſpacious building. The churches are ſtately, eſpecially the collegiate, dedicated to the martys Caſſius, Florentius, and Maluſius, whoſe bodies, with ſeveral others of the famous Theban legion, are ſaid to be buried in it, being brought hither by St. Helena, who founded this church to their honour. The town-houſe is well-built, and adorned with fine paintings. This was formerly an Imperial city, but is now ſubject to the elector. In the bailiwick, to which the town gives name, are ſeveral electoral pleaſure-houſes; and a ſmall town, called Heymertſen, on the Erfft.

Andermach is a town on the Rhine, ſituated about 20 miles ſouth-eaſt of Bonne, upon the confines of the electorate of Triers, and the duchy of Juliers. It was formerly a free and Imperial city, but is now ſubject to the elector of Cologne. After it had lain a long time in ruins, it was rebuilt in 1520. It is fortified with a wall, caſtle, and bulwarks; is the boundary betwixt this archbiſhopric and that of Treves; and has a cuſtom-houſe belonging to Cologne; but its principal trade is by lodging paſſengers. In 1702 it was taken by the prince of Heſſe-Caſſel, the more to ſtreighten Bonne, which was then blocked up by the confederates. This is mentioned as one of the fortreſſes which Druſus built to awe the Germans; and it is believed, that Caligula, his ſon, was born here. It is the handſomeſt and largeſt of all the towns from Bonne to Triers. It has three conſiderable monaſteries in it, and ſeveral churches, the chief of which has two twin ſteeples, not unlike the towers of Notre-Dame at Paris. Two companies of ſoldiers are kept here by the chapter of Cologne. In the bailiwick, to which the town gives name, is an abbey called St. Thomas; and Rens, or Rees, a ſmall town on the Rhine, near which is a remarkable piece of antiquity, called the Koniguſtuhl, a large round building, of free-ſtone, reſting on nine pillars, the aſcent to which is by 28 ſteps. In this building the electors formerly met to conſult about the choice of an emperor, and other weighty matters; and ſome emperors have actually been elected here.

Zulpich, or Zulch, a ſmall town, gives name to a bailiwick entirely ſurrounded by the duchy of Juliers.

Konigsfeld, a borough and citadel, gives name to a diſtrict, in which is a Carmelite cloiſter, and a famous mineral ſpring.

Nuys,

Nuys, a fortified town, near the conflux of the Rhine and Erfft, has a brisk trade, and contains a college of canons regular of St. Auguſtine. It held out a ſiege for a whole year, againſt Charles the Bold duke of Burgundy; for which great privileges were granted to it by the emperor Frederick IV.

Zons, a ſmall town, with a caſtle, on the Rhine, which gives name to a bailiwick, contains another ſmall town, called Wering, or Weringan, and a premonſtratenſian abbey.

Rufferſchied, a ſmall town, contains a caſtle, and gives name to a county which belongs to a branch of the houſe of Salm.

Ahrweiler, a ſmall town on the Ahr, is noted for producing excellent wine.

The diſtrict called the Palatinate of the RHINE is divided, by the Rhine, into two parts, the Upper and Lower Palatinate. The former lies in the circle of Bavaria, and belongs to the elector thereof; but the latter (in the circle we are now treating of) belongs to the elector palatine. The Lower Palatinate is bounded on the eaſt by the county of Catzenellebogen, the archbiſhopric of Mentz, the biſhopric of Worms, and part of the territory of the Teutonic order in Franconia; on the weſt by Alſace, the duchy of Deux-Ponts, the county of Spanheim, the duchy of Simmern, and certain diſtricts of the electorate of Mentz; on the north by part of the archbiſhopric of Mentz, and the county of Catzenellebogen; and on the ſouth by the duchy of Wertemburg, and the biſhopric of Spire. It contains 41 towns, beſides ſeveral boroughs; and its greateſt extent is about 80 miles. The air is healthful, and the ſoil fruitful in corn, paſturage, wine, tobacco, and all ſorts of pulſe and fruits, particularly walnuts, cheſnuts, and almonds. This country alſo breeds abundance of cattle, and is well watered by the Neckar, the Nahe, and the Rhine. In the laſt of theſe, near Germerſheim and Sebz, is found gold, the excluſive right of ſearching for which is farmed out by the elector.

The ſtate of religion has varied greatly here ſince the reformation, Lutheraniſm and Calviniſm having been uppermoſt by turns, till the electorate devolved to the Popiſh branches of the family, when Popery, with all its ſuperſtition, was eſtabliſhed anew; ſo that the Proteſtant religion is now on a very precarious footing in the Palatinate; though moſt of the natives are ſtill of that perſuaſion. The two ſects of Proteſtants, the Lutherans, and Calviniſts, have, indeed, greatly contributed to their own ruin, by their mutual jealouſy and animoſity; being no leſs rancorous againſt one another, than againſt their common adverſaries the Papiſts. The Lutherans reckon themſelves 50,000 ſtrong, and are poſſeſſed of about 85 churches; but not one half of their preachers and ſchoolmaſters have a competent maintenance. The number of Calviniſt clergy here is eſtimated at 500, and that of the Roman Catholics at 400. Beſides ſchools and Jeſuits colleges in this country, there is one univerſity, namely, that of Heidelberg; but there is very little trade in it except in wine. Authors are divided about the origin of the name Palatines, or Pfalzgraves, as the Germans call them; but it ſeems moſt likely to be derived from the palatia, or palaces, which the old Frankiſh and German kings, and Roman emperors, were poſſeſſed of in different parts of the country, and over which they appointed ſupreme ſtewards or judges, who were called Palatines, or Pfalzgraves. The countries where theſe Palatines kept their courts were, from them, called Palatinates, which name came at laſt to be appropriated, by way of eminence, to this country, as being the moſt conſiderable of them. The ancient electoral line failing in 1685, the electorate devolved to Philip William, duke of Neuburg; and upon the death of his ſecond ſon, Charles Philip, to the prince of Sultzbach. This elector has the title of arch-treaſurer of the empire, as well as the elector of Brunſwic-Lunenburg, and is the fifth in rank among the ſecular electors. He is alſo one of the vicars of the empire, alternately with the elector of Bavaria, and enjoys many other prerogatives. In his own dominions he diſpoſes of all vacant benefices; but allows the eccleſiaſtical council, compoſed of two clergymen and two laymen, to preſent two candidates, of which he chuſes one. He is alſo maſter of all the tythes in his dominions; but he either grants them to the clergy or ſalaries in lieu of them, out of the revenues of the church. His title is, "Pfalzgrave of the Rhine, arch treaſurer and elector of the holy Roman empire; duke of Bavaria, Juliers, Cleves, and Berg; prince of Mors; marquis of Bergen-op-Zoom; count of Veldens, Spanheim, the Mark, and Ravenſburg, and lord of Ravenſtein." In this country is an order of knighthoood called St. Hubert, the badge of which is a quadrangle croſs pendant to a red ribbon, with a ſtar on the breaſt. The whole of the elector's revenue ariſing from the Palatinate, the duchies of Berg and Juliers, the ſeigniory of Ravenſtein, and the duchies of Neuburg, and Sultzbach, hath been eſtimated at about 300,000l. per annum. The military eſtabliſhment conſiſts of ſeveral regiments of horſe and foot, beſides the horſe and Swiſs life-guards. All the different courts and councils, uſual in other countries for the different departments of government, are alſo to be found here.

The moſt remarkable towns and places in this Palatinate are as follows:

Heidelberg, the capital of the Palatinate, 10 miles from Manheim, 12 from Spire, 38 from Frankfort, and 35 from Mentz, is ſituated near the river Neckar, in a good air, and encompaſſed on all ſides, except to the weſt, with hills covered with wines. It takes its name from Heidel, which ſignifies a myrtle, and Berg, a mountain; there being, or having been, plenty of thoſe trees on the mountains in the neighbourhood. It is an ancient city, and has been frequently beſieged and taken, plundered and deſtroyed. Though it is at preſent ſmall, it is neat, and well built. The electoral palace is an antique building, but, ſtanding on a hill, commands a fine proſpect. As to the famous library here, many valuable books and manuſcripts were taken from it in 1622, (when general Tilly made himſelf maſter of the town,) and ſent to Rome, Vienna, and Munich. The profeſſors of the univerſity here are partly Calviniſts, and partly Roman Catholics. The Calviniſts have alſo a gymnaſium. Of the churches, ſome belong to the Calviniſts, ſome to the Lutherans, and ſome to the Roman Catholics. In a college called the Sapience, which belongs to the Calviniſts, 12 poor ſtudents are provided with lodging and board.

Oppoſite to Heidelberg is a high mountain, on which the Romans had a caſtle, and which, by ſome, is thought to be the Mons Pyrus, mentioned by Amianus Marcellinus. It is now called the Holy Mountain, from a cloiſter erected on it in 1023, to which frequent pilgrimages are made. The famous tun here, which ſtood in a cellar under one of the towers of the electoral palace, and contained 600 hogſheads of wine, was deſtroyed by the French in 1688; but the elector Charles Lewis cauſed a new one to be made, which is much more conſiderable.

Eight miles weſt of Heidelberg, on the eaſt ſide of the Rhine, ſtands Manheim, the place where the elector uſually reſides. It is one of the fineſt towns in Germany, and ſtrongly fortified; but it labours under two capital diſadvantages, the want of good water and wholeſome air. The electoral palace is one of the moſt magnificent in Europe, and contains a grand collection of paintings, brought hither from Duſſeldorp, beſides antiquities and curioſities, among which is the crown of the unhappy Frederick V. king of Bohemia. The three religions tolerated in the empire have churches in this city. Here is alſo a Jewiſh ſynagogue, with a Capuchin and Carmelite cloiſter. Some manufactures, and a conſiderable trade, are carried on in this town; the latter chiefly by the Jews, ſome of whom are very rich.

Bacharach is a town on the Rhine, the name of which, as ſome imagine, is a corruption of Bacchi Ara, i. e. the Altar of Bacchus; there being a ſtone oppoſite to it, on the Rhine, ſhaped like an altar, and called, by the inhabitants, the altar-ſtone, upon which, it is thought, victims were frequently offered to Bacchus, the neighbouring country yielding Muſcadine wine. The inhabitants here, as in all other towns of the Palatinate, are a medley of Catholics, Lutherans, and Calviniſts. The town contains a cloiſter; and on a mountain near it ſtands the caſtle of Staleck.

Oppenheim ſtands on a hill near the Rhine, and was once an Imperial free city. In 1688 and 1689 it was laid waſte by the French, as were the principal towns of the Palatinate; but it has ſince recovered itſelf. All the three religions have churches here.

Ingleheim is a borough on the Selz, in which Sebaſtian Munſter, the geographer, and, as ſome think, Charlemagne, the emperor, were born.

Frankenthal, a conſiderable town, was formerly fortified, but afterwards laid waſte, and diſmantled by the French. In 1750 great privileges were promiſed to all Proteſtants and Roman Catholics who ſhould come and ſettle in it.

Alzey, on the river Selz, contains a caſtle, with a church for each of the three religions, and gives name to a bailiwick. In the neighbourhood of this town is a ſtone monument, erected in memory of a dangerous leap, which the elector Frederick IV. made over a very broad ditch, on horſeback.

Neuſtadt, on the Hart, has a college, a gymnaſium, and gives name to a bailiwick, which yields an excellent wine, and contains ſeveral ſmall towns. Near Neuſtadt is a caſtle.

Germerſheim is a large town, with a caſtle, ſituated on the Rhine, where it is joined by the Queick, and where is a profitable fiſhery and a gold waſh. The emperor Rodolph I. of Hapſburg, died in this town, which is ſuppoſed to be the Vicus Julianus of the Romans, and gives name to a bailiwick, containing alſo a commandery of the order of St. John, together with ſeveral ſmall towns on the Rhine. At Selz is a gold waſh; and at the ſame place was anciently a noble provoſtſhip, the revenues of which are now enjoyed by the Roman Catholics.

Moſbach contains a caſtle, with churches belonging to the three religions, and has a manufactory of cloth. It gives name to a bailiwick in which are ſeveral towns, particularly Sinzheim, where there is a large cloiſter belonging to the Franciſcans.

Ladenberg, is an ancient town on the Neckar, 16 miles from Heidelberg, of which one half formerly belonged to the elector, and the other to the biſhop of Worms; but now the whole is the elector's. In the time of the Romans it was named Lupodunum. Here are churches of three religions.

Bretten is noted for being the birth-place of Philip Melancthon. It alſo gives name to a bailiwick.

Weinheim is a town ſituated in the fineſt part of the Bergſtraz. The neighbourhood produces good wine, and contains a caſtle on a mountain.

The City of ERFURT is the capital of Thuringia, and was made a biſhopric by St. Boniface, in the eighth century. Both the city and its territory, which is of conſiderable extent, are ſubject to the electorate of Mentz; but the inhabitants of both, or at leaſt the greateſt part of them, are Proteſtants, and entitled, by expreſs ſtipulations, to the free exerciſe and enjoyment of their religion. The civil and criminal courts conſiſt of an equal number of Roman Catholic and Lutheran aſſeſſors; and the members of the town-council are partly Catholics, and partly Proteſtants; the laſt having likewiſe a conſiſtory of their own perſuaſion. The city of Erfurt is large and well fortified, but not very populous; and the buildings are moſtly old faſhioned. The territory is pleaſant and fruitful, both in corn and wine. The garriſon conſiſts of two battalions of imperial and electoral troops. There is a bell here, called Suſanna, which is ſaid to be the largeſt in Germany, weighing above 12 tons. Here alſo are two citadels, with many churches; ſome collegiate, ſome Roman Catholic, and ſome Lutheran; together with a rich Benedictine monaſtery; ſeven cloiſters, of which one is the Scottiſh; a Lutheran gymnaſium; an univerſity of five colleges, the profeſſors of which are partly Lutherans, and partly Roman Catholics; the Imperial academy of natural curioſities; a riding academy; a botanic garden; an aſtronomical obſervatory; an anatomical theatre; ſeveral good libraries; and an academy of the uſeful ſciences. Several diets of the empire have been held here. In 1664 the city was beſieged and taken by the elector of Mentz, with the help of the French and Lorrain troops: but, by ſtipulations with the elector and princes of Saxony, who were its protectors, its privileges were, in a great meaſure, ſecured. The territory belonging to the city contains 2 ſmall towns and 73 villages, among which are 5 called the Kitchen Villages, as being obliged to perform certain ſervices to the archbiſhop's kitchen.

That part of the Lower Rhine, called the EICHSFELD, is ſurrounded by Heſſe, Thuringia, and the principalities of Grubenhagen and Calenburg,. It extends about 30 miles in length, and 20 in breadth, and is divided into the Upper and Lower Eichsfeld. The former is mountainous, but healthy and populous; the latter, though not enjoying, perhaps, ſo pure an air, is more level, warm, and fruitful, abounding in corn, cattle, flax, and tobacco. Great quantities of linen and ſerge are made in the upper; in which the rivers Leine, Lutter, Unſtrut, Wipper, and Rume, have their ſources. The Thuringian language is ſpoken in the upper, but in the under the lower Saxon. In both are 4 cities, 3 boroughs, and 150 villages. The diets, which conſiſt of the repreſentatives of the abbies, nunneries, and certain towns, with the nobility, are held, if the weather will permit, in the open air, at a place called Jagebanks-Warte; if not, in the council-houſe at Heilingenſtadt. There are a few Proteſtants in the Eichsfeld; but the prevailing religion is the Roman Catholic. With regard to eccleſiaſtical matters, the country is divided into 10 provincial deaneries, and 81 pariſhes, in which are 2 collegiate foundations, 2 abbies, and 6 nunneries. The right of patronage, in ſome places, belongs to the archbiſhop; in others to the cloiſters and foundations; and in others to the nobility. At Heilingenſtadt are held the ſupreme temporal courts; and there alſo reſides the lieutenant, or adminiſtrator; but the ſeat of the archiepiſcopal commiſſary which has the ſpiritual juriſdiction over the whole Eichsfeld, is at Duderſtadt.

The only places of note, in this part of the country, are the two following:

Heilingenſtadt, ſituated on the river Leine, in the upper diſtrict. Here is a fine caſtle, a collegiate church dedicated to St. Martin, with three other churches, and a ſchool; and a town on the Hahle, in the lower diſtrict, containing an Urſuline nunnery, the ſuperior of which is ſtiled Worthy Mother, and is changed every three years. The inhabitants, many of whom are Lutherans, ſubſiſt chiefly by brewing of beer, and cultivating tobacco.

The Duchy of WESTPHALIA, which is about 40 miles in length, and 30 in breadth, is bounded on the eaſt by the biſhopric of Paderbon, and the territories of Waldeck and Heſſe; on the north by the biſhopric of Munſter, and the county of Lippe; and on the ſouth by the counties of Witgenſtein and Naſſau, and the duchy of Berg. The lower diviſion of it is tolerable fertile in corn and cattle; and in ſome parts of it are ſalt ſprings. The higher part produces iron ore, calamy, lead, copper, fine woods, corn, cattle, game, fiſh, and ſome gold and ſilver.

The rivers, that either paſs through the duchy, or along its borders, are the Rhur, the Lenna, the Bigga, the Dimel, and the Lippe. There are 28 towns in it, beſides boroughs and cloiſters. The provincial diets

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are held at Aremberg. In the year 1180 the emperor Frederick I. made a donation of this duchy to the archbiſhopric of Cologne, which was confirmed by ſucceeding emperors; and, in 1368, the laſt duke of Arenſburg ceded to it alſo the county of Arenſburg. The duchy is now governed by a bailiff, under the archbiſhop, and is divided into the Hellwege, the Haarſtrank, and the Surland; or otherwiſe into the Ruden, the Werl, the Bilſtein, and the Brilon quarters.

In the Ruden quarter, beſides the town which gives name to it, ſituated on the river Mons, and containing a Capuchin monaſtery and nunnery, is

Geſeke, a ſmall town, in which is a foundation for ladies, and a cloiſter of Obſervantines.

In the Werl quarter, beſides Arenſburg, the capital of a county, and a handſome town, ſituated on the Rhur, or Roer, 47 miles north-eaſt from Cologne, are the ſmall towns of Werl and Beelike; the firſt containing a Capuchin cloiſter, and the other a Benedictine provoſtſhip.

The ſame quarter contains alſo ſeveral abbies, nunneries and caſtles, a mineral ſpring, a commandery of the Teutonic order, with a ſtud, and hunting-ſeat of the elector.

In the Bilſtein quarter are the towns of Fredeburg, Droſthagen, Olpe, and Attondorn, with ſeveral cloiſters and caſtles.

In the Brilon quarter are nine ſmall towns, with ſeveral caſtles and cloiſters.

The County of RECKLINGHAUSEN is bounded by the biſhopric of Munſter, the duchy of Cleves, and the county of Mark, lying on the eaſt ſide of the Rhine, and extending about 20 miles from eaſt to weſt, and ſo from north to ſouth. It belongs to the ſee of Cologne, and is governed by a lieutenant. It contains only one place that merits any attention, namely,

Recklinghauſen, a town, giving name to the county, and containing a ſtrong caſtle, with a nunnery, the abbeſs whereof hath power of puniſhing capitally. She alone is obliged to make a vow of chaſtity; for the nuns, after having been a certain number of years in the houſe, may marry.

The County of LOWER-ISENBURG lies near that of Wied, in the circle of Weſtphalia. The greater part of it is poſſeſſed by the elector of Triers, who has a ſeat and voice on account of it at the diets of this circle. The reſt of it belongs to the counts of Wied-Runkel, and the barons of Walderdorf. In that part of the county belonging to the elector is a ſmall town, called Herſbach.

The Burgravate of REINECK lies on the Rhine, between the duchy of Juliers and the archbiſhopric of Cologne. It had formerly burgraves of its own; but now belongs to the counts of Zinzendorf, of the Ernſt-Brunn line, who, on account of it, have a ſeat and a voice in the diets of this circle. The only town in it is Reineck, from which it takes its name.

The principality of AREMBERG is ſurrounded by the archbiſhopric of Cologne, the duchy of Juliers, and the county of Blankenheim. The dukes of Aremberg and Arſchot are a branch of the houſe of Ligne. Till 1576 they were only counts, but were then made princes of the empire; and, in 1644, dukes. They have a ſeat and voice both at the diets of the empire and circles, and in the college of princes. They take their title from Aremberg, which, though a ſmall town, has a caſtle, and is the capital of the principality.

The princes of Thurn, or Tour, and Taxis, though they have no immediate eſtate in this circle, yet have a ſeat and voice in its diets, as alſo in thoſe of the empire. The firſt they obtained in conſequence of advancing to the circle, in the year 1724, by way of purchaſe, 80,000 rix-dollars; and the other in conſequence of an Imperial decree, founded upon their having had the office of poſt-maſter of the empire erected in their favour into a free eſtate. They took their ſeat among the princes in the diet of the empire, for the firſt time, in 1754.

The Teutonic order of knights are poſſeſſed of a bailiwick in this circle, named from the town of COBLENTZ, which entitles them to a ſeat and voice among the prelates of the empire, and alſo in the diets of the circle. To this bailiwick, which has its ſeat at Cologne, belong ſeven commanderies, or commendams.

THE CIRCLE OF FRANCONIA.

FRANCONIA is bounded by the circle of the Upper and Lower Rhine, Bavaria, Swabia, Upper Saxony, and Bohemia. The biſhop of Bamberg, and the margraves of Brandenburg-Bareith and Anſpach, are ſummoning princes for the circle; but the biſhop is ſole director. The diets are held at Nuremburg, the archives are kept at Bamberg; and the inhabitants are a mixture of Roman Catholics, Lutherans, and Calviniſts.

The Imperial City of NUREMBERG, which is ſituated 35 miles to the ſouth of Bamberg, was made Imperial by the emperor Frederick Barbaroſſa. It is one of the largeſt, fineſt, and richeſt cities in the empire; and conſidering its great diſtance from the ſea, the wonder of Europe for trade, and number of people.

Nuremburg, in general, ſurpaſſes all other cities in Germany, except Berlin, in the ſtatelineſs of its buildings; but exceeds that, as it does all the others, in the wealth, ingenuity, and induſtry of the inhabitants. It is eight miles round; defended with large ditches faced with ſtone, and high triple ſtone walls, with 365 towers on them, of which 183 are of free-ſtone, mounted with 300 pieces of cannon. Here are 550 ſtreets and alleys; and moſt of the houſes being uniform, are of free-ſtone, 6 or 7 ſtories high, painted on the out-ſide, and adorned at the top with gilded balls. The ſtreets are large, very commodious, open, and well paved; and next to thoſe of Hanau, the neateſt in Germany; but they are not very ſtrait, neither are they on a level. Here are 10 market places, regularly built, 13 public baths, 12 conduits, and 118 wells. Their chief fountain is adorned with many braſs ſtatues; one of Neptune on the top, three yards and an half high, and above 2200 weight; and others of nymphs and ſea-horſes larger than the life. This fountain will throw out 200 hogſheads in an hour, and coſt near 3500 crowns. The river Pegnitz is let in by 12 large arches under the walls; and, after running through the middle of the city, is let out by 12 other arches. It forms ſeveral pleaſant iſlands, wherein are moſt agreeable walks and meadows, where they whiten linen; and alſo ſupplies the ditches and town with water. Upon the ſtream there is a great number of mills for tanners and braziers, as well as for corn, paper, iron, and making ſword-blades, knives, and other iron-wares. There are 60 mills within the walls, many of them for grinding corn; and 7 wooden and 11 ſtone bridges over this river. One of theſe bridges has one arch only, of 97 feet from one baſe to the other, like the Rialto at Venice, though not ſo high or ſo long, and is accounted a wonder in architecture. At one end of it there is a large market, built of hewn ſtone, on the gate of which the butchers have placed a vaſt ox of ſtone, lying on his belly, with gilded horns and hoofs.

The inhabitants are about 60,000; yet have but 2 pariſh churches properly ſo called. The firſt is as ſtately as any one of its kind in the empire, viz. that built by St. Sebald, a Daniſh prince of the blood royal, by whom this country was converted. It is a large Gothic pile, has 7 gates, an immenſe bell, and a braſs monument erected to his memory, with noble antique figures. The ſextons have a rare collection of relics, which they ſhew only to travellers of quality. The ſecond is St. Laurence's church, another Gothic fabric, which is chiefly frequented by the Lutheran nobility and gentry. It has eight gates, two ſteeples in the front, and is the largeſt in the city. Here the chief of the citizens have their tombs and eſcutcheons; and there

there is a regiſter of all that have been buried here for 500 years, ſpecifying the time and manner of their death. Beſides theſe, there are the churches of the Virgin Mary, St. Giles, the Holy Ghoſt, and the hoſpital of St. James, in which are the monuments of many princes and counts of the empire. Near St. Laurence's church are three fountains, one of them an octagon baſon, with a large braſs pillar in the middle, from whoſe chapiters project ſix muzzles of Lions, ſpurting water out of each by a twiſted pipe. On the cornice are the ſix cardinal virtues, ſpurting water from their breaſts. On this pillar ſtands a leſs one fluted, on which are ſix infants, every one of them leaning on an eſcutcheon, bearing the arms of the empire, thoſe of Nuremberg, &c. and they all have trumpets, out of which jets plenty of water; as it does likewiſe from the breaſts of a fine ſtatue of Juſtice, on the top of this ſecond pillar, and from a large oſtrich which ſupports it. The whole is of braſs, encloſed by an iron grate, carved and gilt.

The caſtle, where the emperor reſides when here, is well fortified, and ſtands on a high hill, or rock, from whence there is a fine proſpect of the city. It has many curious pictures. Within the firſt gate is a ſmall antique chapel, which was formerly a chapel dedicated to Credo and Hirmenſul, two divinities worſhipped by the ancient Germans, whoſe ſtone ſtatues are againſt the wall on the outſide. Here is a well in the rock 1600 feet deep; and the chain of the bucket is 300 weight. The cieling is ſupported by four Corinthian pillars, each 45 feet high. In the emperor's apartment there is the picture of the homage paid by the magiſtrates to the emperor Matthias in 1612. This caſtle has four towers, two of which look towards the town, and the two others to the eaſt and north.

The ſtadthouſe is a ſtately beautiful fabric of hewn ſtone, 100 paces in breadth, and much larger than that of Augſburg. It has three great porticos, with marble pillars. The front is very fine, having a noble portal in the middle of it, adorned with ſeveral ſtatues. There are two other very grand gates to it, at equal diſtances, which are no leſs ſplendidly ornamented. There is a long gallery, on the cieling of which a famous tournament, that was held here above 300 years ago, is repreſented in relievo. The council-chamber, dining-room, and other apartments, are well painted and gilt, filled with the arms of all nations, and adorned with curious pictures, medals, excellent works, both antique and modern, idols, ſhells, plants, minerals, and other natural productions. The council-chamber is ſmall, and not ſuitable to the dignity and power of the ſenate. The floor of the ſenate-houſe is paved with gilt ſtones, intermixed with others of different colours; ſo that it exceeds that of Amſterdam: and in one of the chambers is a large picture, that quite covers one ſide of the wall, repreſenting the entertainment which the emperor Ferdinand III. gave in the grand hall here, to the plenipotentiaries, at the treaty of Munſter. Here are the pictures alſo of all the princes, and moſt other great perſonages in Germany, who have been entertained here. The deputies of the circle of Franconia meet every day. Thoſe of the biſhop of Bamberg, and the marquis of Brandenburg-Bareith, preſide at it; but the deputies of the eccleſiaſtical princes have the right hand. Theſe deputies are, in all, 18, and are attended by nine ſecretaries, who ſit at another table to write their reſolutions. Within this chamber, over the door, is a picture of three brothers, princes of Saxony, viz. John George, Frederick, and John Chriſtian, who ſupported Luther in his reformation. The ſecond of theſe holds the Imperial crown, which he would not accept of. The tapeſtry of this chamber contains the hiſtory of Nebuchadnezzar.

The arſenal, which has arms for 10,000 men, is one of the fineſt, and beſt furniſhed, in Germany. Here are good ramparts, and a numerous garriſon. The city has ſix gates, each defended by a large tower. The public library was compoſed, at the beginning of the reformation, of all the books belonging to the convents of this city and its neighbourhood. It conſiſts of four galleries, and 26,000 volumes; particularly a Greek MS of the Goſpels, and ſome of St. Paul's Epiſtles, above 1000 years old; with the prayers and hymns formerly uſed in the Greek church. The characters are very different from thoſe now in uſe. Here are a letter, of Luther's hand-writing, to the magiſtrates of this city; a pocket-book of John Frederick, elector of Saxony, being ſcraps of ſermons he heard him preach; and a figure of Moſes, which, though but a foot high, has a great part of the Pentateuch written upon it.

This city, among many other privileges, has the cuſtody of moſt of the Imperial ornaments made uſe of at the emperor's coronation; ſuch as Charlemagne's crown, about which there is a mitre enriched with a vaſt number of diamonds, rubies, emeralds, and pearls; and, on the front, a croſs of diamonds of great value. His Dalmatic robe, or mantle, embroidered with large pearls; the golden apple, or globe; his ſword; his golden ſceptre; the Imperial cloak, embroidered with eagles, and bordered with large emeralds, diamonds, ſapphires, and chryſolites; the buſkins, covered with plates of gold; the gloves, embroidered with curious ſtones. Theſe are kept in the church of the hoſpital, and were all brought from Prague by the emperor Sigiſmund, on account of the troubles that were in Bohemia in his time. Here is alſo a large cheſt, ſuſpended in the air by iron chains faſtened to the cieling, in which are a vaſt many ſacred relics; but they are never ſhewn, except to ſovereign princes, and their attendants.

The council is compoſed of 42 perſons, whereof 28 are ſelected from the ancient patrician families, and the reſt from among the burghers; ſo that there are 13 eſchevins, or aldermen; as many counſellors, or common councilmen; 8 other ſenators, who are all patricians; and 8 other counſellors, elected out of the corporations of trades and crafts, who are conſequently, plebeians; but theſe acquieſce ſo implicitly in the deciſion of the patricians, that they may be ſaid to have no vote. There are two burgomaſters, one choſen out of the eſchevins, the other out of the council, who have the ſuperiority, the one of the military, the other of the civil government, and are changed every month.

The raiſing of troops, taxes, and other matters of great moment, are referred to a ſelect committee of ſeven, named the Septemvirate, who call in three or four civilians for advice. They have ſalaries for their attendance on ſuch occaſions. But no lawyers are allowed any vote, or ſhare in the adminiſtration. In extraordinary caſes there is a great council of 400, choſen out of all the callings and trades in the city; and they annually chuſe the members of the other courts. The magiſtrates never allow mechanics to meet publicly, except at worſhip, weddings, and funerals, for fear of tumults; and the ſenators are, in general, ſo very circumſpect, that "*as prudent as a Nuremburg ſenator*," is become in the country, a common proverb.

No Papiſt is allowed the freedom of the city, there being but few here; and theſe are obliged to worſhip in a chapel, or ſmall church, in the houſe of the Teutonic order. The Calviniſts were formerly obliged to go a league out of town to a church, in the marquiſate of Anſpach; and the Lutheran miniſters, in the town, baptized their children: but the father of the late king of Pruſſia, whom the Nuremberghers feared much more than they loved, having demanded that they ſhould be allowed a place for worſhip nearer the city, they now meet two or three muſquet-ſhot without the gates, in a long hall, which holds about 500 perſons.

The Jews, who live in a village without the city, where they have a ſynagogue, are not allowed to lodge here, or to come into it, without paying a florin for every hour they ſtay, as at Cologne, and that on the

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ſame pretext, a deſign to poiſon the wells and fountains. The religion, as well as quality, of every perſon here, may be known by their habits; which regulation was made by the magiſtrates, both of this city and Augſburg, to reſtrain the luxury of the meaner ſort in clothes, and to detect rioters, who are but too common in all free cities.

No city in the world has a greater number of curious workmen, in metal of all ſorts, ivory, wood, &c. or affords artificial commodities cheaper. They are particularly famous for clockwork. There was a coach made here, for the king of Denmark, with ſprings, ſo as to go forward or backward, or turn about, and travel a league on ſtones, without horſes, and only managed by two boys within. The ſame workman made, for the Dauphin of France, a repreſentation of a ſquadron of horſe, engaged with a battalion of foot, both of them marching, and firing, by ſpring-work. The Nuremberg braſs is ſaid to be the moſt ductile, the brighteſt, and the leaſt ſubject to flaws, of any in Europe; and is made, chiefly, out of the Tirol copper.

The Imperial city of WEISSENBURG, which is 28 miles ſouth of Nuremberg, and ſituated on the Norgau, has a ſeat and voice both in the diet of the circle and of the empire. Its territory is very ſmall, and contains but one inconſiderable village.

The Imperial city of SCHWEINFURT ſtands on the Maine, has a good bridge, and a gymnaſium. The territory is ſmall, but celebrated for its excellent wine; and the inhabitants are Proteſtants.

The Imperial city of WINDSHEIM, 27 miles from Nuremberg, ſtands on the Aiſch, and is very ancient. It has a ſeat and voice at the diets of the empire and circle, is a ſmall territory; and the inhabitants are Lutherans.

The Imperial city of ROTHENBERG is ſituated near the Tauber. The inhabitants are Lutherans. It has a ſeat and voice in the diets of the circle and empire, a conſiderable territory, and contains ſeveral churches, a gymnaſium, Teutonic houſe, &c.

The ſeigniories of SEINSHEIM, REICHELSBERG, and WIESENTHEID, entitle their lords to a ſeat and voice in the diets of the empire and circle: but the ſeigniories of WELZHEIM and HANSEN have not thoſe privileges.

The combined ſeigniories of LIMBURG and SPICKFELD, entitle its proprietors to two voices at the diet of the empire, and in the college of Franconian counts.

The county of ERBACH, on the ſouth ſide of the Maine, is 27 miles long, 20 broad, tolerably fertile, and inhabited by Lutherans. It gives a ſeat and voice in the college of Franconian counts, and at the diets of the circle and empire; and contains Erbach, a town on the Mumling, with a caſtle; and Michelſtadt, the ſeat of a regency and ſuperintendency. In this county the eſtates of all who die unmarried after the age of 25, are forfeited.

The County of WERTHEIM lies on both ſides the Maine, between the archbiſhopric of Mentz and the biſhopric of Wurtzburg, a part of it terminating alſo on the county of Erbach. It abounds in corn, wine, paſturage, wild fowl, and veniſon. The inhabitants are moſtly Proteſtants. A part of the county came by marriage to the family of Lowenſtein, who derive their pedigree from that of the elector Palatine, and are divided into the two branches of Lowenſtein-Wertheim-Virnenburg, and Lowenſtein-Wertheim-Rochefort, the former of which are Proteſtants and counts; the latter Roman Catholics and princes, or princely counts. They take the title of Lowenſtein from the county of that name, under the juriſdiction of the duke of Wirtemburg, of which they are proprietors; beſides other ſeigniories in the empire, Bohemia, and the Netherlands. They have two voices in the Franconian college of counts of the empire, and have alſo a ſeat and voice among the counts in the diets of the circle. The reſt of this county, beſides what is poſſeſſed by the counts of Lowenſteim, belongs to the biſhop of Wurtzburg, and the counts of Caſtle. The chief in it are

Wertheim, which gives name to it, and is its capital, lying at the conflux of the Maine and Tauber. Here each of the above-mentioned branches of the Lowenſtein family have a palace. The inhabitants are partly Proteſtants and partly Papiſts; bnt the magiſtracy is wholly Proteſtant.

Brenberg, a ſtrong caſtle on a mountain, gives name to a ſeigniory, which had anciently lords of its own. Little Heuback, a market town on the Maine, contains a caſtle, and gives name to a bailiwick.

The county of Rieneck gives its poſſeſſor a ſeat and voice in the diets of the empire and circle, and in the college of Franconian counts; but contains only Rieneck, a ſmall town, with a caſtle.

The County of CASTELL lies between that of Schwartzenburg, and the biſhopric of Wurtzburg, and weſt from Bamberg. It is about 27 miles long, and 8 where broadeſt; and belongs to its own counts, divided into two principal lines, Remlingen and Rudenhauſen, deſcended from the ancient dukes of Franconia. This county is a fief of Wurtzburg, to which the counts are hereditary cup-bearers. They have two voices in the college of the Imperial counts of Franconia, both at the diets of the empire, and thoſe of the circle. The oldeſt of the reigning counts is always adminiſtrator of the feudal ſeigniories of the whole houſe, and cup-bearer to the biſhop of Wurtzburg. The chief places are

Caſtell, a village, containing a fine palace, in which one of the collateral lines of the principal Remlingen line reſides, and giving name to a bailiwick belonging to the ſame line. Near the village formerly ſtood a caſtle, that gave name to the county, and was the reſidence of the counts.

Remlingen is a market town, from which one of the principal lines takes its title.

Rudenhauſen is a village, which gives title to the other capital line, and contains a palace belonging to them.

The Biſhopric of BAMBERG is bounded on the north by the principality of Coburg and the Voghtland; on the ſouth by the principality of Brandenburg-Bareith, the territory of Nuremberg, and the principality of Schwartzenburg; on the weſt by the biſhopric of Wurtzburg; and on the eaſt by the territory of Nuremberg and Brandenburg-Bareith. The length of it is about 60 miles, and the breadth 40. The ſoil is very fertile in corn, wine, ſaffron, and liquorice; yielding alſo, in ſome places, laurel, fig, lemon, and orange-trees, with woods of foreſt-trees, and ſome metals. The county abounds likewiſe in cattle, and is well watered by the Maine, and ſeveral other rivers and brooks that fall into it. The inhabitants are all zealous Roman Catholics. Here are no eſtates. Before the year 1006 this county was called the county of Babenberg, and had counts of its own; but was then allotted for a biſhopric by the emperor Henry II. which pope Benedict VIII. exempted from all archiepiſcopal juriſdiction. The biſhop's privileges and prerogatives are very great. He is the only one in Germany who has the privilege of wearing a cardinal's hat, together with the pillium; and there lies no appeal from his deciſions, in ſecular matters, to the courts of the empire. The king of Bohemia is his cup-bearer, the elector palatine his ſteward, and the elector of Brandenburg his great chamberlain. Theſe, or their proxies, if ſummoned, muſt attend, and do the duties of their offices on the day of his inſtallation. He is able to bring into the field 4000 men. The revenue ariſing from his biſhopric, beſides his bailiwicks in Carinthia, amounts to above 50,000l. The chapter, by whom the biſhop is elected, conſiſts of 20 capitular canons, and 15 domicelli all of noble birth. All his eſtates, excepting

excepting thoſe in Carinthia, are held immediately of the empire. At the diet thereof he has the fourth place on the ſpiritual bench in the college of princes, and is a ſummoning prince and director of this circle. Here are all the uſual courts, councils, and offices, for the different departments of government, as war, foreign affairs, and the finances. The following are the chief places in the biſhopric:

Bamberg, its capital, pleaſantly ſituated near the river Rednitz, is about 34 miles north of Nuremberg, and in the center of Germany. It is ſurrounded with walls and a ditch; and is, in general, well built and populous. Here are two epiſcopal palaces, or caſtles; one called Peterſburg, and the other Gayerſwerth; an univerſity, founded in 1648; ſeveral monaſteries, nunneries, and churches; beſides the cathedral of St George, in which is the monument of Henry II. who founded the biſhopric, and his conſort Cunigunda, with a treaſure of jewels and relics. Several diets, both of the empire and circle, have been held here. Not far from the town ſtands the biſhop's ſummer palace, called Marquardſburg. Among other curioſities in the treaſury of the church of St. George, is a folio manuſcript of the four Goſpels, in Latin, upon fine vellum, in a neat Roman character, with ſome Gothic letters intermixed; and moſt beautiful miniatures to be ſeen every where. The binding is wood, covered with curious ſculptures, in ivory, of Our Saviour's paſſion; and bordered with a gold edging, on which are the heads of Our Lord and his Apoſtles, as are thoſe of the four Evangeliſts at the four corners. The whole is enamelled; and the intervals between the figures are garniſhed with pearls and precious ſtones. There is another Latin manuſcript in folio of the four Goſpels, with a commentary by St. Jerom, and fine miniatures, but not comparable to the former. There is a third in Gothic letters, the corners of which are alſo enriched with pearls and precious ſtones, much in the ſame manner with the firſt, with a ſquare of ivory in the middle, repreſenting St. John baptizing Our Saviour. The ſaid emperor alſo gave a fine large ſhrine of gold for relics, which is alſo ſet with precious ſtones. In ſhort, it would be tedious to mention the vaſt number of antipendiums of altars, which are extremely rich; the candleſticks, luſtres, lamps, cenſors of gold and ſilver, and other rich articles of this treaſury.

Here is an ancient church, whoſe front is adorned with the ſtatues of ſeveral ſaints in niches; but the inſide is very indifferent. The Dominicans have another, with an altar. The Auguſtine friars have a monaſtery, dedicated to St. Stephen; and the Benedictines an abbey, dedicated to St. Michael, and ſtanding on an eminence of the ſame name. One of its abbots, who was a great botaniſt, cauſed the church to be painted, within and without, with all ſorts of known plants and ſimples. A council was held at this city in 1011, to put an end to the difference among the German biſhops; and, in the time of Henry IV. its biſhop, Otho, converted the Pomeranians to Chriſtianity. An univerſity was founded here in 1653, by Melchoir Otto, one of its biſhops. There are ſeveral public fountains in the town, but no fortifications more than its walls; ſo that in time of war, the biſhop reſides, and has commonly a very ſtrong garriſon, at Forcheim.

Forcheim, 10 miles ſouth-eaſt from Bamberg, the Lacoritum of the ancients, is ſtrongly and regularly fortified, having walls of free-ſtone on the confluence of the Wiſent and the Rednitz: yet duke Bernard, of Weymar, the Swediſh general, took it in 1633, at the firſt onſet. The buildings are generally old, and out of repair. Baudrand gives it the Latin name of Forchænum. There is a popular tradition here, that this was the country of Pontius Pilate. The pariſh church of St. Martin was made collegiate in 1354.

The neighbourhood of Bamberg is very agreeable; but as one comes to it from Nuremberg, through a foreſt of fir-trees, there is an avenue to it for a quarter of a league in length, formed of wheels and gibbets, on which are expoſed the bodies of malefactors, by which this road has been infeſted from all quarters; for this biſhopric being contiguous to ſeven or eight different ſtates, the city lies in the greateſt road of all Germany. This city had formerly a wall; but the inhabitants, for their rudeneſs to the biſhop in 1435, were condemned, at the council of Baſil, to raze the walls, and never to rebuild them. In 1609 the Popiſh boors here attempted to plunder the Jews, and the neighbouring Proteſtants; but were ſoon ſuppreſſed, and their leaders puniſhed.

The Biſhopric of WURTZBURG extends 80 miles in length, and 60 in breadth, is well watered, and fertile in corn, fruit, herbs, wine, plants, paſtures, &c.

The eſtabliſhed religion is the Roman Catholic; yet there are a few much oppreſſed and perſecuted Proteſtants in the country. Chriſtianity was firſt introduced here by St. Kilian, a Scotchman, about the end of the ſeventh century: and St. Burchard, the firſt biſhop, was appointed and conſecrated by St. Boniface, who is alſo ſaid to have been a Scotchman, and was the chief apoſtle of the Germans, and firſt archbiſhop of Mentz, to which ſee the biſhop of Wurtzburg is ſuffragan. The biſhop's title runs thus: "Prince of the holy Roman empire, biſhop of Wurtzburg, and duke of eaſt Frankenland." His revenue amounts to about 60,000l. a year, with which he maintains a conſiderable body of troops, even in time of peace, with a ſplendid court and houſhold, horſe and foot guards, &c. being abſolute in temporals, and living in all the ſtate of a ſovereign temporal prince, but in ſpirituals an appeal lies againſt him to his metropolitan, or the Pope's nuncio. His chapter conſiſts of 22 capitular canons, and 30 who are domiciled. Theſe muſt all be of noble birth, and each has an income of 3000 German crowns per annum. The biſhop has the honour of the pall and croſs, with a ſeat and voice in the diets of the empire and circle.

Wurtzburg, the name of the capital, ſignifies a town of herbs, a great variety of which is found about it. It ſtands in the very center of Franconia, on the banks of the Maine, 40 miles weſt of Bamberg, and is well fortified. There is alſo a ſtrong fort near the town, containing an epiſcopal palace, magazine, and a church; but the palace, in which the biſhop uſually reſides, ſtands in the town, and is a noble ſtructure, the firſt ſtone of which was laid in the year 1720. The cathedral, together with a ſeminary, is dedicated to St. Kilian, the patron of Wurtzburg and Franconia. As this city is under the dominion of an eccleſiaſtical prince, it contains a great number of churches, monaſteries, nunneries, and other religious foundations. Here alſo is an univerſity, founded in 1403; a houſe of the Teutonic order, and another of the order of St. John; a foundry for cannon and bells, a handſome college, and ſeveral hoſpitals At the entrance of the bridge, over the Maine, is a triumphal arch of hewn ſtone. Of the abbies, one, large and magnificent, belongs to the Scots Benedictines. The cathedral, an ancient Gothic ſtructure, is richly adorned within with ſtatues, altars, pillars of marble and ſilver, finely executed; beſides paintings, ſculptures, gilding, and veſſels of gold and ſilver. Every thing almoſt is carved and gilt in the church, ſuch as the pulpit, the organs, the benches for the canons, and the altars. Moſt of the ſtatues are alſo gilt. The great hoſpital of St. Julian here, is one of the richeſt and moſt magnificent in Europe, having a greater eſtate and income than the biſhop himſelf. In the caſtle is a fine train of artillery, with all the implements neceſſary for gunners, and vaſt quantities of ammunition in general.

The ſoil of the Franconian Principalities of the Margraves of BRANDENBURG is, upon the whole, fertile; and the mountains abound with copper, lead, ſulphur, marble, fine clay, gold, iron, vitriol, antimony, cryſtal, terra ſigillata, ſilver, &c.

The country contains many woods, is well watered, and abounds in fiſh. The eſtabliſhed religion is Lutheraniſm; but Calviniſts and Roman Catholics are tolerated.

rated. The manufactures are of ſtockings, porcelain, woollen cloth, hats, white and brown earthen ware, &c.

The principal places are the following:

Bareith, the capital, which contains a magnificent palace, erected ſubſequent to the year 1753, two Lutheran and one Calviniſt church, a mint, a Roman Catholic chapel, &c. The ſeat of the high colleges is here; and in the neighbourhood, in a wood, is a neat houſe, called the Hermitage.

St. Gorgen-am-ſee, a town on a lake, contains a noble palace, fine gardens, a porcelain and marble manufactory, &c.

Streitburg, a market town, has a caſtle, and is famous for the yellow marble dug in its environs.

Hof, on the Saale, contains four churches, a woollen manufactory, and a gymnaſium; Neila is famous for its copper and iron mines, and quarries of green marble; and Winſiedel is a conſiderable town on the Roſzlau.

Cullembach ſtands on the Maine, not far from Fichtelberg, nor from the ſource of the Red Maine, one of the rivulets that forms the Maine. Some take this to be the very center of Germany. In 1430 it was plundered by the Huſſites. In 1553, upon the approach of the inhabitants of Nuremberg, with the princes their allies, the citizens, finding they were not able to ſuſtain a ſiege, ſet fire to the town, and retired, with their beſt effects, to the neighbouring caſtle of Blaſſenburg, or Plaſſenburg. Their enemies, however, advanced to the town, extinguiſhed the flames, made a great booty, took the caſtle, after a long ſiege, and demoliſhed it: but the Nurembergers were afterwards obliged to rebuild it; and it is well fortified. In it are kept the ancient records of the family of Brandenburg, conſiſting of title-deeds, Imperial diplomas, acts, and other important and fundamental pieces.

Near Weiſſenſtadt, an old town on the Eger, were formerly mines of tin and cryſtal. A large lake takes its name from it, abounding with delicious carp and perch.

Lechtenberg is a market town, giving name to a bailiwick, in which are a copper and iron mine, beſides ſeveral ſorts of marble and medicinal ſprings.

Golderonach is a town on the river Cronach, where was formerly a gold mine. Marble of various kinds is found hereabouts.

Erlang is one of the ſix head-towns (as they are called) of the principality, ſituated at the conflux of the Rednitz with the Schwabach, and diſtinguiſhed into the Old and New. The latter, which is alſo called Chriſtian-Erlang, having been begun by the margrave Chriſtian Erneſt, in 1686, is one of the fineſt towns in Germany. It lies cloſe to Old Erlang, being almoſt environed with a wall of free-ſtone, and containing a margravial palace, with a fine garden, an univerſity, and ſeveral churches. Some manufactures are alſo carried on here, eſpecially thoſe of hats and ſtockings.

Neuſtadt, on the Aiſch, one of the head-towns of the principality, contains a margravial palace, and gives name to a bailiwick. Beſides this principality, the margraves are poſſeſſed of conſiderable fiefs in the archduchy of Auſtria.

The Biſhopric of EICHSTETT is bounded by the Upper Palatinate, Upper Bavaria, the duchy of Neuburg, the county of Papenheim, and the principality of Anſpach. It is a fruitful country, about 40 miles in length; but the breadth is ſmall in compariſon, and very unequal. The biſhop is a prince of the empire, but ſuffragan of Mentz, and has a revenue of between 9 and 10,000l. The chapter conſiſts of 14 capitulars, and 14 domiciled, who muſt all be noblemen by 16 deſcents. There are few landed eſtates here; and the inhabitants are all Roman Catholics. The biſhopric was founded by St. Boniface, who made his ſiſter's ſon, Wilibald, afterwards canonized by pope Benedict XIII. firſt biſhop thereof, in the year 745. Here are the uſual hereditary offices, and high colleges. The biſhop is perpetual chancellor of the univerſity of Ingolſtadt, and lord of ſeveral fiefs poſſeſſed by princes and counts. The only conſiderable place in the biſhopric is

Eichſtett, or Aichſtadt, i. e. the Town or City of Oaks, ſo called from the huge oaks that formerly grew near it. Here, beſides an epiſcopal palace, and a cathedral, dedicated to our Lady, are ſeveral cloiſters and churches, with a large college. In St. Werburg's church is a rock, or altar, as it is ſtiled, containing the breaſt bones of the ſaint, from which, what they call an oil, but which, in reality, is only a vapour, (for it neither burns nor ſwims upon the ſurface of water,) is ſaid to flow, and force itſelf through the ſtone twice a year. This holy oil is put up in ſmall phials for the uſe of pilgrims, and other devotees, who are aſſured of its miraculous virtues, and for that reaſon reſort hither in great numbers to purchaſe ſome of it, and pay their devotions to the bones of the ſaint. It has a curious cathedral, to which one of their biſhops preſented a fine pixis for the hoſt, which is of pure gold, in form of a ſun, of great weight, ſumptuouſly adorned with diamonds, fine pearls, rubies, and ſeveral other precious ſtones. In 1704 this town was taken by a French detachment. It lies in a valley; but the biſhop reſides, for moſt part, at the fortreſs of Willibaldſberg, commonly called Walperſberg, which is about two miles off, upon a hill. The archives are kept here; and it likewiſe contains an arſenal and library.

The Principality of ANSPACH has Wurtzburg on the weſt, Bamberg on the north and eaſt, and Swabia on the ſouth. It yields grain, wine, iron, timber, fruits, tobacco, marble, medicinal ſprings, &c.

Some parts are mountainous; yet the others produce good paſture, in which abundance of cattle are both bred and fed. The woods are well ſtored with game; and the rivers with fiſh. The chief of the latter are the Rednitz, the Altmuhl, the Jaxt, the Wornetz, and the Tauber. This principality, excluſive of that of Bareith, brings a conſiderable revenue to its ſovereign. The predominant religion is Lutheraniſm; but at Schwabach the Calviniſts have the free exerciſe of theirs. At Anſpach is a military academy. The principal manufactures of the country are tapeſtry, ſtockings, cloth, ſtuffs, gold and ſilver lace, wire, needles, porcelain, leather, and mirrors. The reigning margrave has a ſeat and voice in the college of princes, and at the diets of the empire and circle. His military eſtabliſhment is a life-guard of horſe, and one regiment of foot. The principal places in the principality are,

Anſpach, the capital, which ſtands on the Under-Retzat, and contains a palace, in which the margraves commonly reſide. Here the chief courts, councils, and offices are held. There is alſo a public library here, with a collection of medals, a mint, a gymnaſium, a porcelain manufactory, barracks for ſome companies of foot, beſides two gardens, with a fine orangery and green-houſe, belonging to the prince, and ſeveral churches. The town is ſmall, but well built, and ſurrounded with walls.

Bruckberg is a beautiful pleaſure-houſe belonging to the margrave, ſtanding on an eminence.

Schwaback, on a river of the ſame name, is populous, and carries on great trade in gold, iron, braſs, cloths, tapeſtry, ſtockings, ſilver, ſteel, hardwares, ſtuffs, lace, and tobacco.

The TEUTONIC ORDER of KNIGHTS was founded in the year 1190, in Paleſtine; and were, at firſt, called Knights of the Virgin Mary, or Brothers of the Teutonic Houſe of our Lady of Jeruſalem. They muſt be all Germans, and of ancient nobility. They are to bind themſelves by vows to defend the Chriſtian religion, and the Holy Land, and to protect and aſſiſt the poor and the ſick. In the years 1226 and 1228, after they had been obliged to quit Paleſtine, they obtained a grant of all the lands they ſhould conquer from the

the Pagan Pruſſians; whereupon they ſubdued all Pruſſia, Courland, Semigallia, and Livonia; but afterwards loſt them all. The ſuperior of this ſpiritual order is ſtiled the Grand and Teutonic Maſter, Adminiſtrator of the Grand Maſterdom in Pruſſia, Maſter of the Teutonic Order in Germany and Italy, and Lord of Freudenthal and Eulenberg. He is a prince of the empire, and, as ſuch, has a ſeat and vote in the diets of the empire, and of this circle. Both Roman Catholics and Proteſtants may be inveſted with the order; and the Proteſtant knights are permitted to marry. The eſtates, which they are poſſeſſed of in Germany, were obtained partly by purchaſe, and partly by donation, and conſiſt of what is properly called the maſterdom of Mergentheim, and twelve bailiwicks. The Grand-Maſter is choſen by the chapter, conſiſting of the counſellors and commanders, or commenders; the latter of whom are adminiſtrators and judges of the bailiwicks and commenderies; but, in weighty matters, an appeal lies from them to the Grand-Maſter. The counſellors alſo, and the commenders, are choſen by the chapter; the latter out of the former, and confirmed by the Grand-Maſter.

The County of HENNEBERG is about 24 miles in length, and nearly as much in breadth. Beſides conſiderable quantities of grain, it yields alſo tobacco, medicinal and ſalt-ſprings, with mines of ſilver, copper, and iron. The chief river is the Werra, into which ſeveral ſmaller ſtreams fall. The inhabitants are all Lutherans, except at Schmalkalden, where the Calviniſts have a church. The chief manufactures of the county are thoſe of arms, hard-ware, and fuſtians. The proprietors of it are the elector of Saxony, the dukes of Saxe-Weimar, Meinungen, Gotha, Coburg-Saalfield, Hilburghauſen, and the landgrave of Heſſe-Caſſel. Some of theſe princes are entitled by it to voices in the diets of the empire and circle; and all of them contribute to the payment of its aſſeſſment to the empire and chamber-court. The principal places in the county are,

Schlenſingen, lying on the little river Schlenz, and belonging, with its bailiwick, and ſeveral others, to the elector of Saxony. Here is a caſtle, in which the princes of Henneberg uſed ſometimes to reſide. The town is not large, but has a gymnaſium in it, belonging in common to all the dukes of Saxony, who have a ſhare in the county, and a commandery of the order of St. John. Not far from it is a medicinal ſpring, called Wilhelmſhrun.

Ilmenau is a ſmall town on the Ilm, belonging to Saxe-Weimar, and containing a mine-office, on account of the copper and ſilver mines in the neighbourhood, which were formerly more conſiderable than at preſent.

Meinungen is a town ſituated on the river Werra, and giving title to a branch of the houſe of Saxe-Gotha, who have a palace in it, with a library and cabinet of medals. In this palace alſo are kept the Henneberg archives, belonging in common to the princes of Saxony. In the neighbourhood of this town tobacco is much cultivated.

Salzungen is a ſmall town on the Werra, taking its name from its ſalt ſprings, and belonging to Saxe-Meinungen. Near it alſo is a medicinal ſpring.

Schmalkalden is a large, populous, thriving town, having ſalt ſprings, and a citadel near it called Wilhelmſburg. A great trade is carried on here in iron and ſteel wares, there being mines of iron in the neighbourhood, and forges in the town, which is famous in hiſtory, on account of the meetings held in it by the Proteſtant princes, concerning the reformation, and the league concluded by them in 1531. This town, together with ſeveral bailiwicks and diſtricts, belongs to the landgrave of Heſſe-Caſſel.

The County of SCHWARTZENBURG is about 16 miles in length, but very narrow in proportion. Some of the inhabitants are Roman Catholics, and ſome Lutherans. The prince has a ſeat and voice in the college of princes in the diets of the empire and circle; and is poſſeſſed of other eſtates in the empire beſides this county.

The County of HOHENLOHE is 20 miles long, and nearly as many broad, tolerably fertile, and well watered; and the only conſiderable place is

Ochrengen, the capital, ſituated on the Ochren, containing two palaces, a gymnaſium, and ſeveral churches.

THE CIRCLE OF AUSTRIA.

THE circle of Auſtria is bounded on the north by Moravia, Bohemia, and the circle of Bavaria; on the ſouth by the Adriatic Sea, and the territory of Venice; on the eaſt by Hungary; and on the weſt by Switzerland. It is the largeſt circle, and the firſt in rank, in Germany; and the inhabitants, in general, are Roman Catholics. The principal part of it belongs to the illuſtrious houſe which bears its name, and which hath been upwards of 300 years in poſſeſſion of the Imperial dignity.

The Archduchy of AUSTRIA is divided in Upper and Lower; the former being ſituated weſtward, and the latter eaſtward. It is bounded by Bohemia on the north, Stiria on the ſouth, Bavaria on the weſt, and Hungary on the eaſt. It extends near 70 miles from north to ſouth, on both ſides the Danube. It is, in general, level, fertile, and well watered. The diets conſiſt of princes, counts, provoſts, barons, knights, biſhops, abbots, and town repreſentatives; and in them they treat of contributions, taxes, military affairs, &c. The diets of Lower Auſtria is held at Vienna, and that of Upper Auſtria at Lentz. The Proteſtant religion, for ſome time ſubſequent to the reformation, made a very conſiderable progreſs; but at length was proſcribed, and, in a manner, ſuppreſſed. The archbiſhop of Vienna is a prince of the holy Roman empire, and bears the pall and croſs. The manufactures are ſilks, cloth, ſtockings, mirrors, plate, hard-wares, gold and ſilver lace, ſtuffs, linen, porcelain, braſs, gunpowder, &c. Great quantities of allum, ſaffron, wine, &c. are exported; but few commodities are permitted to be imported; and thoſe which are allowed are loaded with ſo many impoſts and duties, as to amount almoſt to a prohibition. At Vienna there is a chamber of commerce, an exchange, and a loan bank, which was eſtabliſhed in the year 1704.

LOWER AUSTRIA was divided into four circles in the year 1753. Two of theſe are ſituated on the ſouth, and two on the north, ſide of the Danube. Thoſe to the ſouthward are called the circles below and above the foreſt of Vienna; and thoſe to the northward, the circles below and above the mountain of Manhartſberg. The principal places in Lower Auſtria are the following:

Vienna, not only the capital of the circle of Lower Auſtria, but the metropolis of the whole German empire, and the reſidence of the emperor, is ſituated in 48 deg. 14 min. north lat. and 16 deg. 57 min. eaſt long. This city, which is watered by the Danube, is, by the Turks, called Beez; by the natives Wien; and, by the Poles, Wieden. The Danube is here very wide, and forms ſeveral beautiful iſlands, which are well ſtocked with wood. This city was famous in the time of the Romans; but ſince that period we have but very little account of it till the year 1158, when Henry I. of Auſtria, rebuilt it. In 1192 it was enlarged, beautified, and ſurrounded by a wall, with the money paid for the ranſom of Richard I. king of England. This ranſom was 140,000 marks of ſilver, in Cologne weight; ſo prodigious a ſum for thoſe times, that the Engliſh were forced to ſell their church-plate to raiſe it. It was made an Imperial city by Frederick II. in 1236; but four years after it became ſubject to the houſe of Auſtria. Æneas Sylvius, who wrote at leaſt 250 years ago, ſays, this city abounded with palaces fit for kings, and churches which vied with thoſe

thoſe of Italy; a character which it deſerves much better now, even though it has ſuſtained divers memorable ſieges; particularly by Matthias Corvin, king of Hungary, who took it in 1490, and died here in 1495. By the grand ſeignior, Soliman the Magnificent, in 1529, when he made 20 attacks upon it with 300,000 men; but Philip, elector palatine, bravely defended it; and the emperor, Charles V. coming to its relief with 90,000 men, obliged the Turks to raiſe the ſiege on the 14th of October following. By the Turks in 1532 and 1543; and again in 1683, when Kara Muſtapha, grand vizir, beſieged it with 100,000 men, who cannonaded it from the 24th of July to the beginning of September, and laid part of the Imperial palace, as well as ſeveral other grand ſtructures, in aſhes: but count Staremberg, though reduced to great ſtraits, gallantly held it out till relieved by John Sobieſki, king of Poland, who came up with his army; and, being joined by the Imperialiſts, under the electors of Saxony, Bavaria, and Hanover, Charles, late duke of Lorrain, and the brave prince Eugene, attacked the beſiegers on the 12th of September, N. S. and totally routed them; ſo that they not only quitted their camp, but their cannon and baggage; and the vizir, who left his tent for the king of Poland to ſleep in, was, by the grand ſeignior's order, ſtrangled, on his return to Belgrade.

On the 19th of April, 1725, a treaty of peace was concluded here between the emperor and Spain, after four years had been ſpent, in little but ceremony, at the congreſs of Cambray. On the 16th of March, 1731, that called the ſecond Vienna treaty of peace and alliance was concluded here, between the emperor and Great Britain, whereby the latter guaranteed the Pragmatic Sanction; and the former conſented to the introduction of the 6000 Spaniards into Italy; and ſoon after agreed to the ſame with the king of Spain himſelf, by that called the third treaty of Vienna, concluded the 22d of July following, between the emperor, Great Britain, and Spain.

Beſides the old inner wall, which was built with the ranſom-money of our king Richard I. this city is well fortified, after the modern manner, with large broad baſtions, faced with brick, and edged with free-ſtone, viz. two towards the river; ten towards the land; and a very deep ditch, into which they can let the river, but generally keep it dry, for the ſake of their cellars. Including the ſuburbs, it is of large circuit; but the city itſelf is not above three miles round. It is very populous, and never without ſtrangers, in the habits of moſt of the European nations; here being generally not leſs than 30 ambaſſadors, and other miniſters, at a time, from foreign princes and ſtates, and from the princes and ſtates of the empire, beſides vaſt numbers of quality of the hereditary dominions, who are often at court. But no Turkiſh ambaſſador is ever permitted to lodge in the city. It contains about 600,000 ſouls. Some of the houſes are well-built of ſtone, ſix ſtories high, with flat roofs, after the Italian manner; but thoſe which are otherwiſe, are generally contemptible, being covered with pieces of timber, in the ſhape of tiles. The ſtreets are of a middling ſize; and many of the houſes have four cellars, one under another, with an open ſpace in the middle of each arched roof, for a communication of air; and from the lowermoſt of all there is a tube to the top, to let in the air from the ſtreets. The malignity of the air, which might be more unwholeſome were it not for the winds, is generally aſcribed to the loads of mud and dirt in the ſtreets, owing to the neglect of the ſcavengers. Between the city and ſuburbs, all round the wall, there is an empty ſpace of about 600 paces in breadth, in which none are permitted to build. The city contains above 1500 houſes, 29 churches, and 8 chapels.

This city was at firſt a biſhopric, but is now the ſee of an archbiſhop. Its cathedral, dedicated to St. Stephen, founded by Henry I. of Auſtria, and finiſhed by Henry II. is a ſtately fabric; but the windows are darkened by its painted glaſs. The ſteeple and ſpire are the fineſt in Germany. It is 480 feet high; and under the croſs, on the top, there were formerly the Turkiſh arms, a half-moon and ſtar, ſet up by the citizens; becauſe, when Soliman the Magnificent beſieged the city, he would on no other conditions ſpare the ſteeple: and though he was obliged to raiſe the ſiege, and march off, yet the arms continued there till the Turks beſieged it again in 1683; after which, becauſe they fired at the ſteeple, they were taken down. This ſpire has large crochets, above a yard long, adorned with foliage-work; and there is a moſt noble proſpect from it of the city and adjacent country, and of the courſe of the Danube through moſt of Auſtria, and almoſt to Preſburg in Hungary. In the tower there hangs a caſe of wooden hammers, with which they call the people to church, from Good Friday to eaſter day; becauſe they will not ſuffer the bells to ring out during the time that Our Saviour is ſuppoſed to have lain in the grave. At the entrance of this church there is a ſtone placed in the wall, which they fancy to be one of thoſe wherewith St. Stephen was ſtoned to death. It looks like a pebble and is worn very ſmooth by the ſuperſtitious people, who think they gain ſome merit by touching it. In this church are many ſumptuous monuments of princes and other great perſons; but the princes of the Auſtrian family, who have been ſo long in poſſeſſion of this empire, have choſen to be buried in the chancel of the Capuchins church, without any pomp, or leaving any memory of their names or actions, on their monuments. The Aulic church, where the moſt important ceremonies are performed, is not the court church; though it is ſo near it, that there is a paſſage to it, from the palace, by a long gallery.

Here are many other noble churches, and rich convents; particularly for Scotchmen, in honour of their countryman St. Colman, who was reckoned the patron of Auſtria; and whoſe body, long kept here, had miraculous cures aſcribed to it; but it was afterwards carried to Alba Regalis. The church of the Auſtin friars, which is very large, has a chancel reſembling that called the Santa Caſa, or the Virgin's Houſe, at Loretto in Italy, on the top of which are many columns, ſtandards, and other trophies, taken from the Turks and Tartars. Here are likewiſe two elegant and ſpacious colleges. Before that which faces the piazza there is a column of copper, in the center of the market-place, on a pedeſtal of white ſtone, bearing the ſtatue of the Virgin Mary, with the ſerpent at her feet, and four angels round her, with inſcriptions, recommending Auſtria to her patronage. St. Peter's church is much eſteemed for its antiquity, being the oldeſt in the city, and built in the ſame place where formerly ſtood the Ara Flaviana, dedicated to St. Domitian.

Here is a noble univerſity, founded by the emperor Frederic II. who endowed it with great revenues and privileges. It was afterwards enlarged by Ottacar, king of Bohemia, and compleated by Albert III. of Auſtria, who divided it into four claſſes, with their peculiar rules and immunities. 1. The Auſtrian claſs, which takes in the ſtudents of Auſtria, Italy, and other provinces beyond the mountains. 2. That of the Rhine, which takes in the weſt part of the empire, France, Spain, and the Netherlands. 3. The Hungarian includes Hungary, Bohemia; and 4. That of the Saxons, takes in Saxony, the north of Germany, all the northern kings on the continent, Great Britain, Ireland, &c. The chancellor and the maſter have power of life and death over the ſtudents. In 1706 the emperor Joſeph erected an academy for painting, ſculpture, and architecture. The public library contains chiefly claſſical and civil law-books. Proteſtants are not tolerated publicly to exerciſe their religion, except in the chapels of ambaſſadors. The Jews were once permitted to reſide in a ſuburb beyond the river called Judenſtadt; but being ſuſpected of ſecretly carrying on a correſpondence with the Turks, they have ſince been entirely baniſhed from Auſtria. The Imperial palace is mean, low, dark, and badly furniſhed;

niſhed; though the library, which conſiſts of eight rooms, is well ſtocked with manuſcripts and printed books; and the muſeum contains many admirable rarities both of art and nature. The theatre is ſuperb; and the ſtables are capacious buildings, of a vaſt length, but no taſte, being divided into ſeven pavilions, which appear, at firſt ſight, to be ſo many different houſes; but the inner rooms are ill contrived; and the long one, for the houſes, is ſo narrow, that they ſtand all in one row. Indeed, a bad taſte here is too prevalent in the buildings in general. There are, it muſt be admitted, ſome hotels, and even palaces, wherein the rules of architecture have been preſerved; but then they are ever charged with ſculpture, which derogates from the ancient architecture. Here is, however, the beſt arſenal in the empire; where is ſhewn, to ſtrangers, the head of the grand vizir, who was ſtrangled at Belgrade, after he had miſcarried in the ſiege of Vienna. The German ſoldiers, when they took Belgrade, in a former war with the Turks, opened his tomb there, in hopes of treaſure, but found nothing, except the body in its ſhirt: and the governor, remembering that this ſame grand vizir, when he laid ſiege to Raab, (which he was alſo obliged to raiſe,) threatened that, if he maſtered the town, the head of its biſhop, then count Collonitz, ſhould be cut off, becauſe he took the money out of the convents to encourage the garriſon, ſent the vizir's corpſe to the count, who gave it to this arſenal.

In one of the baſtions there is a great magazine of naval ſtores for the emperor's gallies, &c. on the Danube. The ſeven channels, into which the Danube is here divided, contain ſeveral iſlands, communicating together by ſeven bridges made of timber. The high bridge is formed by the interſection of two ſtreets by equal angles; the foundation of one being as high as the tops of the houſes; and, in the other, an arch is built in the lowermoſt ſtreet, to let the uppermoſt paſs over it. Here are two remarkable columns, of which one is called the Conception of the Immaculate Virgin, and the other St. Trinity. The various ſuburbs of the city almoſt embrace it like a bow, and appear like ſo many different towns; the principal being called Leopoldſtadt, and abounding with handſome houſes of the nobles and gentry. The Prat, a wood in an iſland formed by the Danube, is much frequented in fair weather. In its vicinity is a walk, called the Emperor's Garden; and the ruins of a palace, which was deſtroyed by the Turks. Another iſland, named St. Peter's, is capable of encamping a large army.

At the cabinet council the emperor preſides; and next to him ſits the king of the Romans: and, in the privy-council, the prime miniſter is preſident. Theſe have 10 ſecretaries, the principal of whom ſigns the emperor's letters. The council of war has two generals as preſidents, and ſeven majors-general as members, with proper ſecretaries, &c. The Aulic council conſiſts of an equal number of Roman Catholics and Lutherans, nominated by the emperor. It is equal in power to the imperial chamber of Wetzlar, as there is no appeal from either. The court of chancery, for all the buſineſs tranſacted at the Imperial court, whereof the elector of Mentz is always chancellor; but the vice-chancellor preſides in his abſence, and has an aſſiſtant, an aſſeſſor, two ſecretaries, and a referendary. The writs are either in the German or Latin tongues. Here is a council of finances, and an Imperial council, where is alſo a preſident, conſiſting of many lords and gentlemen; among whom are the governors of the Hungarian cities where the mines lie, with the chief officers for the civil affairs of Hungary, Bohemia, Moravia, Sileſia, &c. who ſend directions from hence to the reſpective governments of thoſe countries.

Though other chief courts may exceed the Imperial in pomp, yet, for real grandeur, this outſtrips them all. Moſt of the officers of ſtate, and of the houſhold, are princes or counts, as are alſo the captains of the horſe and foot guards: and there are not leſs than 100 gentlemen of the bed-chamber, with golden keys at their breaſts, who are all counts and barons; of which quality are alſo 60 pages; yet ceremonies and the etiquette a name by which they call ancient uſages, give this court an air of conſtraint that is to be ſeen no where elſe; and though it is univerſally exclaimed againſt, it is as punctually obſerved as if it was an article of religion. They are very fond, in the city, as well as at court, of the days of gala, which is the name they give to thoſe of feſtival and ceremony, when there are commonly operas and comedies. There are three claſſes of them; the court gala, which is univerſal, both for the Imperial family, and for the nobles and plebians; at which time, eſpecially on the birth-days of the emperor and empreſs, the court is extremely gay, and glittering with gold and diamonds. On theſe days the archduchetſes (becauſe it is the cuſtom at Vienna for ſiſters to dreſs alike) muſt be dreſſed all in their hair, as well as their maids of honour; and they wear robes much like childrens veſts, with great trains. The grand gala, which are kept in the city, is for the feſtival of ſome miniſter. The little gala is when the ladies are let blood: for if any lady of diſtinction does but ſend for a ſurgeon to open a vein, it is enough to put the whole city in gala: nay, the huſband makes a gala here for his wife, the wife for her huſband, the children for their parents, and brothers and ſiſters for one another; ſo that for this cauſe two-thirds of Vienna are always in gala. It is a ſingular cuſtom at this court, that the empreſs-dowager can never quit mourning; for though their officers and other domeſtics wear coloured clothes, their apartments and coaches muſt always be hung in black: neither muſt they be preſent at play, ball, or concert; ſo that by loſing their huſbands, they loſe the pleaſures of life. The emperor's pleaſure-houſes are no better than his palace in the city. The caſtle of the Favorita, which is in the ſuburb of Leopoldſtadt, is a great irregular Gothic building, full of turnings and windings, like the ſtreet it looks into, and appears more like a great convent of Capuchins, than the manſion of an emperor. The gardens are pretty large, but otherwiſe mean.

Luxemburg, though a neat convenient box, is even much inferior to the Favorita: but the court only reſides there a month or ſix weeks, during the ſeaſon for heron-hunting. The miniſters, who attend the emperor there, have houſes, which, though not grand, are commodious; but any other perſon who goes thither to pay a viſit, muſt return to Vienna for a bed. The court uſed to ſpend a great part of the ſummer at the palace of New Favorita, which gives name to one of the ſuburbs; but the princes of Mansfeld have built one there which is much more magnificent. The emperor Joſeph, indeed, began a fine houſe at Schonborn, or Schonbrun, about a league from this city, which, if finiſhed according to its plan, might have been another Verſailles; but his empreſs-dowager, to whom he left it, ſuffered the works to run to ruin.

The palace of the great prince Eugene, of Savoy, is very ſtately, but ſituated in a narrow ſtreet, with a very little court before it. Here is a ſpacious ſaloon, adorned with large pictures, repreſenting the chief victories of the prince over the French and the Turks; and in two rooms next to this, a ſuit of rich tapeſtry, made by the famous Devos, at Bruſſels. In the bed-chamber beyond theſe, there is a luſtre of rock cryſtal, ſaid to have coſt 400,000 florins; and rich tapeſtry, rolled up in pilaſters of green velvet, embroidered with gold, and adorned with figures of needle-work ſo fine, that they ſeem to be miniatures; and the cloſet next to it is gilt all over.

The palace of Lichtenſtein, which is larger, and full as magnificent, is worth ſeeing, were it only for its paintings. The palaces of the ſuburbs, in general, are infinitely more grand than thoſe of the city, and they have both court-yards and gardens. Prince Eugene had one here too, where he uſed to paſs the fine ſeaſon. It is a ſuperb ſtructure, with magnificent gardens, in which

which are a fine caſcade, an orangery, and a menagerie, ſtored with the moſt uncommon creatures that the four parts of the world can furniſh. There is a ſaloon below ſtairs, all lined with marble of ſeveral colours, the cieling of which is finely painted.

The civil government of this city is adminiſtered by a ſtadtholder, who muſt always be a perſon of noble extraction, and an officer of the army. The governor has ſeldom any other title than colonel of the city; and he has a lieutenant-colonel to command in his abſence, who has the direction of the fortifications, the arſenal, and the garriſon, which never ſtirs from Vienna, and conſiſts of veteran ſoldiers, or the burghers and artificers of the city. The employments in this corps are very lucrative; but not being on the road to honour, not much ſolicited by perſons of extraction. It is maintained at the charge of the city, and uſed to mount guard at the emperor's palace, as he has no other foot-guards. Vienna abounds with coffee-houſes, where the news-writers are not leſs free with the characters of their generals, ſtateſmen, &c. than they are at London. There being no hoſpital of invalids here, the church-doors are always plied with begging ſoldiers that have been diſabled in the ſervice. All round, upon the city walls, are barracks, or huts, for the garriſon, which are very well built, but not all of them occupied by the ſoldiers, ſome being tippling-houſes, and others for common women.

Kloſter-Neuburg is a rich foundation for Auguſtine canons; Baden is famous for its hot baths; and Neuſtadt contains a military academy.

Molk is a market town on the Danube, near which is an exempted cloiſter of Benedictines, the greateſt and richeſt foundation of the kind in all Auſtria. The abbot is primate of the lower eſtates of this circle, and preſident of the ſeat of prelates. The abbey is dedicated to St. Colman, whoſe tomb it contains. This St. Colman was the apoſtle of Auſtria, and of the blood royal of Scotland; but his fate was ſomewhat ſingular; for, in paſſing through this country in the habit of a pilgrim, he was taken up and hanged as a ſpy.

Upper Austria is divided into four quarters, Hauſtruck, Traun, Michel, and Black.

The principal places in the Hauſtruck quarter are,

Linz, the capital of Upper Auſtria, ſtanding on the Danube. Here is a wooden bridge over the Danube; and on a hill in the neighbourhood is a citadel, which is ſometimes the reſidence of the emperor. The town is well built of white free-ſtone, and populous, containing ſeveral handſome churches, cloiſters, ſquares, and fountains, and is much reſorted to by the nobility, who have villas in the neighbourhood. It is alſo the ſeat of ſeveral counts and colleges for Upper Auſtria; carries on a conſiderable trade in gun-barrels and linen cloth; and has handſome ſuburbs, with two great yearly fairs, at Eaſter and Bartholomew-tide. In the neighbourhood likewiſe are plantations of hops.

Wels is a well built town, on the river Traun, ſaid to have been founded by the emperor Valerian, after his expedition againſt the Scythians in Pannonia. Here is a caſtle, in which the emperor Maximilian I. died. From this town alſo the neighbouring extenſive barren heath of Welſar takes its name.

Gmunden is a town ſituated on the lake of Gmund, or Traun, which abounds with fiſh. It has a conſiderable trade in ſalt, made at Halſtadt, in the neighbourhood, brought hither by the lak , and exported as far as Vienna. The ſalt-pits were firſt diſcovered in 1303, by Elizabeth, conſort of Albrecht I. On an iſland in the lake is a royal citadel, called Ort.

Fockſabruck, or Voklabruck, is a well-built town on the river Vokl, which enjoys the privilege of granting protection to all ſlaves, whoſe burghers and merchants, with their wares, are toll-free, throughout all the Auſtrian dominions. Near it, in 1626, the rebel Bavarians were defeated.

Frankenburg, a town ſtanding on the borders of Bavaria, and containing a citadel, which, together with the country denominated from them, and the incorporated ſeigniories, is the property of count Khevenhuller.

Kainmer is a citadel in the Atterſee, which is the largeſt lake in the whole country, and abounds in exquiſite fiſh, of which it yields a new ſpecies every month.

Schaumberg is a citadel, which gives name to a county, now belonging to the family of Stahrenberg, but formerly an immediate county of the empire.

The county of Neuburg alſo was formerly an immediate county of the empire, but now belongs to the biſhop of Paſſau. Though this county is a part of Auſtria, it is ſurrounded on all ſides by Bavaria, and has ſeveral citadels in it.

The moſt remarkable places in the Traun quarter are,

Ens, in Latin Aniſia, Anaſum, or Anaſſanum, a ſtrong, well-built town, ſituated on the river of the ſame name. It was built in the year 990, on the ſcite of Lauriacum, a Roman colony, deſtroyed by the Huns, about the year 450, and the ſeat of ſome Roman emperors. Ens was formerly ſubject to its own count, till the emperor Rodolph purchaſed it, and annexed it to the dominions of Auſtria. The river Ens falls into the Danube two miles below the town.

Steyer is a conſiderable town, ſituated at the conflux of the two little rivers Steyer and Ens, and inhabited chiefly by ſmiths, cutlers, and other artificers, who, by means of the Danube, tranſport their workmanſhip to various places.

In Michel quarter are Schlog, a cloiſter on the river; and the Millack-Bad, a celebrated medicinal bath near the Danube.

In Black quarter are Freyſtadt, a ſtrong, well-built, royal town, on the north ſide of the Danube; and Grein, which contains a Franciſcan cloiſter, a Loretto chapel, a mount calvary, and an hermitage.

The Duchy of Stiria is divided into Upper and Under Stiria; and bounded to the north by Auſtria, properly ſo called; to the ſouth by Caricola; to the weſt by Saltzburg and Carinthia; and to the eaſt by Hungary. The air is unwholeſome; and the inhabitants are greatly troubled with fevers and ſwelled throats, which latter complaint is owing to the great quantity of ſnow-water which they drink. Upper Stiria is very mountainous, and exceedingly cold, but yet tolerably fertile. The mountains contain ſilver, lead, copper, and iron; and the ſummits are covered with foreſts, which ſupply wood for ſmelting theſe metals. The ſteel of this country is reckoned the beſt in Europe.

In the whole duchy are 20 boroughs, near 100 market towns, and about 500 citadels. The common people generally ſpeak Wendiſh, or a very harſh dialect of the German; and the better ſort are maſters not only of theſe, but alſo of the Italian and French. The land eſtates of this duchy conſiſts, as in Auſtria, of the prelates, lords, knights, and royal towns; and their aſſemblies are held at Gratz. The Roman Catholic is the only religion tolerated in Stiria. Seckau is the ſee of a biſhop, ſubject to the archbiſhop of Saltzburg, whoſe vicar he is in moſt parts of Stiria. At Gratz is an univerſity; and in ſome other places are gymnaſia, and ſeveral good colleges. The principal manufactures of the country are iron and ſteel works, of which there is a conſiderable exportation. Stiria continued a marquiſate, till the emperor Frederick Barbaroſſa erected it into a duchy. It has been conſtantly ſubject to the houſe of Auſtria, ſince Rodolph I. and to this day retains peculiar immunities. The counts of Trautmanſdorf are ſupreme hereditary ſtewards, the counts of Wildenſtein chamberlains, the counts of Saurau marſhals, the counts of Wendiſh Gratz maſters of the horſe, &c.

The principal places are the following:

Gratz, or Gracz, the metropolis, lies on the river Muhr, 20 miles from the Drave, and 74 ſouth of Vienna, and is a neat, well-built city, in a pleaſant, fruitful country,

country, and defended by a wall, ramparts, and caſtle, on a rocky hill, and other fortifications, that render it almoſt impregnable. The caſtle is on a high hill, that commands a neighbouring country, where is the archduke's palace, which is finely furniſhed, and has a good library and muſeum. Here is a large college, well endowed, which has the privilege of conferring degrees; ſo that it is ranked among the univerſities of Germany, and is well filled with ſtudents. This town is the reſidence of the governor of Stiria, as it was formerly of the archdukes of Auſtria, particularly Ferdinand II. afterwards emperor, who called themſelves by its name. Its ſuburbs, which are large, are waſhed by a rivulet of its own name; and its territory is very populous.

Marburg, celebrated for its Roman monuments, is alſo remarkable for its manufactures.

Raſkeburg, or Rakelſburg, ſituated on the river Muhr, is one of the ſtrongeſt towns in Stiria. The neighbouring country produces plenty of grapes, and other fruits. The burghers have the ſole privilege to buy all the new wines during a ſtated time, after which the peaſants may ſell to whom they pleaſe.

Leutenburg, a market town, is noted for the beſt wine in theſe parts.

Cilli, or Zilli, was formerly the capital of an independent county, which the emperor Frederick III. took poſſeſſion of in 1457, when the laſt count was killed, leaving no heirs, and incorporated it with Stiria. In this county ſtands the high mountain Bacher, or Pacher, rich in all ſorts of ores, as the mineral waters that iſſue from it evidently ſhew. The highway between Cilli and Pettau was originally a Roman cauſeway; and ſeveral Roman mile-ſtones, and other monuments, have been found near it. The inhabitants of the county are all Sclavonians, otherwiſe called Wends, or Winds. The town, ſtiled, in Latin authors, Cilia, Celia, Celeia, and Zelia, is very ancient; and, by many Roman coins, and other monuments, diſcovered in and about it, appears to have been anciently a place of great conſideration.

Gunnawitz is a market town, near which is a remarkable ſpring, being warm in winter, and cold in ſummer.

Studenitz has a noble female foundation, or priory, belonging to the order of Dominicans.

In Upper Stiria are the following places:

Judenburg, the capital, ſituated on the banks of the Muhr, in a plain, ſurrounded with high mountains, continually covered with ſnow, contains a royal fort, two cloiſters, and a college Here alſo are two great yearly fairs.

Leuben, a neat pleaſant town, ſtanding upon the ſame river, was once the capital of a county. Here is a college, two cloiſters, and a great trade in iron. Near it is the rich nunnery of Goſs.

Seckau is a conſiderable town, and an epiſcopal ſee, under the archbiſhop of Saltzburg, by whom the biſhop is elected and inveſted.

Bruck, on the Muhr, is noted for a great cattle fair, a fine public ſquare, and two monaſteries.

Eiſenartz is a conſiderable town, and famous for its mines and forges of iron, whence it has its name. It ſupplies all Germany with ſteel, and many places with iron; vaſt quantities of both being diſpoſed of at the great yearly fair, and at other times.

A part of the Duchy of CARINTHIA was anciently called Carnia, and the inhabitants Carni; but the former afterwards Carinthia, and the latter Carantani, and Carinthi. The county of Carinthia is bounded to the ſouth by the territories of Venice and Carniola; to the north by Stiria, and the archbiſhopric of Saltzburg; to the weſt by Tirol, or Tyrol; and to the eaſt by Stiria. The air is cold, the ſoil barren; the rivers, brooks, &c. abound with fiſh; and the mountains yield many minerals. The principal places are as follow:

Clagenfurt, the capital of the whole duchy, ſtanding 140 miles ſouth-weſt of Vienna, (being anciently called Claudia, and the ſeat of the dukes) is well built and fortified, and contains ſeveral churches and convents, with a large college, a gymnaſium, and a provincial houſe, in which the ſtates aſſemble. Here is alſo an equeſtrian ſtatue of the emperor Theobald. Æneas Sylvius ſays, "That in his time, if a man was ſtrongly ſuſpected of theft, they uſed firſt to hang him, and then try him three days after. If he was found guilty, they let his body hang till it rotted; if innocent, they took him down, buried him at the public charge, and prayed for his ſoul." Between this town and St. Veit are ſome remains of an ancient town, ſuppoſed to be Tiburnia, where Roman coins have been found, and other antiquities. The Lutheran religion was ſuppreſſed here anno 1600.

Villach, near the Drave, over which there is a bridge, is a populous town, a great thoroughfare, and famous for its mineral waters. The ſituation of this town is among hills, and the churches are noted for their fine paintings. The governor is nominated annually, the emperor naming him two ſucceſſive years, and the biſhop of Bamberg a third.

The Duchy of CARNIOLA is bounded by the Gulph of Venice to the weſt, by Sclavonia and Croatia to the eaſt, by Carinthia and Stiria to the north, and by the Adriatic Sea to the ſouth. It is 110 miles long, 50 broad, rather cold, but, at the ſame time, tolerably fertile. The lower claſs of people ſpeak the Sclavonian, or Wendiſh language; the better ſort the German; but both with a very indifferent dialect. The peaſants are a very hardy ſet of people, going barefoot in the midſt of winter, never covering their breaſts from the inclemency of the weather, and ſleeping on a hard bench, without bed or bolſter. In the Upper and Lower Krain the people wear long beards; and ſuch as live by exporting the commodities of the country on pack-horſes are called Samers, or, more properly, Saumers. The ſtates of Carniola conſiſt of the clergy, the nobility, knights, and royal towns. Chriſtianity was firſt planted in this county about the middle of the eighth century; and, in the ſixteenth, Lutheraniſm made a conſiderable progreſs in it, but, excepting the Walachians, or Uſkokes, who are of the Greek church, and ſtile themſelves Staraverzi, i. e. Old Believers, all the inhabitants at preſent are Roman Catholics. In the whole duchy are 3 biſhoprics, 24 cloiſters, 4 commanderies, and 134 pariſhes; but to the biſhopric of Leybach belong alſo many pariſhes in Stiria and Carinthia. The principal commodities exported from hence are iron, ſteel, quick-ſilver, white and red wine, oil of olives, cattle, ſheep, cheeſe, linen, a kind of woollen ſtuff called Mahalan, Spaniſh leather, honey, walnuts, timber, together with all manner of wood work, as boxes, diſhes, trenchers, ſpoons, ſieves, &c. Carniola was long a marquiſate or margravate; but, in the year 1231, was erected into a duchy. On the extinction of the margraves, the inhabitants made choice of Frederick II. duke of Auſtria and Servia, for their ſovereign. The arms of Carniola are an eagle crowned, on whoſe breaſt and expanded wings is to be ſeen a diced creſcent. The counts of Thurn are ſupreme hereditary ſtewards in Carniola and the Wendiſh Mark, the houſe of Averſberg chamberlains and marſhals, the prince of Lamberg maſter of the horſe, the count of Cobenzel cup-bearer, the barons of Eck and Hohenwart ſewers, the count of Gallenberg ranger, the count of Katzenſtein keeper of the jewels, the baron of Eck ſtaff-bearer, count Sauer of Ankenſtein carver, and the count of Lanihieri falconer. The principal officers for the government of the county are the land captain, or the governor in chief, the burgrave of Laubach, land lieutenant, and land vicar.

This duchy has ſeveral immaterial ſubdiviſions, ſuch as Upper, Lower, Middle, Inner, &c. but the principal places are the following:

Laubach, the capital, ſtands on a ſmall river of the ſame name, which falls into the Save 10 miles below it. The air here is not reckoned wholeſome; yet it is a populous,

a populous, well built city, which the emperor Frederick III. made the ſee of a biſhop, formerly under the juriſdiction of the patriarch of Aquileia, but now dependent on the pope. It has a cathedral, and a large caſtle; but it is commanded by a hill; and the town is not very ſtrong, eſpecially towards the river. However, it held out a ſiege in 1440, till the emperor Frederick III. came to its relief. The princes of the houſe of Auſtria have the right of appointing the prelates and the chapter here, which only conſiſts of ſix canons, of whom, indeed, the biſhop nominates one. Here is a fine houſe, where the ſtates of the duchy meet; and the prince de Averſberg has alſo a palace in it. There are ſeveral convents for both ſexes; and the river is noted for breeding the largeſt cray-fiſh in Europe.

Crainberg, or Krainberg, on the banks of the Save, over which it has a bridge, ſtands on the top of a hill, and is fortified with a ſtrong caſtle. It has three churches; and in its ſuburbs, a monaſtery of Capuchins. It once gave title to a marquis of the ancient Bavarian family. Suppoſed to have been a Roman colony; becauſe coins and medals, with other Roman monuments, are frequently dug up in and about the town.

Ratſmondorf, in this neighbourhood, on the north ſide of the Save, has alſo many Roman antiquities, and gives title to a Roman family in Stiria.

Lack, or Biſhopflack, is a city, which was plundered and burnt in 1451; but is handſomely rebuilt and fortified, and is ſubject to the biſhop of Freyſing, to whom the emperor Henry III. gave it; and the governor of it is his lieutenant.

That part of Iſtria which belongs to Auſtria is very fertile; and divided into the county of Metterberg, and lordſhip of Caſtua. The chief places are Metterberg, which gives name to the county, and is its capital. It is without walls or ramparts, but has a caſtle to defend it. Antiguana, a large town; Biben the ſee of a biſhop; Bercketz, a town with an harbour, on the Adriatic; and Caſtua, which gives name to a lordſhip.

St. Viet, ſituated on a bay of the Adriatic, has a ſtrong caſtle, is otherwiſe well fortified, and poſſeſſes a good trade on account of its excellent harbour, by which large quantities of goods are exported and imported. The neighbouring territories yield abundance of wine and fruits, particularly figs. The governor of the town is ſtiled captain, and reſides in the caſtle. On the oppoſite ſide of the river there is a chapel, dedicated to St. Mary of Loretto. The neighbouring gulph abounds in fiſh; among which is a ſpecies called gatta, the ſkin of which, forming a kind of ſhagreen, is uſed for the caſes of watches, caſkets, teleſcopes, &c. This town was formerly incorporated with the duchy of Carniola, and bore a ſhare in its taxes; but, at preſent, it is neither reckoned a part of its territory, nor is it ſubject to its impoſts.

Kirknitz, or Czirnitz, is remarkable for its famous lake, called the Czirnitzer Lake, or Sea, which is 10 miles long, and 8 broad, encompaſſed with mountains and foreſts at ſome diſtance, and on the eaſt ſide with a foreſt of pear-trees. The water ſinks under ground every year in June, through many large holes in the bottom, leaving it quite dry till September, when it returns ſpouting out of thoſe holes, with ſuch violence, that it ſoon riſes to the height of a pike, and covers all the ground again, making that ſpace a ſea, which was before fields of corn, paſture, and hunting: for, after the retreat of the water, the people ſow corn here, which ripens for the ſickle before September: and the graſs grows here ſo quick, that it affords paſture for the cattle and deer that are turned into it from the neighbouring hills and foreſts, which are taken off before the ſprings riſe again. The fiſh that abound here are carp, eels, tench, &c. which none muſt catch without licenſe from the Prince Eckenburgh, who is lord of the manor, till the water retires; and then the peaſants catch great numbers, by laying their nets over the holes. The adjacent inhabitants ſay, the lake conſtantly obſerves this courſe, but can give no reaſon for this ſtrange phænomenon.

Laas lies near this lake, with a caſtle, on the river Boick, that runs into it 20 miles ſouth-eaſt from Czirnitz, and is noted for a breed of well-ſhaped horſes, though not ſo good for ſervice as thoſe bred in Karſtia.

Upper Laubach, on the ſame river, is conſiderable for being a mart for Italian goods, which are brought hither in great quantities over the mountains from Gortz, and ſent to all parts of Germany.

The province of Windiſchmark, in Latin Vindorum Marchia, lies in the ſouth-eaſt corner of this duchy. Some reckon it a Sclavonian principality, and ſubject to the emperor, and not a part of Carniola, to which it adjoins. Though it is a mountainous barren country, eſpecially towards the ſouth, it produces corn and excellent white wine. Its inhabitants are thought to be a branch of the Venedi. Their language is a mixture of the Sclavonic and German, and their religion Roman Catholic.

Metling, or Motling, the chief town of the Windiſchmark, ſtands in a pleaſant fruitful country, on the river Culp, and the frontier of Croatia. The chief trade of its inhabitants is fattening ſwine, in two neighbouring woods of cheſnuts and oaks. This town lies full in the road from Laubach to Croatia. The wood through which it leads is rough and ſtony, but the reſt of the country is pleaſant and fruitful. In the year 1431 this town was ſupriſed by the Turks, and moſt of the inhabitants maſſacred; and in 1578 it was again ſtormed and plundered by thoſe infidels. There is a houſe here of the Teutonic order.

Rudolphſworth, Rudelſwerd, or Newſtadt, which ſtands on the river Gurck, it is ſaid to have been a Roman colony, but ſubdued by the Goths, whoſe king, Dieterich, reſided here. It is a well-fortified town, and famous for the beſt wine in thoſe parts. About 1435 it was beſieged by Albert of Auſtria, and Ulrich, count of Cilli; but the troops of the emperor Sigiſmund obliged them to raiſe the ſiege; and he granted the town great privileges for its brave oppoſition. It has an abbey, a convent of Recollects, and hot baths, at four miles diſtance, much frequented by foreigners. Newſtadt is the name commonly given to the town, and Rudolphſworth to the abbey.

Gortz, or Goritz, is an ancient town on the river Lozono, in Goritia, ſituated in the middle of a wood, and by ſome thought to have been the ancient Noricia, or Noreia, near which Dieterich, king of the Goths, defeated Odoacer, king of the Heruli. The Old, or Upper Town, was taken in 1507, by the Venetians, who fortified it, but regained by the emperor Maximilian I. two years after; and in 1616, they again attempted to ſurprize it, but were forced to retreat.

The Sclavonian tongue, which is ſpoken in theſe provinces, reaches no farther weſt than this town, where the common people ſpeak a corrupt Latin, more like French than Italian; but, in the courts of judicature, they ſpeak High Dutch, as do alſo the gentry. It is the reſidence of the governor, and other perſons of quality. The inhabitants pretend it is a diſtinct province, and that their anceſtors were a colony of Germans brought hither from Swabia. However, it is deemed a part of Carniola. The river on which the town ſtands falls into the Gulph of Venice. The lower part of it is quite open, and has a college, a convent of Franciſcans, another of Capuchins, and ſome very fine houſes. The town-houſe, where the ſtates of the county meet, is not large, but well built. In the Upper Town, which is called the Fortreſs, there is a good guard. Appeals are made from the courts here to the regency of Auſtria. The road from hence to Laubach is very ſtony. The county or diſtrict of Goricia, of which this town is the capital, is 35 miles long, and 15 broad, and has fine vineyards. It had formerly its par-

ticular counts, the branch of which being extinct, the emperor Frederick IV. took poſſeſſion of it in 1473; ſo that it belongs to the houſe of Auſtria.

Seiſſenburg is a market town of note, on the banks of the Gurck, which ſupplies it with plenty of fiſh, particularly the beſt cray-fiſh in the country. It is ſubject to the counts of Averſperg.

Landſtraſſe is a ſtrong town, almoſt encompaſſed by the Gurck. It has juriſdiction over the neighbouring hills and vallies, which were formerly a wilderneſs for ſeveral leagues, but of late ages well inhabited; the vallies having been converted into meadows and paſturage, by a company of Walachians, that ſettled here by the name of Uſſoken, who are of the Greek church, pay the emperor no tribute, but own him for ſovereign, and, upon occaſion, furniſh him with men in proportion to their numbers.

Reifnitz is a noted town on the borders of Carniola, near the Zirnicker See, being the chief of a barony of the ſame name belonging to the family of Trigler, and the place where the Imperial trained bands of this county muſter. The Turks burnt moſt of it down in 1480.

The province of Karſtia is reckoned a part of the duchy of Carniola, though it formerly belonged to Friuli, betwixt which and Iſtria it lies. It is a peninſula, almoſt encompaſſed with the rivers Alben and Liſonzo, about 36 miles long, and 20 broad, and remarkable for a breed of good horſes, which are bought up by moſt of the Italian nobility. It was diſmembered from Friuli in 1500, and is divided into Upper and Lower Karſtia.

In this province is the famous river Timavus, mentioned by Virgil, in the firſt Æneid. It is called at firſt Recca; and, after running under ground for above 40 miles, Timavus, as ſoon as it breaks out again, and falls into the Gulph of Trieſte by 12 ſmall channels.

Trieſte, the chief town of this province, ſtands on the Adriatic Sea, at the bottom of a bay, to which it gives name. It was a Roman colony, and built from the ruins of the ancient Tergeſtum of the Carnians, the ruins of which are ſtill to be ſeen on on a neighbouring mountain. It is a ſmall but ſtrong and populous place, with a large harbour, the only one the houſe of Auſtria has in this country. It is alſo a biſhop's ſee, under the patriarch of Aquileia. The Venetians ſeized it in the beginning of the 13th century, on account of the piracy of the inhabitants; but Maximilian I. took it from the Venetians, A. D. 1507, and his ſucceſſors have been in poſſeſſion of it ever ſince. Great quantities of ſalt are made here and exported; and the neighbouring country produces good wine. There is a fine town-houſe in the middle of a large ſquare, near the port, where are two beautiful ſtone pillars; one with the image of the Virgin Mary upon it, and the other with that of the emperor. Here are a cathedral, a college, and a church. The town is well built; and the rocks run into the ſea here in the form of moles, which break the waves, and render it ſafe riding, even for ſhips of burden, when in port; but it is only frequented by ſmall veſſels, juſt to croſs over to Venice: though the emperor Charles VI. who had no other ſea port in his hereditary dominions before the treaty of peace at Raſtadt, which threw Italy, Sicily, and the Spaniſh Netherlands, into his hands, made this a free port, and gave great encouragement to the ſhips and merchants of all nations to come to it, deſigning to make it the center of the Auſtrian commerce in this part of the world: but the merchants of Trieſte not having a ſtock, the Venetians themſelves came among them, and carried on that very trade for them, by which they were ſo ſanguine at one time, as to think of ſupplanting even Venice itſelf: for from this port the Venetian merchants ſtruck into a new commerce, by the river Save to Belgrade, and from thence to Sinope in the Black Sea; and likewiſe to Conſtantinople. The moſt the Germans have yet done here, has been to ſend ſome ſhips among the Archipelago iſlands, from whence they bring back wines, cotton-yarn, fruits, and ſome ſilk, grogram-yarn, camels hair, &c. But the chief misfortune which the Auſtrians laboured under in carrying on the great trade propoſed from this port, was, that they had no fund of goods for exportation, either for their produce or manufactures; the only article they could export, of any value, being the wrought iron made in Carinthia, Stiria, and the adjacent countries; which, indeed, is of great ſervice to the Venetians, becauſe they have no iron works near them. The Venetians have a navigation alſo through Stiria by the river Muhr, to the Danube, and ſo to Vienna; and they have the like in Carniola, by the great river Save, which runs into Croatia and Hungary. From theſe Countries the Venetians receive a great quantity of large black cattle, which are bought lean, from Croatia, and then brought down to the ſalt marſhes of Venice, and fed there till they are fat. Some alſo are bought at the ſeveral fairs on the frontiers of Carinthia; and they afford the beſt beef, when fed in the rich lands of Lombardy, that is to be found in that part of the world.

The Idrian bottom is ſituated between Carniola and the county of Gortz. The name is derived from Idria, a royal market town, which is immediately ſubject to the Auſtrian aulic-chamber Gratz, and lies in a deep valley, amidſt high mountains, on the ſmall river Idria. This town is defended by a caſtle, and celebrated for its quickſilver mines. The common ſort of quickſilver is extracted from the ore by means of fire; but the virgin quickſilver is found in numerous ſmall drops, or trickles through the veins of the mountains. Malefactors are condemned to theſe mines to work for life, as this kind of labour is the moſt unwholſome that can be.

As we cannot preſent the reader with a more accurate deſcription of theſe mines, or a more pathetic diſplay of the miſeries of thoſe who are doomed to toil in them, than what are contained in two letters, written by a learned and ingenious traveller, of the name of Everard, we inſert them without farther apology.

LETTER I.

"AFTER paſſing through ſeveral parts of the Alps, and having viſited Germany, I thought I could not return home without viſiting the quickſilver mines at Idria, and ſeeing thoſe dreadful ſubterraneous caverns, where thouſands are condemned to reſide, ſhut out from all hopes of ever ſeeing the chearful light of the ſun, and obliged to toil out a miſerable life under the whips of imperious taſk-maſters. Imagine to yourſelf a hole in the ſide of a mountain, about five yards over: down this you are let, in a kind of bucket, more than 190 fathom, the proſpect growing ſtill more gloomy, yet ſtill widening as you deſcend. At length, after ſwinging in terrible ſuſpenſe for ſome time in this precarious ſituation, you then reach the bottom, and tread on the ground, which, by its hollowed ſound under your feet, and the reverberations of the echo, ſeems thundering at every ſtep you take. In this gloomy and frightful ſolitude, you are enlightened by the feeble gleam of lamps, here and there diſperſed, ſo as that the wretched inhabitants of theſe manſions can go from one place to another without a guide; and yet let me aſſure you, that though they, by cuſtom, could ſee objects very diſtinctly by theſe lights, I could ſcarce diſcern, for ſome time, any thing, not even the perſon who came with me to ſhew me theſe ſcenes of horror.

"From this deſcription, I ſuppoſe, you have but a diſagreeable idea of the place; yet let me aſſure you that it is a palace, if we compare the habitation with the inhabitants: ſuch wretches my eyes never yet beheld. The blackneſs of their viſages only ſerves to cover an horrid paleneſs, cauſed by the noxious qualities of the mineral they are employed in procuring. As they in general conſiſt of malefactors condemned for life to this taſk, they are fed at the public expence; but

but ſeldom conſume much proviſion, as they loſe their appetites in a ſhort time, and commonly in about two years expire, through a total contraction of all the joints of the body.

"In this horrid manſion I walked after my guide for ſome time, pondering on the ſtrange tyranny and avarice of mankind, when I was accoſted by a voice behind me, calling me by my name, and enquiring after my health with the moſt cordial affection. I turned, and ſaw a creature all black and hideous, who approached me, and with a piteous accent demanding, "Ah, Everard, do you not know me?" Good God! what was my ſurpriſe, when through the veil of this wretchedneſs, I diſcovered the features of a dear and old friend. I flew to him with affection; and after a tear of condolence, aſked how he came there. To this he replied, that having fought a duel with an officer of the Auſtrian infantry, againſt the emperor's command, and having left him for dead, he was obliged to fly into the foreſts of Iſtria, where he was firſt taken, and afterwards ſheltered by ſome banditti, who had long infeſted that quarter. With theſe he lived nine months, till, by a cloſe inveſtiture of the place, in which they were concealed; and after a very obſtinate reſiſtance, in which the greater part of them were killed, he was taken and carried to Vienna, in order to be broken alive upon the wheel. However, upon arriving at the capital, he was quickly known; and ſeveral of the aſſociates of his accuſation and danger witneſſing his innocence, his puniſhment of the rack was changed into that of perpetual baniſhment and labour in the mines of Idria---a ſentence, in my opinion, a thouſand times worſe than death.

"As my old friend was giving me this account, a young woman came up to him, who at once I perceived to be born for better fortune: the dreadful ſituation of this place was not able to deſtroy her beauty; and even in this ſcene of wretchedneſs, ſhe ſeemed to have charms ſufficient to grace the moſt brilliant aſſembly. This lady, was, in fact, daughter to one of the firſt families in Germany; and having tried every means to procure her huſband's pardon without effect, was at laſt reſolved to ſhare his miſeries, as ſhe could not relieve them. With him ſhe accordingly deſcended into theſe manſions, from whence few of the living return; and with him ſhe is contented to live, forgetting the gaieties of life, and with him to toil, deſpiſing the ſplendor of opulence, and contented with the conſciouſneſs of her own conſtancy.

LETTER II.

"MY laſt to you was expreſſive, and, perhaps, too much ſo, of the gloomy ſituation of my mind. I own, the deplorable ſituation of the worthy man deſcribed in it, was enough to add double ſeverity to the hideous manſion. At preſent, however, I have the happineſs of informing you, that I was a ſpectator of the moſt affecting ſcenes I ever yet beheld. Nine days after I had written my laſt, a perſon came poſt from Vienna, to the little village near to the mouth of the great ſhaft. He was ſoon after followed by a ſecond, and he by a third. The firſt enquiry was after my unfortunate friend; and I happening to overhear the demand, gave them the firſt intelligence. Two of theſe were the brother and couſin of the lady: the third was an intimate friend and fellow-ſoldier to my friend. They came with his pardon, which had been procured by the general, with whom the duel had been fought, and who was perfectly cured of his wounds. I led him, with all the expedition of joy, down to this dreary abode, preſented to him his friends, and informed him of the happy change of his circumſtances. It would be impoſſible to deſcribe the joy that brightened upon his grief-worn countenance; nor was the young lady's emotions leſs vivid at ſeeing her friends, and hearing of her huſband's liberty.

"Some hours were employed in mending the appearance of this faithful couple; nor could I, without a tear, behold my friend taking leave of the former wretched companions of his toil. To one he left his mattock, to another his working-clothes, to a third his houſhold utenſils, ſuch as were neceſſary for him in that ſituation. We ſoon emerged from the mine, where he once again reviſited the light of the ſun, that he had totally deſpaired of ever ſeeing again. A poſt-chaiſe and four were ready the next morning to take them to Vienna, where, I am ſince informed by a letter from himſelf, they are returned. The emperor has again taken him into favour, his fortune and rank are reſtored, and he and his fair partner have now the pleaſing ſatisfaction of feeling happineſs with double reliſh, as they once knew what it was to be miſerable."

The county of Tirol is partly level and partly mountainous: the places of the former are fertile, and thoſe of the latter covered with woods, abounding in game, and rich in mines. The men are robuſt, the women fair; and both, in their characters, have a mixture of the German and Italian.

A particular kind of ſalutation is uſed all over Tirol. When a perſon comes into a houſe, he ſays, "Hail! Jeſus Chriſt." The anſwer is, "May Chriſt be praiſed, and the Holy Virgin his mother." Then the maſter of the houſe takes the viſitor by the hand. This ſalutation is fixed up in print at all the doors, with an advertiſement tacked to it, importing, that pope Clement XI. granted 100 days indulgence, and a plenary abſolution to thoſe who ſhould pronounce the ſalutation and anſwer.

The emperor has forts and citadels ſo advantageouſly ſituated on rocks and mountains all over the county, that they command all the vallies, avenues, and paſſes that lead into it. The inhabitants, however, (to keep them in good humour) are more gently treated, and not ſo highly taxed, as thoſe of the other hereditary countries. As to the ſtates, they are much the ſame in this county as in the other Auſtrian territories, except that the peaſants here ſend deputies to the diets. Tirol came to the houſe of Auſtria in the year 1363, when Margaret, counteſs thereof, bequeathed it to her uncles the dukes of Auſtria. The arms of Tirol are an eagle gules, in a field argent. Beſides the governor, here are three ſovereign colleges, ſubordinate to the court at Vienna, which ſit at Inſpruck on the Inn, the capital of the county, ſituated 225 miles weſt of Vienna. The city is ſmall but elegant; the ſuburbs are large, and the whole is pleaſant. It contains ſeveral handſome churches, convents, market-places, fountains, and palaces, is the reſidence of the governor, and ſeat of the colleges. The caſtle is large, but not regular; convenient, but not beautiful. It is adorned with many fine paintings, a cabinet of curioſities, groves, gardens, and walks that lead from it to five different churches. Adjoining to it is a wooden palace, whither the court uſed to retire when an earthquake happened, to which the city, by being ſhut up among ſo many mountains, is frequently ſubject.

The fortifications are not extraordinary; but, about a mile off, is the ſtrong caſtle of Amras, or Ambras, which commands the town. In the Franciſcan church is a noble monument, erected by Ferdinand I. to his grand-father Maximilian; and a chancel, called the ſilver chancel, becauſe there is an image of the Virgin of ſolid ſilver, as large as the life, in the middle of the altar, together with many other images of ſaints, all of the ſame metal. In this city Chriſtina, queen of Sweden, firſt abjured the Proteſtant religion in 1655; and, in 1719, the princeſs Sobieſki was detained here by the emperor's orders, when ſhe was going to Italy to be married to the Pretender. However, ſhe ſoon made her eſcape, and was married to him.

Hall, which ſtands a league north-eaſt of Inſpruck, on the Inn, and is reckoned the ſecond city in Tirol, is famous for its ſalt-works, there being, in this neighbourhood, a ſalt-mine, out of which large blocks of ſalt are dug, and thrown into pits filled with freſh water; from whence the ſalt, when melted, is conveyed

ed by wooden troughs to Hall, and there boiled in huge pans or ciſterns. A great number of peaſants are continually employed in felling trees in the woods of fir, with which the double range of mountains along the Inn are covered. Theſe being rolled down from the mountains into the river, are conveyed by it to Inſpruck and Hall. Here is a mint, which, with the ſalt-works, mines, &c. render this a very flouriſhing place.

Ambras, or Amras, a ſtrong caſtle, lies about one mile and a half eaſt of the city. The name was derived from the deſign of it, which was a ſhady ſummer-houſe. It is pleaſantly ſituated at the end of a fine park, over-looking the river Inn; but would hardly be viſited by travellers, were it not for its curioſities; the apartments containing little more than the bare walls; though they were ſumptuouſly fitted up formerly for the archdukes of Auſtria, who uſed to ſpend their ſummers here, as they did their winters at Inſpruck. Ambras is adorned with ſuch a number of ſtatues, and ſuch an infinite quantity of medals, &c. that, in 1601, a large book was printed with an account of them. Beſides the immenſe treaſure in gold and precious ſtones, the ſeveral princes, ranged on horſeback in all their rich old tilting accoutrements, and a thouſand other remarkable things, here are the armour of Charles XI. king of France, and the ſtatue of Francis I. on horſeback, in plaiſter-work, exactly repreſenting him in his armour, and his horſe in his trappings, juſt as he was taken at the battle of Pavia. Here is likewiſe the armour of ſeveral emperors, kings, and princes; with the picture of each prince, drawn to the life, juſt by it. In ſhort, here are abundance of ſpoils and trophies taken in ſome of the moſt important victories obtained by the houſe of Auſtria for 3 or 400 years paſt; particularly the effigies of two Turkiſh baſhaws on horſeback, with the coſtly habits and harneſſes in which they were taken, embelliſhed with gold, ſilver, and precious ſtones. One very extraordinary phænomenon among the collection of rarities, is the trunk of an oak encloſing the entire body of a deer, which philoſophers ſuppoſe to have periſhed in the ſnow; and that, being brought down, upon a thaw, by a torrent from the neighbouring hills, and covered with mud, it was there firſt encloſed by the roots, which, as the tree grew, forced it by degrees up into the trunk. Noah's rainbow is ſo admirably painted on one of the cielings, that the great duke of Tuſcany offered 100,000 crowns for it. Here is alſo a good library, and a gallery full of buſts. The chatellan, or keeper of this caſtle, who is generally ſome invalid, comes purpoſely from Inſpruck to ſhew the apartments to ſtrangers; and when he does it, is always attended with a ſtrong guard, and expects a ſuitable reward for his trouble.

At a little diſtance from the town, on the ſouth ſide, is the famous monaſtery of Wiltheim, where the monks pretend to have the body of their founder Haymon, a gigantic prince, 12 feet and a half high, who, they ſay, killed a monſtrous dragon, which threw down as much of his monaſtery by night as his men built by day. There is a pillar before its gates, with an inſcription, importing, that the road from Italy towards Augſburg lay acroſs the field where this monaſtery ſtands; and that it was repaired for near 100 miles together, in the time of the emperor Septimius Severus.

Tirol, from whence this country has its denomination, is only remarkable for its ſituation in a pleaſant valley, and its ancient caſtle.

The margravate of Burgau, between the Danube and Lech, with the city of the ſame name, and landgravate of Nellenberg, and the county of Hohenberg, all belong to the houſe of Auſtria.

The territory of Briſgaw, which came to the houſe of Auſtria by purchaſe, in 1367, contains

Friburg, on the Treiſam, which was formerly very ſtrong, and had ſtood many ſieges; but its fortifications were demoliſhed by the French in 1745. The town is large, populous, and wealthy, having an univerſity, a college, and ſeveral cloiſters. The lapidaries here are famous for poliſhing the granites, jaſpers, and other precious ſtones, that are found in Lorrain and the neighbouring countries. The tower of the great church is ſo high, and ſo curiouſly carved and conſtructed, that there is nothing of that kind in Germany to be compared to it, except that of Straſburgh.

Briſack, called Old Briſack, to diſtinguiſh it from the New, (which was built and ſtrongly fortified by the French, on the other ſide the Rhine, in Alſace,) came to the houſe of Auſtria by mortgage, and was once an Imperial city. It was reckoned very ſtrong until 1741, when its fortifications were razed by order of the queen of Hungary.

Neuberg, on the Rhine, was formerly an imperial town, but in the 14th century, fell under the dominion of the houſe of Auſtria.

The abbey of St. Blaſe, whoſe abbot, in 1747, was made a prince of the empire, is alſo hereditary archaulic-chaplain of the houſe of Auſtria, in the interior Auſtrian countries; but ſubject, in ſpirituals, to the biſhop of Conſtance.

The four foreſt towns are Rheinfelden, Seckingen, Laufenburg, and Waldſhut. The firſt is the capital of a county, and was once a free Imperial city; but was mortgaged, in 1410, by the emperor Lewis of Bavaria, to the dukes of Auſtria. Hard by is the village of Kaiſars-Augſt, on the Rhine, where anciently ſtood the Auguſta Rauracorum. The ſecond is a ſmall town, and held in fee of its abbeſs. The third is the capital of an ancient county, well fortified, and ſeated on both ſides the Rhine. It is held as a fief of the foundation of Seckingen, and came to the houſe of Auſtria in 1409, when the line of the counts of Habſburg-Laufenburg became extinct. The fourth is a ſmall but ſtrong town, being, as its German name imports, a key to the Black Foreſt. It was built and fortified in 1249, by Albert, count of Habſburg, who granted it ſeveral privileges.

The landgravate of Ortenau belongs partly to the houſe of Auſtria, and partly to the immediate Imperial knighthood of the circuit of the Ortenau.

The biſhopric of Brixen is 45 miles long, 30 broad, and, though ſituated among the Alps, is fruitful. The wine here is excellent. The biſhop is a prince of the empire, and the chapter conſiſts of 18 canons, of which nine are noble.

Brixen, the capital, is only a poſt ſtage from the territories of Venice. It contains an epiſcopal palace, a caſtle, two convents, a cathedral, two other churches, ſeveral ſquares, many handſome houſes, painted on the outſide, &c. Mount Brinner, in the vicinity, is cultivated to the very top, where there is a poſt-houſe, tavern and chapel.

The biſhopric of Trent lies among the Alps, ſouth from Tirol, north and weſt from the dominions of Venice, and eaſt from thoſe of the Griſons. It is near 60 miles from eaſt to weſt, and 40, where broadeſt, from ſouth to north. Some make it a part of Italy; but the biſhop of Trent, having been a prince of the empire ſince Ferdinand II. the Germans reckon it in the circle of Auſtria. The river Adige runs through it from north to ſouth, receiving ſeveral ſmall rivers, that riſe in the mountains on each ſide of it. Its ſoil produces a good pale red wine, oil, fruit, and paſture; but not much corn. The ancient inhabitants were the Tridentini of Pliny. The common languages of the preſent are the German and Italian. Though the houſe of Auſtria were the temporal ſovereigns and owners of the county, yet they provided handſomely for the biſhop, who has a conſiderable revenue, not only from the city of Trent, but Riva, Bolzano, Roveredo, &c. He is ſuffragan to the archbiſhop of Saltzburg; but, before the treaty of Munſter, he was ſuffragan to the patriarch of Aquileia, whoſe biſhop, Hermagoras, was the founder of the ſee, A. D. 50. When the biſhop dies, the emperor ſends a governor, who preſides till another is choſen by the chapter, which is compoſed of 18 canons, who always chuſe the biſhop out of their body. This

dioceſe

dioceſe was much enlarged by the emperor Conrade II. and confirmed by his ſucceſſors, who made the count of Tirol protector of the biſhop, and obliged him, in caſe of an invaſion, to aſſiſt him. Several princes, both of Germany and Italy, pay homage to him for part of the eſtates which they hold of this ſee, particularly the duke of Mantua; and the emperors, as counts of Tirol, pay him quit-rents, as do many earls and barons.

Trent, the capital, receives its name from three mountains, or peaks, which hang over it, and is ſituated on the river Adige, at the diſtance of 255 miles ſouth-weſt from Vienna. The high mountains about it render the air exceſſive cold in winter, and extremely hot in ſummer, as well as expoſe the town to frequent inundations. The city is ſmall, but populous, ſurrounded by a wall, defended by a caſtle, and contains ſeveral palaces, churches, convents, &c. The cathedral is magnificent, the epiſcopal palace large, and adorned with fine paintings. The church of St. Mary has an organ of a prodigious ſize, that imitates various muſical inſtruments, the ſinging of many ſorts of birds, the cries of ſeveral different kinds of wild beaſts, the ſounds of drums, trumpets, &c. The famous council, called the Council of Trent, was held here.

Reif, or Reva, on the lake De Garda, is famous for the excellent oranges and lemons which grow in the neighbourhood, for a celebrated image of the Virgin, and for a conſiderable trade.

The biſhopric of Chur, or Choire, is governed by a biſhop, who ſtiles himſelf a prince of the empire; and, as a biſhop, is under the archbiſhop of Mentz. Though he is himſelf a Roman Catholic, moſt of the inhabitants of the lands, ſubject to his temporal juriſdiction, are Proteſtants. His chapter conſiſts of 24 canons, of whom ſome are nobles. Both he and they reſide on an eminence near the town of Chur, called Hoff, where is a ſpacious and well-built caſtle. He has the right of coinage; and is poſſeſſed of ſeveral fine eſtates and fiefs, not only among the Griſons, but in ſome foreign countries, as Tirol and Alſace. Before the reformation, he had alſo ſome juriſdiction over the city of Coire. His title runs thus: "By the grace of God, elected biſhop of Chur, or Coire, prince of the holy Roman empire, lord of Furſtenburg, Furſtenan, &c." The ſee is very ancient; and its power, both temporal and ſpiritual, before the reformation, was very great. At preſent its epiſcopal, or ſpiritual juriſdiction, extends partly into the hereditary countries of the houſe of Auſtria, and partly into Switzerland.

The Teutonic order has two bailiwicks in the circle of Auſtria, on account of which it is reckoned a ſtate thereof, namely, one in the archduchy of Auſtria, and another on the Etſch, and the Gebirge in Tirol.

The little ſeigniory of Traſp, belonging to the prince of Dietrichſtein, lies on the borders of Tirol, in the valley of Engedein. The emperor Leopold made a preſent of it, together with the ſupreme juriſdiction, to prince Ferdinand Joſeph of Dietrichſtein, who, on that account, in 1688, obtained a ſeat and voice in the college of princes at the diet of the empire.

THE CIRCLE OF BAVARIA.

THIS circle is bounded by the circles of Auſtria, Swabia, Franconia, and the kingdom of Bohemia. It receives its name from the duchy of Bavaria, which conſtitutes the greateſt part of it, is 190 miles long, and 115 broad where wideſt. The diets are uſually held at Ratiſbon; and the elector of Bavaria, and biſhop of Saltzburg, are joint ſummoning princes. The elector of Bavaria is likewiſe hereditary commander of the circular forces. The inhabitants are of various religious perſuaſions. The air is wholeſome, the country mountainous; and the principal rivers are the Danube, Lech, Inn, Iſer, Amber, and Salza.

The Archbiſhopric of SALTZBURG is near 100 miles in length, and 60 in breadth. It is, in general, mountainous; but many places contain fine paſtures, where excellent cattle and horſes are bred. It abounds in ſalt, copper, ſilver, lead, iron, lapis calaminaris, marble, mineral waters, &c. The lands belong to the clergy, as here are not any nobles; but the peaſants are, in general, trained to arms. The Romiſh is the eſtabliſhed religion; and the oppreſſions of the Proteſtants have been ſuch, that they have continually emigrated from hence: in particular, in 1732, above 30,000 quitted the place, and diſperſed themſelves into divers parts of Europe and America.

The archbiſhop, who is one of the richeſt prelates in Germany, is prince of the empire, perpetual legate to the ſee of Rome in Germany ever ſince 1073, and primate of Germany by the treaty of Munſter in 1648. He ſits in the diet on the firſt bench next to the electors; and, in the college of princes, he and the archduke of Auſtria preſide by turns. When the emperor writes to him, he gives him the title of Your Friendſhip; whereas the other prelates have only the title of Your Devotion, or Your Piety. He has, moreover, the firſt voice in the diet of any of the eccleſiaſtical princes, after the electors. His ſpiritual prerogatives are very great. There lies no appeal from this archbiſhop to the nuncios at Vienna, Lucern, and Cologne, as there does from the other biſhops of the empire. He moreover nominates to the canonicates vacant in the months of the pope, in which months the pope has a right of nomination, by virtue of the German concordat. He may, as well as the archbiſhop of Cologne, dreſs in the habit of a cardinal. He has the diſpoſal of the four biſhoprics of Gurck, Cheimſee, Lavant, and Seggau, or Seccau. Only the nomination of the biſhopric of Gurck is alternative, between this prelate and the archduke of Auſtria. His ſuffragans are the biſhops of Ratiſbon, Freiſingen, Paſſaw, and Brixen. His revenue amounts to near 80,000l. The very ſalt, which is carried into Bavaria and Swabia, brings him in 30,000 crowns per annum. He has better than 6000l. a year for his private purſe; and, for officiating at three ſolemn ſervices, he is paid near 2000l. for each; but, as he is abſolute, he is maſter of all the revenues of the country, and by no means accountable for what he lays out. Beſides he commonly holds the deanery in commendam, which brings him in an additional ſum of 2000l. He is able to raiſe 8000 men; and, under the archiepiſcopal mitre, he bears, in his arms, the ſword on the right, and the croſier on the left, denoting both the temporal and ſpiritual power. His chapter is compoſed of 24 canons, who muſt be all nobles by eight deſcents, and are only obliged to four months reſidence in the year. They admit of no princes to be members, that they may have a plea for refuſing thoſe of Bavaria, of whoſe power they are jealous; though they are obliged to them for moſt of their wealth. Theſe canons have no vote, or revenue, till they have been ordained prieſt. They have each a houſe, and ſome of them palaces. Though they do not ſing in the choir of the cathedral, they loſe a perquiſite if they are not preſent: and though they have eight months vacation in the year, to go where they pleaſe, yet they are ſo ſtrictly tied down to one year's conſtant reſidence in the city, that if they happen to lie abroad but one night, they muſt begin the term *de novo*. Both the provoſt and dean have the croſier and mitre; as have alſo the provoſt and dean of Paſſaw. At his coming to this ſee, he muſt pay 100,000 crowns to Rome for the pall: but the country generally raiſes it for him; beſides making him a free gift of the like ſum at the ſame time. This prince has a great number of officers and attendants, beſides a numerous and ſplendid retinue. He alſo confers the order of St. Rupert, (whoſe knights wear a medal with that ſaint's effigy, and the red croſs of the order on the reverſe,) which was inſtituted in 1702, by the archbiſhop John Erneſt, who has thereto annexed ſix commanderies, or prebends, of a conſiderable revenue. He has two villas, Gleiſheim, and Heilbron, or Hellenbron, which are both magnificent and beautiful. The latter eſpe-

cially, not above a mile from the city of Saltzburg, is worth viſiting on account of its fine waters and caſcades, rich ſtatues, &c. and the various proſpects both of the city and country, from two fine ſummer-houſes at the farther end of its gardens.

Saltzburg, the capital of the archbiſhopric, takes its name from the river Salza, on which it is ſituated, and over which it has a bridge. It is well fortified, and the reſidence of the archbiſhop. The caſtle here is very ſtrong, and as ſtrongly garriſoned, and well provided with proviſions and warlike ſtores. The archbiſhop's palace is magnificent; and in the area before it is a fountain, eſteemed the largeſt and grandeſt in Germany. The city, of which one part ſtands on a ſteep rock, is well built; but the ſtreets are narrow, and badly paved. Beſides the above mentioned, there are two other ſtately palaces belonging to the archbiſhop, one of which is called the Neuebau, and the other Mirabella. The latter of theſe has a very beautiful garden, and moſt extenſive orangery. The river Salza runs cloſe by the walls of this garden. There are many other fine ſtructures in the city, public and private, ſuch as palaces, monaſteries, hoſpitals, and churches. In the cathedral, dedicated to St. Rupert, the apoſtle of Bavaria, all the altars are of marble of different kinds. The winter and ſummer riding-ſchools here are noble ſtructures. The univerſity was founded in 1620, and commited to the care of the Benedictines. Beſides it, there are two colleges, in which young noblemen are educated.

Gaſtein is a town remarkable for its gold, ſilver, and lead mines, and for a warm bath.

Hallein ſtands in a valley croſſed by three rivers, formed by torrents from the mountains, which bring down a vaſt deal of floating wood that is ſtopped here by the piles, which either croſs or ſhut up the rivers. This wood they lay up in ſtore for the ſalt works. Its ſalt is carried in great quantities through Bavaria, and a corner of Tirol into Switzerland, where it is paid for in French money, which is one reaſon that there is ſcarce any coin current in Bavaria but that of France. There is a great high mountain on the weſt ſide of the town, the earth of which being mixed with a ſort of allum, or ſalt-petre, they throw it into large trenches, which they fill with freſh water, and let it ſtand three or four weeks, till the earthy part is ſunk to the bottom: then they let it out, and boil the ſaline part in iron pans three feet deep, and 10 or 12 in diameter; and when the water is evaporated from the ſalt, which it leaves at the bottom, they take it up, and put it to dry and harden in deal caſks, without head or bottom. This mountain is pierced in a thouſand places, like that of Potoſi in Peru: therefore, thoſe who go out of curioſity to ſee the works in it, have need of very good guides, for fear of being loſt in the infinite variety of tracts, or cruſhed by the fall of the earth.

There is no ſeeing theſe works without much ceremony. Before they enter, they generally repair to a church on the top to perform their devotions. This done, they take a hearty breakfaſt at a public-houſe near the church; and being accommodated with ſome bottles of Roſa ſolis, they are accoutred with a ſurtout of coarſe linen cloth, with leathers over their right arm and back, the better to enable them to make their way through the timber-works. They put great bonnets on their heads, ſo that but little of the face is ſeen, to keep out the cold. Being thus fitted out, every man enters with a lighted candle or torch in his left hand. A great number of guides and others go before and behind the ſpectators, leſt they ſhould be frightened in the diſmal caverns. The candles ſometimes go out, by reaſon of the prodigious rapidity with which they deſcend from one beam to another; but if none ſhould happen to be left burning to light the reſt, the guides quickly ſtrike fire, and re-kindle them. After having viſited all the ſubterranean curioſities, which takes up five or ſix hours, they give money to the guides, and then go to the town to regale. Boats are continually going up and down the river, with the ſalt made here, for Saltzburg; from whence it is carried elſewhere. On the oppoſite ſide of the river there are forges, where they melt the copper that is dug out of the mines of this archbiſhopric.

The Electorate of BAVARIA is about 100 miles in length, and 60 in breadth. Thoſe parts near the Alps are mountainous, cold and barren; but produce wood, game, wild-fowl, cattle, ſalt, mineral waters, ſilver, lead, iron, copper, &c. The parts that are ſituated towards the Danube are much more level and fertile, yielding grain, fruits, paſturage, &c. The many rivers which water this country, and the various lakes which it contains, abundantly ſupply the inhabitants with fiſh. A committee of the ſtates, conſiſting of prelates, nobles and knights, aſſemble at Munich, whenever emergencies require. The only religion tolerated is the Roman Catholic. The convents are numerous, and the clergy rich; but the peaſants are miſerably poor. The manufactures are ſilk and woollen ſtuffs, clocks and watches, coarſe cloth, velvet, tapeſtry and ſtockings.

The title of the elector is, "By the grace of God, duke of Upper and Lower Bavaria, as alſo of the Upper Palatinate; pfalzgrave of the Rhine, arch-ſteward of the Holy Roman empire, and landgrave of Leuchtenberg." He has five hereditary officers, a maſter of the houſhold, a ſteward, marſhal, cup-bearer, and huntſman. In 1729 the order of St. George was revived by the elector Albert, the enſign of which is a croſs enamelled blue, and worn pendant to a broad ſky-blue ribbon, with a black and white border. The elector has the fifth ſeat in the electoral college, and ſeveral votes at the diets both of the empire and circle, in the colleges of the princes and counts. His ordinary revenues, ariſing chiefly from the monopoly of corn, ſalt, beer, and tobacco, tolls, mines and contributions, amount to between 6 and 700,000l. per annum. With reſpect to his military eſtabliſhment, he maintains, in time of peace, about 12,000 regulars, excluſive of 10,000 militia. His court, for magnificence and ſplendor, is exceeded by none in Germany. During an inter-regnum he is vicar of the empire, alternately with the elector Palatine, in all places belonging to the vicariate of the count Palatine of the Rhine. Bavaria is divided into Upper and Lower. The principal places in the former are as follow:

Munich, the capital of all Bavaria, and the reſidence of the elector, ſituated on the Iſer, at the diſtance of 214 miles weſt of Vienna, is one of the moſt populous and agreeable cities in Germany. It was originally erected on a ſpot of ground belonging to a convent, and had from thence the name of Munchen, which ſignifies Monk's Town, and which ſince has been corrupted into the word Munich. The elector's palace is a moſt magnificent ſtructure. It was built by Maximilian the elector, at a moſt enormous expence. The inſide is far more beautiful than the outſide; the architecture of which is not very regular, becauſe it was built at different periods. It contains 11 courts, 20 great halls, 19 galleries, 2600 large croſs windows, 6 chapels, 16 great kitchens, 12 large cellars, 40 vaſt apartments, all on a floor, in which are 300 great rooms, richly painted, furniſhed, &c. and there is hardly a cornice, niche, or grate, but has a buſt or relievos of marble; which are alſo the ornaments of almoſt every chimney-piece. The particulars moſt remarkable are the long gallery, adorned with pictures of 100 illuſtrious perſons, by the greateſt maſters; and another gallery, the cieling of which repreſents the principal towns, rivers, and caſtles of Bavaria. In the former are the effigies and names of 36 princes, the predeceſſors of the two laſt electors. The Antiquarium, or Statuarium, containing a vaſt number of old and new pieces, in marble, ſtone, wood, &c. The great hall, called the emperor's, a beautiful apartment, 118 feet long, and 52 broad, which Guſtavus Adolphus ſaid he was ſorry he could not get tranſported to Stockholm.

The

The ſtaircaſe leading to it is, from the bottom to the top, marble and gold. This noble room is adorned with curious pictures of ſacred hiſtory on one ſide, and profane on the other, with a Latin diſtich under each. Beyond this there is a fine hall, where the electors give audience to the foreign miniſters. Here are eight great compartments, ſhewing the different manner in which foreign princes give audience to ambaſſadors, beſides other pictures, accompanied with hieroglyphics, &c. The hall, filled with antiquities brought from Rome, exceeds all the reſt; here being 354 buſts of jaſper, porphyry, braſs, and marble, repreſenting Grecian captains, Roman emperors, generals, &c. beſides numbers of idols, and veſſels of the Pagans; valuable for workmanſhip, as well as antiquity. The library, wherein, beſides a vaſt collection of printed books, in moſt languages, ancient and modern, there are a great many valuable MSS. particularly a Latin treatiſe in folio, in an old ſquare character, ſaid to be written by pope Clement I. to St. James the Apoſtle; and the New Teſtament, in the Indian, Arminian, and Wendiſh tongues. A chamber of rarities, containing, beſides the figures of Parnaſſus and the nine Muſes, with landſcapes, &c. in coral, and the Pagan deities, a neat perſpective globe, in the circumference of which there is the whole hiſtory of Our Saviour's paſſion, which being inverted, ſhews the elevation of the ſerpent in the wilderneſs on one ſide, and Our Saviour's crucifixion on the other. Here are flowers and plants caſt in gold, ſeveral drawers full of ancient and modern coins and medals, and a remarkable picture of Chriſtopher Freſchammer, a moſt notorious aſſaſſin. A little chapel belonging to the electreſs's apartment, where ſcarce any thing is to be ſeen but gold and ſilver, pearls and gems. The very organs are of ſilver in relievo; and the cabinets of rock chryſtal, worked in figures. The furniture, in ſhort, of the whole palace, is rich beyond imagination. In the treaſury there are whole ſervices of gold, and many other coſtly veſſels, vaſt number of pearls, diamonds, rubies, and other precious ſtones; rare pictures, curious works, medals, &c. and, among the reſt, a cherry-ſtone with 140 heads diſtinctly engraved upon it; and a boat, of palm-tree wood, petrified. There is a vaſt quantity of marble in this palace, which is artificial, but ſo well hardened and poliſhed, that it looks like natural: and there is a proſpect, through little galleries, to all the churches and convents in the city. In the beginning of the year 1730 this new apartment was burnt down by a fire which broke out in the night-time, ſo that ſcarce any of the fine furniture was ſaved; and the elector and electreſs were in imminent danger of being burnt in their bed. The neareſt church to this palace is that of the Theatins, which, together with their monaſtery, was built by the wife of Ferdinand-Mary, elector. The friars, who are 27, muſt be all men of quality. They dare not aſk alms, though they may receive them; and when they have ſuffered extreme want, at any time, for three days together, they are allowed to ring a bell, as a token of their diſtreſs: but the electors ſeldom let them want. Round one half of the garden there is a grand piazza, adorned with pictures, repreſenting the ſeveral hiſtories of the princes of the Bavarian family, At the end of this piazza there is a very fine building, the lower part of which is an orangery, and the upper part a ſummer houſe, where in that ſeaſon, the elector has a drawing-room. Near this there is a kind of menagerie, in which lions, and other wild beaſts, are kept. The piazza leads to one of the fineſt riding-houſes that is to be ſeen. It is 366 feet long, and 76 broad; has 80 great windows; and all round within there runs a fine corridor, or gallery, for the ſpectators, when there are carouſals, or tournaments. Here is a grand box for the elector, richly carved, large enough to contain all the electoral family. Here is alſo a magnificent opera-room, with a ſtage ſuitable to it, and ſuperb decorations to each. Upon feſtival days, or others, when there is an opera here, it is remarked, as a very unaccountable cuſtom, that juſt as they begin to play the overture, a luſtre of extraordinary grandeur and ſtructure comes down unexpectedly through the cieling, from the top of the ſtage; and as ſoon as the firſt act is over it is drawn up again.

The manufactures of Munich are thoſe of ſilk, velvet, woollen cloths, and tapeſtry; and it has two annual fairs, at which great quantities of ſalt, wine, &c. are ſold. The ſtreets are broad and regular, and moſt of the houſes well built, and painted on the out-ſide. The market-place is extremely beautiful. The ſervant maids at the great inns here, on holidays, wear a ſilver chain round their necks, conſiſting of three rows. Their breaſts are likewiſe laced with two other chains of the ſame metal. It was formerly a general cuſtom to place a green garland, on a bundle of ſtraw, before every houſe containing the corpſe of an unmarried perſon. The common ſalutation here, and in the other Catholic countries of Germany, is, "Praiſed be Jeſus Chriſt;" and the anſwer returned, "For ever, Amen." Two popes having granted an indulgence of 100 days each time to all that uſe it. Not far from Munich are four other palaces, with fine gardens, belonging to the elector, viz. thoſe of Sleiſheim, Nymphenburg, Dachau, and Stahrenberg. The firſt and laſt are about three leagues from the capital; the ſecond about half a league; and the third about two, at a market-town of the ſame name.

Ingoldſtadt, a fortified town on the Danube, 45 miles north of Munich, contains ſeveral convents and churches, a college, an excellent arſenal, and an univerſity, which boaſts of having produced the learned Bellarmine. This univerſity is accomodated with an admirable library, and a cabinet of curioſities. The caſtle where the governor reſides is exceeding ſtrong. Over the Danube there is an elegant bridge. In the great church there is an image of the Holy Virgin of great value.

Rain is a well-fortified town, where the celebrated count Tilly received his mortal wound.

Reichenhall, on the Tala, is famous for an excellent ſalt-ſpring, ſome of the waters of which are conveyed above 12 miles over mountains to Traunſtein, and ſome are boiled on the ſpot. A ſurpriſing aqueduct, about a mile and a half in length, and 12 fathoms beneath the ſurface of the earth, paſſes under the town. Boats may paſs through it in about a quarter of an hour: but the whole was conſtructed in order to carry off the ſuperfluous waters of the ſalt-ſpring.

Donawert has its name from the Danube, on the north ſide of which it ſtands, near the conflux of the Wernitz, within 10 Engliſh miles north-eaſt of Hochſtet. Though the town is ſmall and ill-built, yet, being near the road from Augſburg, it is pretty much frequented by travellers. All that go up and down the Danube are obliged to land here, and pay a ſmall toll, which brings the town a great deal of money; as does alſo the paſſage of their bridge over that river, (where it receives the Wernitz,) becauſe of the many great towns in its neighbourhood. It is a ſtrong place, which, revolting from the duke of Bavaria in 1420, was made imperial by the emperor Sigiſmund, and ſo continued till 1607; when it was put under the ban by the emperor Rodolph II. for embracing the Proteſtant religion, and afterwards obliged to ſubmit to the duke of Bavaria, who inveſted it with a numerous army, took it by capitulation, but, contrary to the terms of it, diſarmed the citizens, and put the Jeſuits in poſſeſſion of the chief Proteſtant church. The Swedes took it twice in the civil wars of Germany; and by the Munſter treaty it was reinſtated in its privileges, to the great joy of the Proteſtant princes and ſtates; though it was reſtored to Bavaria, by the treaty of Munſter, in 1648. It recovered its liberty by the proſcription of its elector Maximilian, when he took part with France; but it was reſtored to him again by the treaty of Raſtadt. The river Wernitz, which falls into the Danube here, after receiving the Eger, riſes near a town of the ſame name in Franconia.

Schellemberg

Schellemberg is famous for the defeat of the French and Bavarians in 1704, when the confederates, chiefly the Engliſh and Scots ſoldiers, forced the trenches, and next day made themſelves maſters of Donawert. There is a very agreeable proſpect from hence, of the towns of Donawert, Hochſtet, Newburgh, and Ingolſtadt, together with ſeveral hamlets and villages, and a fine country on both ſides of the Danube.

Lower Bavaria contains Landſhut, a town ſituated 33 miles north-eaſt of Munich, on the river Iſer. It is well fortified, and had the name, which ſignifies the Bulwark of the Country, from Otho of Bavaria; who, when Ratiſbon threw off its yoke, and was made a free Imperial city, built a palace here, which his ſon enlarged, and, about 1204, added a caſtle to it. It ſtands in the richeſt and pleaſanteſt part of all Bavaria, and is the ſeat of the elector's deputy, or lieutenant of Lower Bavaria, who has a court here, and ſeveral officers for the government of the country, which conſiſts of 6 bailiwicks, 32 market-towns, 14 monaſteries, and 74 noblemen's ſeats, with their dependencies. The town is, in general, well built, being formerly much frequented by the nobility, who attended the court, as it is now by the elector's officers. Its principal church, St. Martin's, has a tower which is reckoned the higheſt in the empire, having a proſpect of almoſt all Bavaria; and therefore it is called Landſhut, i. e. the Hat of the Country. The new buildings in the duke's palace are of neat architecture in the Italian taſte. Here is a bridge over the Iſer, and a ſuburb on the other ſide, called Saldental.

Stadtamhof is exactly oppoſite to Ratiſbon, on the other ſide of the Danube, both places having a communication by means of a bridge.

Abach, a market town on the Danube, is celebrated for an excellent mineral ſpring, the taſte of which is very diſagreeable, but the virtues very great.

The UPPER PALATINATE is ſo called to diſtinguiſh it from the Lower, belonging to the elector Palatine, to whom this alſo belonged until about the year 1620, when the elector, aſſuming the title of king of Bohemia, in oppoſition to the emperor, it was tranſferred to the duke of Bavaria, Maximilian I. with the title of elector; both which were confirmed to his family by the treaty of Munſter; but on condition, that in caſe of the failure thereof, they ſhould revert to the Palatine branch. Since this country came to the houſe of Bavaria the diets have been diſcontinued. This Palatinate is bounded by a part of Franconia and Swabia on the weſt, Saxony on the north, and part of Bohemia and the Danube on the ſouth, excepting a ſmall part of it, which lies on the other ſide of that river, being about 60 miles in length, and 40 in breadth, but interſected by the territory of Sulzbach, and the diſtrict of Vilſeck, belonging to Bamberg. Though it is not unfruitful in grain, its chief riches ariſe from its mines of ſilver, copper, and iron. The places of note in it are the following:

Amberg, the capital, ſtanding on the river Vils, 28 miles north of Ratiſbon, is the reſidence of the governor and regency, contains an electoral palace, with a college, and is well fortified. In its neighbourhood is an iron mine.

Treſwitz, on the Preimb, has a caſtle, where Frederick, duke of Auſtria, was confined, when he was taken priſoner by the elector.

Waldſaſſen is an abbey of Ciſtertian monks, the abbots of which were princes of the empire in former times.

The biſhopric of Treyſingen is ſurrounded by the circle of Bavaria, and its biſhop is a prince of the empire. Treyſing, on the Iſer, is the principal town, containing ſeveral convents and churches, a cathedral, a gymnaſium, a biſhop's palace, &c.

The ſeigniory of Ehrenfels belongs to the elector palatine, who, on its account, has a ſeat and voice among the counts of the empire and circle; but the elector of Bavaria poſſeſſes the ſame privileges for each of the three Proteſtant ſeigniories of Sulzburgh, Pyrbaum, and Breileneck, and the Roman Catholic ſeigniory of Hoen Waldeck.

The little Proteſtant county and town of Ortenberg jointly belongs to their own counts; the county of Haog belongs to the elector; the provoſt of Berchtologaden is a prince of the empire; and the county of Sternſtein belongs to the Lobkowitz family.

The biſhopric of Paſſaw, or Paſſau, ſtands on both ſides of the Danube, where it receives the Inn on the one ſide, and the Iltz on the other. The three rivers abovementioned divide it into three parts, viz. Paſſaw itſelf, on the ſouth ſide of the Danube, and the weſt ſide of the Inn; Inſtat, on the eaſt ſide of the Inn, and the ſouth ſide of the Danube; and Ilſtat, on the north ſide of the Danube, and the banks of the Iltz.

This biſhopric was founded in the year 634, by Theodore III. duke of Bavaria; and its dioceſe extends 20 miles on the north ſide of the Danube, bordering on Auſtria and Bohemia. It was commonly given to a younger ſon of the houſe of Auſtria, before the late vaſt aggrandiſement of that houſe, and yielded near 15,000l. a year before the erection of the biſhopric of Vienna. In 1729 the pope made the biſhop independent of the metropolis of Saltzburg, and allowed him the pall, to indemnify him, in ſome ſort, for the loſs of 69 pariſhes, 2 abbies, a provoſtſhip, and a priory, which were diſmembered from his dioceſe, on the erection of the new archbiſhopric of Vienna. The chapter conſiſts of 24 canons, who are all of rank.

Paſſaw, the capital of the biſhopric, is noted for many meetings and conſultations of the German princes, and particularly for the treaty made in it anno 1552, for quieting the troubles of Germany, in the contention between the emperor Charles V. and the proteſtant princes; whereby the Lutherans, who were only tolerated before, were now eſtabliſhed in the free exerciſe of their religion. It is a rich, populous, trading city, and naturally ſtrong, being fenced on all ſides with rocks and rivers; and ſo pent in by a mountain, that it runs in a narrow ſlip at the bottom of it, from eaſt to weſt, above a mile in length. It is an Imperial free city, but under the protection of its archbiſhop, who is a prince of the empire. The private buildings here are of wood, for which reaſon it ſuffered much by a fire in 1661; but it has been rebuilt in the Italian taſte; and the churches are ſtately, eſpecially the cathedral, which is full of fine tombs, and other monuments, and dedicated to St. Stephen. The biſhop's palace, the chapter-court near it, and the caſtle on St. Gregory's Hill, near that part of this town called Ilzſtadt, are handſome buildings. The other part, called Inſtat, is ſuppoſed to have been the Boiodorum of the ancients; and, indeed, the buildings have more of the air of antiquity than thoſe of Paſſaw. Here are, beſides the cathedral, three other churches, a monaſtery, and a handſome college. Without the town there is another church and monaſtery. The caſtle was erected in 1219. There is another fort at the bottom of the hill; and they both belong to the biſhop. The duke of Bavaria took it in 1704, but ſoon ſurrendered it to the Imperialiſts; and in 1741, it was ſurpriſed by the late elector. This is reckoned one of the ten principal cities on the Danube: and the river Iltz produces pearls, that belong to the emperor and the elector of Bavaria, each of whom has an officer here to take care of his intereſts. People here dreſs in a very brilliant and ſumptuous manner.

The landgravate of Leuchtenberg belongs to the elector of Bavaria, who, on account of it, has a ſeat and voice in the diets of the empire and circle. Leuchtenberg itſelf is a market-town, has a caſtle defended by a fortreſs, and gives name to a bailiwick.

The Principalities of NEUBURG and SULZBACH lie moſtly in the Upper Palatinate. The former princes thereof were branches of the Palatine family. Of the Neuburg branch Philip William became elector; but both

both his ſons dying without male iſſue, the other branch ſucceeded to the palatinate, the duchy of Neuburg, and electoral dignity. Each has a regency of its own, and the inhabitants of both are a mixture of Roman Catholics and Lutherans. In the duchy of Neuberg, the principal places are,

Neuberg, which gives name to it, and is its capital, ſtanding on the Danube, 40 miles north of Munich, and weſt of Ratiſbon. It is well built and fortified, contains an electoral palace, with a college, and is the ſeat of the regency.

Hochſtadt is a ſmall town on the Danube, near which, at the village of Blenheim, the duke of Marlborough, and prince Eugene, obtained a ſignal victory over the French and Bavarians.

This famous battle is thus elegantly deſcribed by the celebrated Addiſon:

Behold, in awful march, and dread array,
The long extended ſquadrons ſhape their way.
Death, in approaching terrible, imparts
An anxious horror to the braveſt hearts;
Yet do their beating breaſts demand the ſtrife,
And thirſt of glory quells the love of life.
No vulgar fears can Britiſh minds controul:
Heat of revenge, and noble pride of ſoul,
O'erlook the foe, advantag'd by his poſt,
Leſſen his numbers, and contract his hoſt.
Tho' fens and floods poſſeſt the middle ſpace,
That, unprovok'd, they would have fear'd to paſs,
Nor fens, nor floods, can ſtop Britannia's bands,
When her proud foe rang'd on the borders ſtands.
But oh! my Muſe, what numbers wilt thou find,
To ſing the furious troops in battle join'd?
Methinks I hear the drum's tumultuous ſound
The victor's ſhouts and dying groans confound;
The dreadful burſt of cannon rend the ſkies,
And all the thunders of the battle riſe.
'Twas then great Marlbro's mighty ſoul was prov'd;
That, in the ſhock of charging hoſts, unmov'd
Amidſt confuſion, horror, and deſpair,
Examin'd all the dreadful ſcenes of war;
In peaceful thought the field of death ſurvey'd,
To fainting ſquadrons ſent the timely aid;
Inſpir'd repuls'd battalions to engage,
And taught the doubtful battle were to rage.
So when an angel, by divine command,
With riſing tempeſts ſhakes a guilty land,
(Such as of late o'er pale Britannia paſs'd,)
Calm and ſerene, he drives the furious blaſt,
And, pleas'd th' Almighty's orders to perform,
Rides in the whirlwind, and enjoys the ſtorm.
But ſee the haughty houſhold troops advance,
The dread of Europe, and the pride of France:
The war's whole art each private ſoldier knows,
And with a gen'ral's love of conqueſt glows:
Proudly he marches on, and, void of fear,
Laughs at the ſhaking of the Britiſh ſpear.
Vain inſolence! with native freedom brave,
The meaneſt Briton ſcorns the higheſt ſlave;
Contempt and fury fire their ſouls by turns,
Each nation's glory in each warrior burns;
Each fight, as in his arm the important day,
And all the fate of his great monarch lay.
A thouſand glorious actions, that might claim
Triumphant laurels, and immortal fame,
Confus'd in crowds of glorious actions lie,
And troops of heroes undiſtinguiſh'd die.

The biſhopric of Ratiſbon contains 1383 pariſhes. The chapter conſiſts of 24 canons; and the biſhop is a prince of the empire, but ſuffragan to Saltzburg.

The Imperial city of Ratiſbon, 60 miles to the north of Munich, is large, populous, and well fortified. The magiſtracy and burghers are Lutherans; but the greateſt part of the inhabitants are Catholics, and have many churches and convents belonging to them. The abbot of St. Emeran, and the abbeſſes of Upper and Lower Munſter, have ſeats and votes in the diets of the empire and circle, and are aſſeſſed in the matriculas. In the firſt of theſe abbies are two curious manuſcripts of the goſpel, written in the eighth and ninth centuries. In the ſame abbey Apollonius, ſo diſtinguiſhed for his ſkill in the Greek tongue, was educated. The abbot is exempted from the juriſdiction of the biſhop, and ſtands immediately under the pope. In the female foundations, the lady-abbeſſes are elected by the two chapters of ladies, who muſt be all of noble birth; and though the abbeſſes make vows of celibacy, &c. the other ladies may marry. There are two iſlands in the Danube, near this city, called Oberwerth and Underwerth, i. e. the Upper and Lower Iſland, which are inhabited by millers, boatmen, and fiſhermen. Beſides the abbies mentioned above, among other religious houſes, here is a cloiſter for Scotchmen of the Roman Catholic Religion. The city drives a great trade, exporting, by the Danube, Nab, and Regen, large quantities of ſalt, corn, wood, and proviſions of all ſorts. Over the firſt of theſe rivers is a bridge of 15 arches. The diets of the empire have been held in the council-court of this city, almoſt without interruption, ſince the year 1662.

THE CIRCLE OF SWABIA

IS bounded by Switzerland and Tirol to the ſouth; by the Palatine and Franconia to the north; by Bavaria to the eaſt; and by Alſace to the weſt. From the two laſt it is ſeparated by the rivers Rhine and Lech, and by the great lake of Conſtance from Switzerland. It was once called Allemania, which is now the name of all Germany. The Germans call it Schwaben, and the French Souabe. It had the Latin name Suevia from ſome tribes of the Suevi, the beſt warriors in Germany, that came from the north parts of it: and the greateſt part of Germany was called Swabia by the Romans, becauſe the Suevi were the moſt conſiderable people they knew, and extended their dominions fartheſt in that country; but it was afterwards appropriated to the Hermunduri, the moſt conſiderable branch of them, who inhabited that part now called Swabia, where they eſtabliſhed a powerful ſtate in length of time, which contained all the country betwixt the Rhine, the Alps, and the Elbe; and they called their governors kings; but Clovis, king of France, deprived them of that title; and its governors had afterwards the title of dukes.

The modern Swabians retain the courage of their anceſtors the Suevi, and are capable of all the fatigues of war; but both ſexes are addicted to ſenſuality. Many of them are groſsly ſuperſtitious; for though the religion, which they profeſs in general, is Lutheran, yet here are Papiſts, Calviniſts, and Jews; a diverſity of religions being almoſt unavoidable under ſuch a diverſity of ſovereigns. In this country, particularly in the duchy of Wurtemburgh, the executioner, or hangman, inſtead of being deemed infamous, eats, drinks, and traffics with every body, and is company for the beſt; and ſo far is a man from being abhorred for it, that every freſh execution gives him a title of honour; and when he has performed a certain number, he is complimented with the degree of doctor of phyſic. At the ſame time it is obſerved, that that very profeſſion which is reckoned the moſt noble, the moſt ancient, and the moſt innocent, the paſtoral life, ſo celebrated by the ancients, and the moſt ingenious of the European moderns, is not only deſpiſed, but abhorred, by the Swabians; the meaneſt peaſants excluding ſhepherds from their company. This circle is 130 miles in length, from eaſt to weſt, and 110 in breadth, from north to ſouth. The air is healthy, and the ſoil generally fruitful: for though ſome parts are mountainous and woody, yet the hills afford mines of ſilver, copper, and other metals; and the foreſts much pine and fir-timber, beſides great ſtore of game, and good breeds of horſes, black cattle, and ſheep. The other parts of the coun-

try yield great ſtore of corn, wine and flax. The inhabitants are chiefly employed in making linen cloth, of which they vend great quantities to other nations. Its chief rivers are the Danube and the Neckar; the former of which riſes in the principality of Furſtenberg, and the latter not far from it; but great part of it is alſo watered by the Rhine.

This country was formerly governed by dukes; but the emperor Henry IV. conferred it on his ſon-in-law, Frederick of Hohenſtaufen, in whoſe family it continued till its extinction in 1268. After this period the ſtewards appointed by the emperor, their deputies, &c. became maſters of different parts of it, at various times, and under various pretences. The ſummoning princes are the biſhop of Conſtance and the duke of Wurtemburg: the latter being, however, ſole director, the diets are held twice a year at Ulm; and the ſtates are divided into five benches, viz. eccleſiaſtical princes and abbots, temporal princes and abbots, prelates, counts and barons, and free Imperial cities.

The religion is mixed, and, on that account, it nominates two aſſeſſors to the imperial chamber, the one a Lutheran, and the other a Roman Catholic. The Danube, Neckar, and Rhine, are the principal rivers; and the different counties and ſtates contained in this circle are as follow:

That part of the Biſhopric of AUGSBURG which lies towards Tirol, is mountainous and barren; but the parts on the banks of the Lech are fertile in corn and paſture. The biſhop himſelf is a prince of the empire, and ſuffragan to the archbiſhop of Mentz. The principal places in the biſhopric are the following:

The imperial city of Augſburg, peopled by a colony planted here by Auguſtus Cæſar, is ſituated near the conflux of the Lech and Wertach, in a pleaſant fertile country, at the diſtance of 25 miles from the Danube. It is well fortified, and has four large and ſix ſmall gates. The cathedral is a magnificent pile; beſides which there are many other elegant churches, as alſo ſeveral monaſteries and nunneries. Of the churches many belong to the Roman Catholics, and ſeveral to the Lutherans; for both religions are tolerated, and have a ſhare in the government of the city. In the year 1518 Luther appeared before the diet in this city concerning his doctrine; and, about 12 years ſubſequent to this affair, Luther and Melancthon drew up and preſented their confeſſion of faith to the emperor Charles V. whence the Lutherans are ſaid to be of the Augſburg confeſſion, though their preſent creed differs widely from it. Beſides the above-mentioned public buildings, here are the fineſt town-houſe in all Germany; many hoſpitals, well endowed; a Lutheran gymnaſium; an academy for arts and ſciences, founded in the year 1755, and called the Imperial Franciſcan academy; two well furniſhed armouries, a houſe of correction, and a work-houſe; with ſeveral beautiful fountains and reſervoirs, whence the city is well ſupplied with water, brought by aqueducts from the Lech to five towers, and from thence, by means of curious water-works, diſtributed throughout it. There are ſeveral corn, ſawing, flatting, and ſmelting mills on the aqueducts. The palaces of the counts of Fuggar are magnificent. To theſe counts belong a great number of ſmall houſes in the ſuburbs, called the Fuggery, which are let, at very low rents, to poor burghers, and others. The trade of the city, though ſtill conſiderable, is far ſhort of what it was formerly. At preſent, excluſive of the bank commerce, and the Tirol wines, with which it ſupplies almoſt all Germany, it conſiſts chiefly in gold and ſilver-ſmiths wares, and thoſe of tin and ivory, clocks and toys. The government of the city is almoſt entirely in the hands of the patricians. The biſhop however, has certain powers and prerogatives in it. The revenue of the city is very conſiderable, and its garriſon conſiſts of 300 men. In the council-houſe are ſome very noble halls, which, with the other apartments, are adorned with fine pictures, ſculptures, ſtatues, gilding, &c. Of the fountains, the moſt beautiful are thoſe of Auguſtus and Hercules. Betwixt the gates of Gogging and Klenker, is a very curious wicket for admitting proper perſons in the night-time. In the cathedral are ſeveral chancels; and the arms of all the countries poſſeſſed by Charles V. who here laid up his ſword, ſtandard, ſceptre, and crown, when he bid adieu to this world, and retired to a convent. In the library belonging to the gymnaſium are ſome curious books and manuſcripts. The abbot of the Benedictine abbey of St. Ulrich and Afra, in this city, has a ſeat among the prelates of the Rhine, and pays the uſual taxes to the empire. The revenue of the abbey is very conſiderable. This abbey is a privileged place for debtors and criminals for three days, but no longer, without the abbot's permiſſion. In the convent of the Carmelites is a remarkable ſun-dial, being a Madona, whoſe hands holds a ſceptre, marking the hours; and whoſe head is enriched with rays, ſtars, and all the ſigns of the zodiac. The public granaries contain great quantities of corn. In one of the arſenals is an old battering-ram of braſs, ſtill preſerved entire. All orders and degrees of perſons here are diſtinguiſhed by their proper dreſſes, ſome of which are very odd and uncommon. Prints of them all, done on paſteboard, are ſold in the town. The hoſpital of the Holy Ghoſt is a very noble one, and patients of both religions are admitted into it. The inn, called the Three Kings, is very commodious. Neither Jews or Calviniſts have a toleration for their worſhip here. As an Imperial city, Augſburg has a ſeat and vote in the diets of the empire and circle.

The Biſhopric of CONSTANCE takes its name from the city of Conſtance; though the biſhop himſelf reſides uſually on the other ſide of the lake, at Marſburgh. The chapter conſiſts of 20 canons, and four expectants; but the Proteſtant religion prevails in moſt parts of the dioceſe.

The city of Conſtance, ſituated on a celebrated lake of the ſame name, was formerly Imperial; but in the year 1549, Ferdinand I. annexed it to the territories of the houſe of Auſtria. It is well fortified, the ſee of a biſhop, and has been the ſeat of ſeveral diets. The famous aſſembly, known by the name of the Council of Conſtance, was held here by order of the emperor Sigiſmund, at a time the empire was diſtracted by religious diſputes, and by the feuds raiſed by three popes, all then living, viz. one ſet up by Italy, another by France, and a third by Spain. But this council depoſed them all, and elected Martin V. in their ſtead. It likewiſe condemned the doctrines of Wickliff, John Huſs, and Jerom of Prague; ordering the ſepulchre of the firſt to be deſpoiled, and the two latter to be burnt alive. This council continued ſitting four years, during which time a vaſt number of foreigners reſided in and near Conſtance. A conſiderable trade is carried on here by means of the lake, and the Rhine which runs from it; but the chief tribunal is held at Altorf, a neighbouring market-town.

The other places are Marſburgh, a pretty town; Ochumgen, containing an opulent abbey; and Reichenau, a Benedictine abbey, on an iſland of the ſame name, in the Zellerzee.

The priory of Ewangen, on the borders of Franconia, gives its prior the title of prince of the empire; and the town of the ſame name is the place of reſidence of the prior and chapter.

Kempton is an imperial town, containing an abbey, the abbot of which is a prince of the empire; and the abbey lands contain a market-town, called Gronenbach.

The Duchy of WURTEMBURG is the principal dominion of the circle of Swabia, and is nearly ſquare, being upwards of 60 miles each way. One diviſion of it is into the Unter, or Under-land, the Middle-land, and the Upper-land; the laſt of which makes a part of the mountainous track called the Alb, and Black Foreſt. It is alſo divided into the land above and below the Steig, which is the name of a ridge of mountains

mountains near Stutgard. This duchy not only abounds in grain of moſt ſorts, but alſo in flax, hemp, and good wine, commonly called Neckar wine, and fruit, eſpecially pears and apples; inſomuch, that cyder and perry are the common drink of the peaſants, when wine happens to be dear. In this country are alſo mines of ſilver, copper, and iron; woods of fir, oak, beech, birch, and pine; ſome ſalt ſprings; abundance of ſheep, game, and cattle; coal, turf, cobalt, ſulphur, terra ſigillata, fine clays for porcelain and earthen ware, ſeveral ſorts of marble, black amber, alabaſter, mill-ſtones, mineral ſprings and baths. Silk is alſo cultivated in it. It is well watered by the Neckar, the Ens, Nagold, Fils, and Rems. The inhabitants are very numerous. On important occaſions, diets are called and held at Stutgard, conſiſting of the Lutheran prelates and abbots, and the repreſentatives of the towns. The eſtabliſhed religion is Lutheraniſm. Before the reformation there was about twelve very rich convents in this country, whoſe revenues are now chiefly applied to the maintenance of churches, ſchools and the clergy. Beſides Lutherans, here are ſome Calviniſts, Waldenſes, and Jews. The Waldenſes are allowed the public exerciſe of their religion; but the others only in private. The principal manufactures of the country are porcelain, earthenware, linens, woollens, printed cottons, glaſs, paper, hats, ſtockings, ſilks, &c.

The princes of Wurtemburgh had long only the title of counts, the dignity of duke having been firſt conferred upon Eberhard I. in the year 1495, by the emperor Maximilian; and the right of primogeniture was eſtabliſhed in the family in the year 1473. There is a branch of it ſettled in Sileſia, which, from the duchy of Oels, has the title of duke of Wurtemburg Oels. The duke's title is, "Duke of Wurtemburg and Teck, count of Mompelgard, lord of Heydenheim and Juſtingen." He is hereditary ſtandard-bearer of the empire, and grand-huntſman; in alluſion to the laſt of which, the order of hunting was founded here in 1702. The enſign of that order is a gold croſs, enamelled red, appended to a broad watered ſcarlet ribbon, paſſing from the left ſhoulder to the right ſide. On the left breaſt of the coat is a ſilver ſtar embroidered. Their grand feſtival is on St. Hubert's day. As a prince of the empire, the duke has a ſeat and voice in the college of princes at the diets, paying the uſual aſſeſſments to the empire and Imperial chamber, and is ſummoning prince and director of this circle. Cauſes are determined here in the laſt reſort, no appeal lying from the court-judicature to the aulic council, or any foreign tribunal. The revenues of the duchy are very large, The duke has a great number of hunting ſeats. So numerous are the deer and wild boars, that a writer of credit ſays, "Above 20,000 head periſhed in the winters of 1731 and 1732, by the ſeverity of the weather." It is no wonder they multiply faſt, as no perſon, on pain of death, dare offer to wound or kill them, unleſs at the duke's hunting matches; ſo that the poor peaſants, near the foreſts, are obliged, in ſummer, to keep a conſtant look out, and to be continually watching their flocks and corn fields. A very ancient cuſtom prevails through the whole duchy, of adorning their apartments with deer's horns.

Stutgard, the capital of the duchy, is 38 miles eaſt of Baden. Some derive the name from its being anciently a ſtud for breeding horſes; and the arms of the city are a colt. It ſtands in a fruitful plain, has ſeveral fine gardens and vineyards about it, and is encompaſſed with very high hills and vallies. It has three ſuburbs, five gates, three churches, and is divided into two parts by the Neckar, over which it has a bridge. It is pretty large; but moſt of the houſes are low, and ill-built. The ſtreets are broad and lightſome, but dirty; yet the town is gay, being much frequented on account of its natural hot baths, which are good for many diſeaſes. The duke's caſtle, or palace, is a noble free-ſtone fabric, well fortified, compoſed of four piles of buildings, flanked at each angle by a tower, and adorned with elegant groves and gardens, an orangery which is ſcarce to be paralleled, curious labyrinths, grottos, and water works, and a ſtately pleaſure-houſe; but the walls of the caſtle are waſhed by ditches, which give it the air of a priſon. There are, however, ſeveral grand rooms in it; one, particularly, where the duke's gentlemen dine, and where tables are ſometimes ſpread for 2 or 300 foreigners. There is a bridge over its moat to the duke's gardens; and near it an aviary, with all manner of birds. In the moat is not only plenty of fiſh, but ſwans, and other water-fowl; and that part of it which is dry, facing the gardens, harbours ſeveral deer. Near the gardens is a theatre; and beyond that a large court covered with ſand, for tilting on horſeback, and running of the ring. Before the entrance to the caſtle there is a grand building, which is the duke's chancery, or ſecretary's office. The duke has a tolerable collection of antiques, buſts, and baſſo-relievos: but the piece that moſt deſerves attention is the Jupiter Dolichenus, brought hither from Marſeilles by the celebrated antiquary Patin; it being a repreſentation of that deity in armour, ſtanding on the crupper of an ox, juſt in the ſame attitude as he is copied from this original in the antiquities of Montfaucon. Here are abundance of urns, lamps, little lares or houſehould gods, and ancient coins, both of ſilver and gold, with ſhells, petrifactions, foſſils, the caprices of nature, both in wood and ſtone, exotic plants, monſtrous productions, the exuviæ of animals, &c. beſides the dreſſes and weapons uſed in the moſt remote countries. The hall is a moſt ſpacious room, finely adorned, in freſco, with repreſentations of various huntings; in each of which pieces the duke of Wurtemburg may be diſtinguiſhed, with the princes and princeſſes of his family, in whoſe time they were performed. There is an arſenal, in which appears a ſeries of the dukes of Wurtemburg on barbed horſes, richly armed, and accoutred after the faſhion of the age they lived in, as large as the life, and the name and eulogium of every one ſet forth on the oppoſite wall: which is graced alſo with ſtandards, and other trophies, gained by the dukes in their ſeveral actions; particularly the ſkin of a favourite horſe, killed under that duke who commanded under prince Eugene and the duke of Marlborough, at the battle of Hochſtet. On the cieling of this arſenal are ſome noble repreſentations of battles wherein ſome of the ancient dukes of Wurtemburg loſt their lives in the ſervice of their country, under the emperors of the Saxon and Swabian race.

Ludwigſburg, about three miles from Stutgard, is the ſeat of a palace built by the duke Eberhard-Lewis, in a place remote from any river, great roads, or foreſts. It is ſo ill contrived, that it looks more like an orangery than the palace of a ſovereign, the apartments being too ſmall and inconvenient, as well as irregular; yet no coſt has been ſpared to adorn them with carving, gilding and painting; though with more profuſion than judgment. The furniture alſo is rich, but as abſurd as the fabric. The beſt thing in the whole palace is the chapel, a fine noble ſtructure. In the gardens there are ſeveral terraces, which, riſing one above another, entirely bound the proſpect of the palace, which is encompaſſed by buttreſſes that alſo cramp the apartments. The town is as irregular as the palace, and in no reſpect agreeable; for the ſituation of it is upon uneven ground; and moſt of the houſes are of timber, and ſlightly built, having been run up out of neceſſity.

Tubingen lies on the Neckar, and has a caſtle near it on a hill. Here is held the high court, in which all cauſes are finally determined. At this place are an univerſity, a ſeminary of divines, with a collegium illuſtre, the ſtudents of which muſt be all princes or counts, a Latin ſchool, and a woollen manufactory. In the neighbourhood is a medicinal bath.

Canſtadt, on the Neckar, has, in its neighbourhood, an excellent mineral, and ſeveral ſalt-ſprings. In the town

town is a cotton printing-houſe; and, in an adjacent village, a ſilk manufactory. At no great diſtance is the ancient family ſeat of Wurtemburg, which gave name to the duchy; and in its vicinity the ancient counts held their courts in the open air.

Urach, a little town on the Alb, near the river Erms, contains a ducal ſeat, with a linen manufactory. In the neighbourhood are mills for lead, iron, and copper; and in the diſtrict to which it gives name, ſome fine ſtuds of horſes; a beautiful white earth; and that called the Holzrutſche, which is a large iron pipe, into which the wood, felled on the Alb, being put, is conveyed, in an inſtant, from the top of a mountain into the river Erms, and by that into the Neckar, which brings it to Berg near Stutgard.

The Lordſhip of New Ravenſburgh, on the Argen, belongs to the abbey of St. Gall, in Switzerland, though it pays taxes to the circle.

The Benedictine Abbey of Ottobeuren is the richeſt in all Swabia.

The Roman Catholic Imperial towns of Offenburg, on the river Kenzing, of Gengenbach, on the ſame river, and of Zell-Am-Hammerſbach, about four miles from the latter, are in league with each other mutually, to ſupport their common privileges.

The following imperial towns all pay taxes to the empire; but the religion of the inhabitants is different, as may be ſeen by the following table:

Name.	Religion.	Situated on
Buchau	Mixed	The Federſee River
Bopfingen	Lutheran	Eger
Aalen	Calviniſt	Kocher
Buchhorn	Lutheran	Lake Conſtance
P. Fuſſendorf	Roman Catholic	Hegau River
Grengen	Lutheran	Bronz
Wimpferm	Mixed	Neckar
Leutkirch	Ditto	Eſchach
Iſni	Lutheran	———
Wangen	Roman Catholic	Argen
Wiel	Mixed	Wwun
Kauffbeuren	Ditto	Wertach
Ravenſberg	Ditto	Schuſs
Bibenach	Ditto	———
Dinkelſbuhl	Ditto	Wernitz
Lindau	Lutheran	Lake Conſtance
Heibron	Calviniſt	Neckar
Ueberlingen	Roman Catholic	Lake Conſtance
Nordlingen	Lutheran	Eger
Reutlingen	Ditto	Neckar
Eſzlingen	Mixed	Ditto

The Imperial town of Mimmingen ſtands on the Aach, a ſmall river, betwixt the Iler and the Danube, 20 miles north of Kempten. The Magiſtracy is Lutheran; but the inhabitants are partly Lutherans, and partly Roman Catholics. Here are ſeveral religious houſes. Mimmingen was an Imperial city ſo early as the days of Frederick I. and now enjoys great privileges; in particular, an exemption from the juriſdiction of the tribunal of Rothweil. A good trade is carried on by it with Switzerland, Italy, and other countries adjacent, in hops, Bavarian ſalt, grain, cotton-ſtuffs, and paper. The town is pretty well fortified, and almoſt as large as Ulm, but not ſo populous or well built. In its diſtrict, which is conſiderable, are manufactories of braſs, pewter, wire, and porcelain, together with a warm bath, a chalybeate ſpring, and a free hunting-ground, in which the ſeveral neighbouring lordſhips enjoy an unlimited privilege of hunting; but the juriſdiction belongs to the town of Mimmingen. In the ſame diſtrict is found terra ſigillata.

Gemund, on the frontiers of the county of Hohenrechberg, is the capital of the county of Rechberg. It has its name from the conflux of a great many brooks here into the river Rems; and the neighbourhood is called Remſthal, or the Valley of Rems. This river falls into the Neckar five miles below Stutgard. The town was of note formerly for tournaments held here by the nobility of Swabia, and was ſubject to its dukes, one of whom cauſed it to be encompaſſed with a wall. Frederick I. made it Imperial in 1186; and the emperors Conrade III. and Frederick Barbaroſſa, enlarged and granted it many privileges. M. Villars encamped here with the French army in 1707, and raiſed contributions far and near. It is a Roman Catholic town, with five churches, two chapels, and ſeveral convents; and the principal trade is in its beads, which the inhabitants ſend abroad. It was formerly governed by perſons of quality, but now the power is in the burghers.

Halle ſtands among ſteep rocks and mountains, on the river Kocher, in the county of Oetingen, and on the frontiers of Franconia. It depended formerly on the dukes of Wurtemburg, but was made Imperial by Charles IV. in 1360. This town has plenty of freſh water; but it owes its riſe to its ſpring of ſalt, which, though not ſo white or piquant as other ſalt, is carried to Nuremberg. There is a bridge here over the river to its ſuburb.

Rothweil is a ſmall Imperial city, 20 miles ſouth from Tubingen. It is the ſeat of a chamber, or court of juſtice, for the whole duchy, firſt erected, anno 1147, by Conrade III. duke of Swabia, who made it a free city. It was taken by the French in 1643, when they were in alliance with the Proteſtants of the empire, but reſtored at the treaty of Munſter. It was again ſeized by the French, under M. Villars, in 1703, after he had paſſed the Black Foreſt, at the end of which it ſtands; but they were ſoon obliged to quit it. It is in the territory of Hegow, and the head of a county called Hohenberg, under the protection of the houſe of Auſtria; but it is in league with the Switzers, it being but five miles from Schaffhauſen, and not far from the Danube. It is fortified after the ancient manner, and encompaſſed with broad deep ditches. In 1338 this town was almoſt burnt down by lightening.

The counties and lordſhips of the noble family of the Truchſes, the lordſhip of Tetnaug, the commanderies belonging to the Teutonic order, the abbies of Baindt, Gutenzell, Rothmunſter, Heggbach, Gengenbach, Zwifalten, Marchthall, Peterhauſen, and the priory of Wettenhauſen, all give their proprietors voices and ſeats in the diets of the empire, circle, &c.

Ulm, a name thought to be derived from the groves of elms near it, and ſuppoſed to be the Alcimenis of Ptolemy, is an imperial city, 17 miles weſt of Burgaw, and 80 ſouth of Wurtzburgh. It ſtands on the weſt ſide of the Danube, which here begins to be navigable, after having received the united ſtreams of the Lauter and Blaw, oppoſite to the mouth of the Iler, and forms ſeveral little iſlands before the town. In Charlemagne's time it was but a little village, of which he made a grant to the abbey of Richenaw, near Conſtance. It was ruined by the emperor Lotharius II. during his war with his rivals for the empire, becauſe it refuſed to open its gates to him, though he had granted many privileges; but it was rebuilt, and encompaſſed with walls, about the year 1300; and its inhabitants enriching themſelves by trade, it grew to be a handſome large town. In 1346 the emperor Frederick II. granted it many privileges. The inhabitants having purchaſed their freedom from the abbey of Richenaw, the emperor Lewis of Bavaria made their city Imperial. They are governed by 41 eſchevins, moſt of whom are of the nobleſſe, and the reſt tradeſmen; and they chuſe two bailiffs annually out of the former, who preſide in their council. Here are four burgomaſters, who enter on the offices every year alternately. Seven of the oldeſt members make the ſecret council, and execute the laws. All the magiſtrates, as well as moſt of the inhabitants, are Lutherans; the Proteſtant having been the prevailing religion here ever ſince 1531. The Roman Catholics have 2 churches, and are excluded from the

the public offices, as well as their privy council. The elector of Bavaria baſely ſurpriſed this city for the French in 1702; and they kept it till after the battle of Hochſtet, when it ſurrendered to the Imperialiſts. It was a very neceſſary place for him to ſecure his dominions on that ſide, and to facilitate the paſſage of the French to join his army. It is a great and populous city, with regular fortifications, and wide deep ditches, filled by the waters of the Danube and the Blaw; but it is ſo ſituated that it would not be able to ſuſtain a long ſiege. It has a bridge of ſtone, of four arches, over the Danube, the entrance of which is defended by fortifications; and there is a little ſuburb of pleaſure-houſes, and large gardens. There are in the city two ſquares, in the largeſt of which is the town-houſe, a ſtately building, where the ſenate meets. At one end of the town there is an arſenal, from which the French carried off all the arms, &c. that were in it, before the battle of Hochſtet. The river Blaw turns mills for ſeveral occupations; there being a great number of hands employed in the manufactories of ſtuffs, linen, cotton, and fuſtians; in dreſſing leather; and in the iron, and other manufactories, as well as clock-work; by which this is become one of the richeſt cities in Germany.

The cathedral of Our Lady, now belonging to the Lutherans, which is 365 feet in length, is reckoned the longeſt, higheſt, and beſt built in the country; and, by ſome, the fineſt in the empire. This church has 5 ſtately ſpires; one of them 102 feet high, ſupported by 36 handſome pillars. It has a large ſquare tower, with a watch always at the top of it, to give notice to the city of any approaching danger from the country. The organ is a finiſhed piece of art, of extraordinary height, weight, and dimenſions. The tabernacle is a very fine, though Gothic piece of work, of a ſingular kind of marble, and ornamented with abundance of ſtatues. They keep, to this day, the picture of the Laſt Supper, which was put up above the great altar before the reformation. The benches in the choir are adorned with hiſtorical paſſages of the Bible in ſculpture. Beſides this, the Lutherans have two other churches. This place may boaſt of giving birth to Freinſheim, ſo much reſpected for his great learning by the whole world; and particularly by Chriſtina, queen of Sweden, who made him her librarian and hiſtoriographer. Its territory is near as large as that of Nuremburg, being ſix German leagues in length, and four in breadth. It is almoſt environed by the duchy of Wurtemburg, except on the ſouth and eaſt ſides, where it is bounded by the Danube; and is divided into 40 bailiwicks and lordſhips, of which that of Geiſlingen comprehends the greateſt part of the county of Helfenſtein, which, with other counties and towns, were purchaſed by this city ſoon after it was made Imperial. The garriſon lives here in little houſes ſet apart for it. In time of war it is maintained by the empire; and this city furniſhes a quota equal to that of Augſburg. There was a great Franciſcan monaſtery here, the revenues of which were appropriated, at the reformation, to a college, where they have profeſſors in all arts and ſciences.

Olm is ſituated in one of the moſt fertile plains in Swabia; though it has been almoſt ruined by the ſeveral wars in this country. This city, before thoſe wars, was ſo rich, that it paſſed for one of the wealthieſt in the empire; and the Germans had a proverb, that "The ready caſh of Ulm, the neatneſs of Augſburg, the induſtry of Nuremburg, and the arſenal of Straſburg, were the four wonders of Germany." The archives of all the free cities of the circle of Swabia are kept at Ulm, where their meetings are alſo held by turns with the city of Spires. Though all the country from hence to Augſburg is even, yet it is tireſome to travellers, becauſe of the pavement of the cauſeways.

The Imperial Abbies of Schuſſenried, Weiſſenau, Roth, Raggerburg, Kayſerſheim, Urſperg, Yrſee, Elchingen, Ochſenhauſen, and Salmanſweil, entitle their abbots, or proprietors, to voices and ſeats in the diets; as do the Principality of Lichenſtein, and princely Landgravate of Kletgau.

Baden, or Baden, ſituated along the eaſtern banks of the Rhine, is divided between two princes of the ſame family, who receive title from their reſpective capitals; the one being ſtyled the Margrave of Baaden-Baſden, and the other of Baaden-Durlach. The ſhare of the former, as lying ſouth of the other, is diſtinguiſhed by the name of the Upper; and that of the latter by the name of the Lower Margravate, or Marquiſate. The right of primogeniture ſhip hath been long introduced into both theſe branches. The whole county is near 60 miles long, and 20 broad, and lies betwen the duchy of Wurtemburg and Briſgau. It is fruitful in corn, wine, hemp, flax, and wood; abounding, in particular, with cheſnut-trees. There are alſo many quarries of marble and free-ſtone in it; large herds of ſwine; plenty of fiſh, fowl and veniſon; and the baths and mineral ſprings are ſo common, that the chief towns of both marquiſates have their names from them. Both princes exerciſe an abſolute authority in their dominions, excepting ſo far as it is limited by the laws of the empire, and lay taxes on their ſubjects without aſſembling any ſtates. The Upper Margravate, or that of Baaden-Baſden, is bounded by the Rhine, the Lower Margravate, the duchy of Wurtemburg, the county of Eberſtein, and the Ortenau. Other eſtates belonging to the margrave are the lordſhip of Mahlberg, lying between the Ortenau and Briſgau; the county of Eberſtein; a conſiderable part of the county of Sponheim; two manors in the lordſhip of Graffenſtein, and one in the duchy of Luxemburg, with ſeveral baronies in Bohemia. The margrave votes in the college of princes both in the diets of the empire and circle. His annual revenue amounts to about four hundred thouſand florins. As to religion, both the margrave and his ſubjects are Roman Catholics. The following are the principal places in the country.

Raſtadt, where the princes reſide in a magnificent caſtle, in which were ſettled the preliminaries of the peace concluded at Baden betwixt the emperor and France, in 1714. The town, which is not large, and belonged formerly to the counts of Eberſtein, ſtands in a fine plain on the river Murg, which a little below falls into the Rhine. Not far from it is a palace of the margrave's, called the Favourita.

Baaden derives its name from its hot baths, impregnated with ſalt, allum, and ſulphur, and which give relief in the cramp, gout, and other nervous diſtempers. The town is pleaſantly ſituated among vineyards, and contains a palace of the margrave's.

Stolhoffen, ſituate not far from the Rhine, five miles ſouth-weſt of Baaden, is famous for the lines caſt up here in the war for the Spaniſh ſucceſſion, to guard the empire againſt the French, who were repulſed when they attacked them in 1703: but, in 1707, they forced them, and raiſed vaſt contributions in the adjacent country. Near the town is a Benedictine abbey.

Kehl gives name to a diſtrict, containing the noted fortreſs called, from the village, fort Kehl. The fort, ſo called, firſt ſtood at the eaſt end of the bridge over the Rhine, at Straſburg; but was afterwards built at the conflux of the Kenzig and Rhine, and is now in a ruinous condition.

The lower marquiſate of Baden, ſo called with regard to the courſe of the Rhine, viz. that of Baden-Durlach, or Deurlach, is contiguous to the marquiſate of Baden on the north-eaſt; and has the duchy of Wurtemburg on the eaſt; the Rhine, which ſeparates it from Alſace, on the weſt; and part of the Lower Palatinate, and the biſhopric of Spire, on the north. The places of note here are Durlach, its capital, a pretty large town, which lies on the banks of the Pfintz, or Phints, at the foot of a mountain, on the top of which there is a ſtrong tower, with a conſtant guard. The marquis has a magnificent palace here, far exceeding that of Baaden, a good library, and a fine collection of ancient

coins and medals. The ſtreets are ſtrait, and the houſes ſtately and uniform. Here is alſo a gymnaſium, with profeſſors of the ſeveral faculties. The town and palace ſuffered much in the different wars with the French, who, in 1689, burnt them; ſo that the Proteſtant cantons thought fit to aſſiſt its prince, who was a Lutheran, with contributions for repairing the Proteſtant churches, which the French ruined in this country; and he himſelf gave large immunities to ſuch foreign Proteſtants as would ſettle in this capital.

Carlſrube has a caſtle and palace, both built by the marquis Charles-William, who gave it the name, ſignifying Charles's Reſt. It is thus deſcribed by an eminent traveller: "Imagine the margrave's houſe (ſays he) to be at the entrance of a great foreſt, in the centre of a ſtar, formed by 32 walks, the chief of which, behind the palace, is three German leagues in length. Two large wings advance from the main body of the houſe, which deviating from each other in proportion as they lengthen, the whole, together, looks like a theatre. Behind the principal building is a very high octagon tower, which commands all the walks. Beyond the court, between the two wings, are the gardens and parterres; at the end of which there is a ſemicircle of houſes of an equal height, built archways, between which there run five ſtreets, the middlemoſt whereof fronts the palace. At the end of the three chief ſtreets, oppoſite to the palace, are three churches, one belonging to the Lutherans, another to the Calviniſts, and a third to the Roman Catholics; to which three prevailing religions of the empire the late margrave gave equal liberty of conſcience when he founded the new town.

"The pheaſant-walk, which joins to the caſtle, is a very large encloſure, diſpoſed in various walks, and planted with fir-trees cut in the ſhape of a fan. There is a great baſon in the centre, always full of wild ducks, which is encompaſſed with four pavilions, made in the form of Turkiſh tents. Two of them are aviaries, and the other two ſummer-houſes, with ſofas and couches in them after the manner of the eaſtern countries. The late margrave uſed to divert himſelf by playing in concerts with ſome young ladies, whom he taught muſic. He had no leſs than 60 waiting-women to attend him, though but 8 waited upon one day; and theſe, when he went abroad, attended him on horſeback, dreſſed like huſſars. The generality of theſe damſels, who had all lodgings in the palace, underſtood both muſic and dancing; and not only performed operas at the theatre of the palace, but were muſicians of the chapel."

The territories of the prince of Hohenzollorn are 34 miles long, 10 broad, and tolerably fertile, being watered by the Danube, Eyach, Starzell, &c. They do not contain any remarkable town; but the prince is hereditary chamberlain of the holy Roman empire.

The abbeſs of Lindau, and the abbeſs of Buchau, have both ſeats and voices in the diets of the empire and circle, as hath the prince of Theugen.

The county of OETTINGEN lies eaſt of the duchy of Wurtemburg, in the north-eaſt corner of the circle, and extends about 18 miles in length, and 12 in breadth. The principal river in it is the Wernitz. The lords of this county are divided into three lines, viz. that of the Oettingen-Spielberg, who are princes of the empire, but have no ſeat or vote in the college of princes thereof; and thoſe of Oettingen-Wallerſtein, and Oettingen-Katzenſtein-Baldern. In the diet of the empire they belong to the college of Swabian counts; but in that of the circle the princely line has a ſeat and vote on the bench of lay princes; and the others on the bench of counts and barons. The ſubjects of theſe princes are partly Roman-Catholics and partly Lutherans; but the princes themſelves are all Roman-Catholics. The only place in the county worth mentioning is Oettingen, a town on the Wernitz, whence the county takes its name, and where the prince of Oettingen-Spielberg reſides. Here is alſo a commandery of the Teutonic order, a large college, and a ſociety for the improvement of arts and ſciences. The bailiwick, to which the town gives name, with four others, belong to the ſame prince.

SECTION III.

Perſons, Diſpoſitions, Population, Subordination, and Diverſions of the Germans in general.

NOTWITHSTANDING we have been unavoidably led, in our deſcription of the reſpective ſtates of which this extenſive empire is compoſed, to introduce ſeveral particulars relative to the manners, cuſtoms, &c. of the various inhabitants, we deem it neceſſary to bring the whole into one point of view, or, in other words to characterize the Germans in general. The Germans are of a good ſtature, with fair complexions and agreeable features; but neither their ſhape or mien are to be admired, any more than the brightneſs of their parts, which are not at all improved by their regimen or way of life; for no people eat and drink to greater exceſs. Germany, however, has produced great men; a circumſtance which may proceed from their unwearied application to whatever they undertake, and their travelling to other countries: and it is no wonder it produces great generals, being perpetually engaged in wars, either with the Chriſtian princes, their neighbours, or the Turks. The Germans are, upon the whole, an honeſt, hoſpitable people, free from artifice and diſguiſe. A modern author, in his character of the Germans, ſays, "That they want ſpirit to actuate their large bodies, and heat to concoct their phlegmatic humour: that their courage appears from the many victories they have gained over the Infidels: that they are free from malice and diſſimulation, much addicted to gluttony and drunkenneſs, but not over amorous: that the common people are laborious and honeſt, but ſlow and heavy: that the merchants and tradeſmen are very fair in their dealings, hoſpitable, and complaiſant: that the nobility are men of great honour, and commonly ſcholars: that they value themſelves much upon their birth and family: that moſt of the princes being poor, their younger ſons generally engage in the ſervice of the emperor, the electors, or ſome foreign ſtate; or procure themſelves ſome of the rich eccleſiaſtical preferments, which are ſo numerous in the Roman Catholic ſtates: that the Proteſtant clergy are learned, and exemplary in their deportment; but the Popiſh ignorant and libertine; and no people have more feaſting at marriages, funerals, and birthdays: that the Germans have excellent mechanic geniuſes, &c."

The number of the inhabitants of Germany can only be determined with probability. It is, in general, populous; and, in that reſpect, has rather the ſuperiority over France; for which it would be more than a match, if it was united under one head. The inhabitants are computed at about 24 millions; and if they do not make ſo great a figure abroad as the French, they are probably more happy at home, as they have more liberty, and live in greater plenty. Few of the territories of the German princes are ſo large as to be aſſigned to viceroys, who might oppreſs and fleece the people at pleaſure; nor are they without redreſs. When they ſuffer any grievance, they may appeal to the general diet, or great councils of the empire, for relief; whereas, in France, the lives and fortunes of the ſubjects are entirely at the diſpoſal of the Grand Monarch. The ſubjects of the petty princes in Germany are generally the moſt unhappy; for theſe princes, affecting the grandeur and ſplendor of the more powerful, in the number and appearance of their officers and domeſtics, in their palaces, gardens, pictures, curioſities, guards, furniture, dreſs, muſic, &c. &c. fleece their tenants, vaſſals, and dependants, in order to ſupport all this parade. In ſome places, however, the burghers and peaſants enjoy very conſiderable privileges.

The

The principal diverſions of the Germans, in general, but more particularly thoſe of Vienna, are feaſting, dancing, fencing, gaming, and muſical entertainments; for the latter of which they preſerve an immoderate paſſion. In the winter ſeaſon, when the ground is covered with ſnow, and the waters are frozen over, the ladies take their recreation in ſledges, of various ſhapes and devices, ſuch as ſwans, ſcollop-ſhells, tigers, griffins, &c. In one of thoſe a lady ſits, richly dreſſed in velvet, laced with gold or ſilver, lined with furs, adorned with jewels, &c. A gentleman ſhews his gallantry by driving her; and the horſe that draws the ſledge is decorated with plumes of feathers, ribbons, bells, &c. When this amuſement is taken at night, a ſervant rides before the ſledge with a lighted torch in his hand. Hunting of game, bull-hunting, and boar-hunting, are favourite diverſions.

The diverſions for the common people are ſuch as ſeem hardly fit for a civilized and poliſhed nation to allow; particularly the *combats*, as they are called, or baiting of wild beaſts, which is much more ſavage and ferocious than our bull-baiting.

The moſt exact deſcription we can give of theſe diverſions, will be literally to tranſlate a hand-bill, as diſtributed through the ſtreets on Sundays and feſtivals.—It runs thus.—

"This day, by Imperial licence, in the great amphitheatre, at five o'clock, will begin the following diverſions:

"1ſt. A wild Hungarian ox, in full fire, (that is, with fire under his tail, and crackers faſtened to his ears and horns, and to other parts of his body,) will be ſet upon by dogs.

"2d. A wild boar will, in the ſame manner, be baited by dogs.

"3d. A great bear will, immediately after, be torn by dogs.

"4th. A wolf will be hunted by dogs of the fleeteſt kind.

"5th. A very furious and enraged wild bull from Hungary will be attacked by fierce and hungry dogs.

"6th. A freſh bear will be attacked by hounds.

"7th. A fierce wild boar, juſt caught, will be baited, for the firſt time, by dogs, defended with iron armour.

"8th. A beautiful African tiger.

"9th. This will be changed for a bear.

"10th. A freſh and fierce Hungarian ox.

"11th. And laſtly, a furious and hungry bear, which has had no food for eight days, will attack a young wild bull, and eat him alive upon the ſpot; and if he is unable to complete the buſineſs, a wolf will be ready to help him."

Theſe barbarous ſpectacles are uſually attended by two or three thouſand people, among whom are a great number of ladies!

SECTION IV.

Commerce, Exports, Imports, Mechaniſm, Privilege of Coining, Standard of the Coin, and Language.

THIS very extenſive country being bordered by the German Ocean, Baltic, Gulph of Venice, &c. and interſected by many navigable rivers, is admirably ſituated for commerce. The exports are corn, horſes, cattle, tobacco, butter, cheeſe, honey, ſyrup, wine, linen, woollen-ſtuffs, yarn, ribbons, ſilk and cotton ſtuffs, Nuremburg wares, goat-ſkins, wool, all ſorts of wood, particularly for ſhip-building, iron plates and ſtoves, cannon, ball, bombs, granadoes, tin plates, ſteel work, copper, braſs wire, porcelain, earthen ware, mirrors, glaſſes, beer, Brunſwic mum, tartar, ſmalt, zaffer, Pruſſian blue, hogs-briſtles, printers ink, and many other commodities. The French buy up great numbers of horſes in Germany to remount their cavalry. Towards the middle of the 13th century, ſeveral towns upon the German Ocean and the Baltic entered into a league for the ſecurity and promotion of their trade and navigation, and were therefore called Hans-Towns. Though this league hath long ſince ceaſed to operate in regard to ſeveral of theſe towns, in conſequence of the decay of their trade, yet Hamburg, Lubeck, and Bremen, are ſtill called the Hans-Towns; and a league actually ſubſiſts between them, under the name of which they conclude treaties of commerce with foreign powers. Hamburg is the chief town of trade in Germany; and next to it are Frankfort on the Maine, Nuremburg, Augſburg, Vienna, Fiume, and Trieſte; which laſt is a free port. There are great annual fairs at ſome towns in the empire, as at Frankfort on the Maine, at Leipſic, at Brunſwic, Frankfort on the Oder, Naumberg, and Mentz. A new trading company to Aſia was eſtabliſhed at Embden, by the late king of Pruſſia, in 1750. The imports of the Germans conſiſt of a great variety of articles. In particular from England they import woollen manufactures, tobacco, ſugar, ginger, Eaſt-India goods, tin, and lead: but ſeveral of the German princes having prohibited ſome particular ſorts, and others all our woollen manufactures, the balance of trade is much againſt us with Germany.

The genius of the Germans hath appeared in the invention and improvement of many mechanical arts, eſpecially clock-work. They have exceeded all the world in the contrivance of a variety of motions, to ſhew not only the courſe of the hours and minutes, but even of the ſun, moon, and ſtars; whereof the clocks at Straſburg, Prague, and many other places all over Germany, are ſufficient inſtances. The emperor Charles V. had a watch in the jewel of his ring; and in the elector of Saxony's ſtable is to be ſeen a clock in the pomel of his ſaddle.

The Germans claim the invention of the art of printing. The Dutch ſay, indeed, that Laurence Coſter, of Haarlem, found out the art by accident, and had brought it to ſome perfection, but was robbed of his materials by a ſervant, who fled with them to Germany: but the Germans alledge, that John Gottenburg, an alderman of Straſburg, firſt invented it in the year 1440, removed with it to Mentz, and printed ſeveral books, in which he made uſe of caſt letters of metal, in the ſame manner as is now uſed.

The invention of guns is alſo ſaid to be theirs, which was likewiſe produced by an accident, in this manner: one Barthold Schwartz, a friar, making chymical experiments, mixed ſome ſalt-petre and brimſtone, with other ingredients, and ſet them upon the fire in a crucible; but a ſpark getting in, the pot ſuddenly broke with great violence and noiſe; which unexpected effect ſurpriſed him at firſt; but he repeated the experiment, and finding the effect conſtant, ſet himſelf at work to improve it. To this purpoſe he cauſed an iron pipe to be made, with a ſmall hole at the lower end to fire it at, and putting in ſome of his new ingredients, together with ſome ſmall ſtones, ſet fire to it, and found it anſwered his expectation, in penetrating all before it. This happened about the year 1330, and was ſoon improved to the making of great ordnance, &c. But a celebrated writer, in his Natural Hiſtory of Oxfordſhire, is of opinion, that it was invented 100 years before, by Roger Bacon, a Franciſcan friar, who was fellow of Merton college in Oxford; and an eminent profeſſor, in his notes on that friar's epiſtle Ad Pariſienſem, is of the ſame opinion.

To theſe inventions of the Germans we may add their improvement of the art of chymiſtry; which, being brought hither by Albertus Magnus, was very much ſtudied by the Monks, and much time loſt by them, in the ſearch of the philoſopher's ſtone, and the ſtudy of the Roſicrucian philoſophy.

The emperor, electors, many princes and prelates of the empire, and of the Imperial cities, ſeveral towns, ſome of the gentry who are favoured by the emperor, and all ſuch as have gold and ſilver mines, enjoy the

the privilege of coining money as far as the quantity they yield. Some, however, have the privilege of coining only ſmall money; but others a larger ſpecies, either of ſilver or gold. But there are only three or four mints allowed in each circle, unleſs an eſtate of the empire has mines of its own, and wants to erect a mint near it. By the laws of the empire the coin of each circle ought to be examined yearly, and all the money of the empire ought to be according to one and the ſame ſtandard, which at preſent is that of Leipſic. The money of moſt nations in Europe goes here near its value. The moſt common German ſilver coin is a rix-dollar, which is worth about 4s. 6d. but in ſome places only 3s. 6d. A German florin, or guilder, is worth generally about half a crown; and a gold ducat about 9s. A crown, in ſpecie, is equal to an Engliſh crown; but a crown current only to 3s. 6d. The German coin, in general, is neither true ſterling or due weight; being more clipt, it is thought, than any other coin in Europe. This, with the great variety of money that is current here, is no ſmall diſadvantage to trade, and ſinks alſo the value of eſtates. A German mark is 1s. 6d.

The language of the Germans is High Dutch, of which there are ſo many dialects, that the people of one province ſcarce underſtand thoſe of another. Latin and French are the moſt uſeful languages for a foreigner travelling in Germany, every ſervant almoſt in their inns underſtanding ſomething either of the one or other of them. High and Low Dutch are diſagreeable and harſh to the ear; and both are but dialects of the Old Teutonic.

SECTION V.

Religion, Learning, and Political Government of Germany.

THE inhabitants of the empire are pretty equally divided between Roman Catholics and Proteſtants, the latter being of two claſſes, viz. Lutherans and Calviniſts. In the dark ages the popes got into their hands almoſt the whole management of every thing relating to the church and eccleſiaſtics, both ſecular and regular: nay, they even claimed a power not only to controul, but to depoſe princes, to abſolve their ſubjects from their allegiance, and diſpoſe of their dominions as they thought fit. The tyranny and uſurpations of the popes, and the monſtrous corruptions and abuſes that had crept, or been introduced, from worldly views of power and grandeur, into the ancient doctrine and diſcipline of the church, cauſed all, that were capable of any reflection among the laity, and every honeſt man among the clergy, earneſtly to wiſh for a reformation, which was at laſt boldly attempted by a native of this country, Dr. Martin Luther, in the 16th century. The ſtates of the empire, that embraced the reformation, from their proteſting, in 1529, againſt the concluſion of the diet at Spire, by which all innovations in religion, till the decree of a future council could be obtained, were declared unlawful, obtained the name of Proteſtants. A religious war ſoon after broke out, which was extinguiſhed, in ſome meaſure, in 1552, by the peace of Paſſaw, and more compleatly by that ratified at Augſburg in 1555, by which a full toleration and liberty was granted to the Proteſtants. This was farther confirmed and explained by the treaty of Weſtphalia, in 1648. By virtue of theſe conventions, no other religion but the Roman Catholic, Lutheran, and Reformed, was to be introduced into, or tolerated in the holy Roman empire. Some other ſects, notwithſtanding, in ſome places, actually enjoy the free exerciſe of their religion. Such of the above perſuaſions as exiſted in any ſtate in the year 1624, are ſtill to be allowed; but it lies in the breaſt of the reſpective ſovereigns, whether they will tolerate any that had neither public or private exerciſe in the country in the year abovementioned. The power of the Proteſtant ſtates over their Catholic ſubjects, in regard to religion, is the ſame as that which the Catholic ſtates have over their Proteſtant ſubjects. Each party is obliged to allow the other the free exerciſe of their religion in their dominions, provided they were in poſſeſſion of it in the year 1624. In the Roman Catholic countries here, as well as elſewhere, the clergy are, in a great meaſure, independent of the civil power; but in the Proteſtant ſtates the ſupremacy is veſted in the ſovereign. The Proteſtant, or evangelic body, have mutually agreed, that whenever, for the future, a Lutheran lord of a county ſhall turn to the reformed church, or obtain a county of that perſuaſion, or *vice verſa*, that in that caſe he ſhall leave his ſubjects the free exerciſe of their religion, with their whole form of church and ſchool-diſcipline, and all other privileges whatſoever.

With reſpect to the learning of the Germans, there is no where a more general taſte for reading, eſpecially in the Proteſtant counties, nor are more books any where written and printed, than among the Germans. No people apply themſelves more cloſely to their ſtudies; and the Hebrew is in no country ſo generally learnt, or better underſtood. Printing is highly encouraged. Every man of letters is an author. They multiply books without number. Great numbers of theſiſes and diſputations are annually publiſhed; for no man can be a graduate in their univerſities, who has not produced at leaſt one controverſial publication.

Soon after the diſſolution of the weſtern empire, the Franks ſubdued all Germany and Gaul, which were, about the year 800, erected into an empire by Charlemagne: but 80 years afterwards the French race were diſcarded, and a new emperor from among the Germans elected. The race of the houſe of Auſtria began with Rodolph of Hapſburg, who was elected emperor in the year 1273. Charles IV. at the diet of Nuremburg, in 1356, formed the wholeſome regulations for the election of an emperor, which are to this day known and obſerved, under the name of the Golden Bull. In the year 1448 the celebrated Concordat, between the emperor Frederick III. and certain ſpiritual and temporal eſtates of the empire, and Pope Nicholas V. were ſettled. This emperor was duke of Auſtria; and his poſterity, notwithſtanding the empire is elective, have had the addreſs to continue it in their family for 300 years, namely, to the year 1740, when they loſt it only for want of an heir male in the family; but the Auſtrian family are now again in poſſeſſion of it. In the reign of the emperor Frederick III. the court, now called the Chamber of Wetzlar, was eſtabliſhed, and the empire was divided into 10 circles. His ſucceſſor, Charles V. firſt ſwore to a capitulation. In his time Mexico and Peru were conquered, whereby he became poſſeſſed of much larger territories, and more riches, than any prince before him ever enjoyed. His brother Ferdinand eſtabliſhed the Aulic Council. It was inſerted, for the firſt time, in the capitulation of the emperor Matthias, grandſon of Ferdinand, that the electors, for the future, ſhould be entitled to elect a king of the Romans, with or without the conſent of the emperor. In the reign of Ferdinand III. an end was put to the religious wars that began in the reign of Charles V. in conſequence of the reformation, by the treaty of Weſtphalia. In the reign of his ſon Leopold, the diet of the empire was opened at Ratiſbon, in the year 1663, where it ſtill continues; and the Imperial chamber of juſtice was removed from Spire to Wetzlar. This emperor conferred on Erneſt-Auguſtus, of Brunſwic Lunenburg, the ninth electoral dignity.

The empire of Germany is elective; and the laws of the empire do not require that the emperor ſhould be of any particular age, nation, or religion; but as the Popiſh are more in number than the Proteſtant electors, a Roman Catholic is always elected to the Imperial dignity. The emperors uſed formerly to be crowned by the popes, till the reign of Charles V. but from that time the papal coronation has been diſpenſed with. However, immediately upon his entering upon the

the government, he teſtifies his veneration to the pope by an embaſſy. The title of the emperor runs thus: "N. by the grace of God, elected Roman emperor; at all times augmenter of the empire in, or of, Germany, king." Then follow the titles of the hereditary Imperial dominions. The ſtates of the empire give the emperor the title of Moſt Illuſtrious, Moſt Powerful, and Moſt Invincible Roman emperor; the laſt of which is omitted by the electors. The emperor is looked upon, by all other crowned heads and ſtates in Europe, as the firſt European potentate, and as ſuch precedence is given him and his ambaſſadors. He is the ſupreme head of the German empire; but his power in the adminiſtration thereof is very limited. With reſpect to eccleſiaſtical matters, his prerogative conſiſts principally in the right of the firſt petition, by virtue of which, in all foundations and cloiſters of the empire, he may, once during his adminiſtration, confer a benefice on any perſon qualified for it by the ſtatutes; and on that of a panis brief to each foundation or cloiſter in the empire, by virtue of which, ſuch foundation is obliged to admit into it the perſon who has obtained the emperor's brief, and there provide him, during life, with all neceſſaries. With reſpect to temporal matters, he can create princes, dukes, marquiſſes, counts, barons, knights, &c. raiſe countries and territories to a higher rank; beſtow arms; and grant letters of reſpite and protection, ſecuring a debtor againſt his creditor; eſtabliſh univerſities, fares, and markets; empower any perſon to adopt another, and to aſſume a title from his eſtate; erect any place into a ſanctuary; confer majority on minors; legitimate children born out of wedlock; confirm the contracts and ſtipulations of the members of the empire; remit oaths extorted from them; inveſt ſuch as poſſeſs fiefs of the empire, and decide in feudal matters relative thereto, &c. but he cannot grant to any perſon privileges for printing particular books, for new invented machines, &c. He appoints moſt of the officers, civil and military, of the empire, except ſuch as are hereditary, as the great chancellor, treaſurer, &c. but theſe are only honorary. In ancient times the emperor had conſiderable domains in the empire; but almoſt all theſe have been ſucceſſively mortgaged and alienated, ſo that at preſent the certain revenues of the emperor cannot be aſcertained; but as he has the diſpoſal of moſt offices, the creation of princes and noblemen, is entitled to all confiſcations and forfeitures, and inveſts the ſeveral princes in their eſtates, beſides thoſe that hold fiefs of the empire in Italy, the profits of theſe articles muſt amount to a large ſum. He has alſo ſome offerings from the Jews, and the free-gifts of the order of knights of the empire. A ſucceſſor to the empire is frequently choſen by the electors during the life of the emperor, who is ſtiled king of the Romans. He is elected and crowned in the ſame manner as the emperor, has the title of majeſty, and takes precedence of all other kings in Chriſtendom.

The diet of the empire conſiſts of the emperor, nine electors, compoſed of eccleſiaſtical and ſecular princes, and deputies of Imperial cities.

The electors are divided into ſpiritual and temporal. The ſpiritual electors are the archbiſhops of Triers, Cologne, and Mentz. The temporal electors are thoſe of Bavaria, Hanover, Saxony, Brandenburg, Bohemia, and the elector Palatine. The elector of Mentz is arch-chancellor of the holy Roman empire in Germany, and director of the electoral college.

The elector of Treves is arch-chancellor of the holy Roman empire in France.

The elector of Cologne is arch-chancellor of the holy Roman empire in Italy

The king and elector of Bohemia, is arch-cup-bearer of the holy Roman empire, and precedes all the other electors.

The elector of Bavaria is arch-ſewer of the holy Roman empire, the elector of Saxony is arch-marſhal, and the elector of Brandenburg is arch-chamberlain.

The elector Palatine was originally arch-ſewer; and ſince the treaty of Weſtphalia arch-treaſurer. But when the elector of Bavaria, was put under the ban of the empire in the year 1706, the elector Palatine recovered the office of arch-ſewer, and the elector of Hanover obtained the office of arch-treaſurer, by which he ſtill ſtiles himſelf, till another ſuitable arch office can be conferred upon him. Next to the electors are the princes of the empire, who are partly ſpiritual, and partly temporal. The ſpiritual are archbiſhops, biſhops, abbots, provoſts, abbeſſes, the maſters of the Teutonic order of St. John, &c.

Not only all thoſe princes who have ſeats and voices in the diet, but many others, are veſted with great powers in the reſpective territories; but they are ſtill ſubject to the general laws of the empire, and ſworn not to engage in any wars or alliances to the prejudice of the emperor. The Franks, in imitation of the Romans, reduced all Germany into provinces, over which they placed governors with different titles. They were generally of noble families; and, if there was no material objection againſt it, their ſons were appointed to ſucceed them; from whence theſe governors came at length to inſiſt on a right of ſucceeding their anceſtors, and refuſed to pay homage to the German emperors, every one taking upon him to exerciſe legal power in his province; from whence have ſprung up ſo many petty ſovereigns in the empire. The third college of the diet is that of the free or imperial cities, i. e. ſuch as are governed by magiſtrates of their own, and ſtands immediately under the emperor and empire. Some of theſe are wholly Catholic, others entirely Lutheran, and others again of a mixed religion. Within their territory they exerciſe ſupreme power, and are divided into two benches, the Rheniſh and Swabian. As the princes of the empire took advantage of the neceſſities or indulgence of the German emperors, to erect the governments they held, in capacity of vicerovs or governors, into independent principalities and ſtates, ſo did the cities now called free and imperial. The emperors, frequently wanting ſupplies of money to carry on wars, or for other occaſions, borrowed large ſums of the wealthy trading towns, and paid them again in munificent grants and privileges, making them free ſtates, and independent of the governors of the provinces where they ſtood. Accordingly, theſe cities, like the princes, exerciſe all kinds of ſovereign power that are conſiſtent with the general laws of the empire. They make laws, conſtitute courts of juſtice, coin money, raiſe forces, and enter into alliances and confederacies; only acknowledging the emperor for their ſupreme lord, and contributing their ſhare towards the common defence of the empire. The diet meets at Ratiſbon on the emperor's ſummons; and any of the princes may ſend their deputies thither in their ſtead. The diet makes laws, raiſes taxes, determines differences between the ſeveral princes and ſtates, and can relieve ſubjects from the oppreſſions of their ſovereign. There are two ſupreme councils, called the Aulic Council, and the Chamber of Wetzler. It was ſettled by the emperor Charles V. that every circle, and every prince and member of each circle, ſhould contribute towards the ordinary and extraordinary taxes of the empire. This contribution was entered into a book called a matriculation book, which is kept by the elector of Mentz. By the matricula twelve florins were to be paid monthly in lieu of every horſeman, and four for every foot ſoldier. Afterwards it was enacted that 60 florins ſhould be advanced in lieu of every trooper, and 12 for every foot ſoldier.

SECTION VI.

HISTORY of GERMANY.

THE ancient Germans were a brave, independent people, and peculiarly diſtinguiſhed by their love of liberty and arms. They oppoſed the force of the

Roman empire at the height of its grandeur. The country was divided into a number of principalities, independent of each other; though, occaſionally, connected by a military union, for defending themſelves againſt ſuch enemies as threatened the liberty of them all. At length, however, the Roman power prevailed over a great part of Germany, and it was reduced to the condition of a province. When the northern barbarians broke through the Roman barrier, Germany was overrun by the Franks about the year 480, and a conſiderable part of it long remained in ſubjection to the chief of that nation. In this ſituation it continued from the abovementioned period to the year 800, when Charlemagne, or Charles the Great of France, was advanced to the Imperial throne on Chriſtmas-day. He was the ſon of king Pepin, and ſucceeded him in the kingdom of France in the year 768, when Deſiderius, king of Lombardy, poſſeſſed that throne, who, having inſulted the pope and clergy of Rome, and compelled them to part with a great deal of that power they had uſurped, Charles invaded Lombardy, defeated and depoſed Deſiderius; and going afterwards to Rome, the pope, who looked upon him as his deliverer, declared him a patrician, a title equal almoſt to that of emperor; inveſting him with authority to confirm future popes, and grant the Italian biſhops the inveſtitures of their ſees; after which the pope ſwore allegiance to him upon St. Peter's tomb. Charles, in return, gave the pope a power of conſtituting exarchs, or governors over the provinces of Ancona, Bologna, Mantua, Modena, Parma, Ferrara, &c.

King Charles afterwards made a conqueſt of part of Spain, of the north of Germany, then denominated Saxony; and pope Adrian dying, Leo III. being elected pope, was confirmed in the chair by Charles the Great, as patrician of Rome; and, on Chriſtmas-day, 800, (as before obſerved,) the pope and ſenate of Rome conferred the title of Roman emperor on king Charles, and crowned him in the church of St. Peter, the people ſaluting him emperor at the ſame time.

Statues of the emperor were ſet up in moſt of the public places in Rome; but he choſe, however, to reſide in Germany, and left the pope, in a manner, governor of Italy; of which the emperor had the title of king, as well as that of Roman emperor. He enjoyed theſe honours 14 years, dying anno 814, at Aix-la-Chapelle, and was buried there in a church he had founded having deſigned to make that city the capital of his empire.

He was ſucceeded by his ſon Lodowic, or Lewis, king of Aquitain, ſurnamed the Godly, who ordered the Bible to be tranſlated into the Saxon language, and to be diſperſed among the common people. He was an unfortunate prince, all his three ſons rebelling againſt him; and having taken him priſoner, ſhut him up in a monaſtery, from whence his ſubjects reſcued him; but while he was upon the march againſt Lotharius, the eldeſt, he died; and Lotharius ſucceeded him, who, after he had reigned 15 years, abdicated his throne, and reſided in a monaſtery till he died, and was ſucceeded by his ſon Lodowic, or Lewis II. It was in this reign that the court of Rome firſt aſſumed the power of electing the pope without the leave or concurrence of the ſovereign. Adrian II. was the firſt that was choſen without the emperor's licence.

In the reign of Lewis III. called the Groſs, from his corpulency, the Normans invading France, and penetrating as far as Paris, which they beſieged, they compelled him to confirm the duchy of Normandy to them, which they had poſſeſſed themſelves of; and having done ſome other unpopular acts, he was depoſed by his ſubjects, who placed Arnolph upon the throne, the natural ſon of the duke of Bavaria; ſo that the empire can no longer be eſteemed hereditary in the line of Charlemagne, who was the founder of it. Arnolph being oppoſed by Guido and Berengarius, to whom the city of Rome adhered, he defeated them, and took Rome by ſtorm. Lewis IV. the ſon of Arnolph, ſucceeded him: but the pope ſetting up another Lewis againſt him in Italy, created him a great deal of diſturbance in his reign. However, his ſon Henry ſucceeded, by his own appointment in his laſt will.

Conrade, duke of Franconia, was next advanced to the Imperial throne by the German nobility. He oppoſed the encroachments of the pope, defended the empire againſt the invaſions of the Hungarians, died after a proſperous reign of 17 years, and was ſucceeded by his ſon Otho, who obliged the king of Denmark to acknowledge his dependence on the empire, and admit Chriſtianity into his kingdom. He ſubdued the king of Bohemia alſo, and planted Chriſtianity in that kingdom. On the other hand, he depoſed pope John XII. advanced Leo VIII. to the papal chair, and decreed that future popes ſhould be appointed only by the emperor.

Otho III. according to ſome writers, firſt reduced the number of electors to ſeven. He reigned 18 years, when he was poiſoned by a pair of gloves, his concubine gave him for refuſing to marry her, as he had promiſed. Henry, duke of Bavaria, who was choſen emperor by the electors, anno 1002, defeated the Saracens in Italy, and drove them out of Apulia and Calabria.

Henry III. defended the empire againſt the Bohemians and Hungarians; after which he went into Italy to pacify the diſturbances at Rome, occaſioned by the ſetting up three popes at once. He depoſed them all, and advanced Clement II. to the papal chair, reviving the decree, "That every pope ſhould be appointed by the emperor."

Henry V. on the other hand, was compelled by the pope to acknowledge his ſupremacy, and renounce his right to the inveſtiture of biſhoprics.

Frederic Barbaroſſa was ſo diſtreſſed by the pope, that he ſubmitted to let his holineſs tread upon his neck.

Frederick II. was excommunicated by three popes; but at length depoſed Gregory IV. and during theſe conteſts between the popes and emperors, aroſe thoſe two famous factions of Guelphs and Gibellines, under the one or the other of which all the princes of Europe were engaged; the firſt adhering to the popes, and the other to the emperor.

After the death of Frederic there was an inter-regnum of 20 years, ſix great princes contending for the empire; among whom was Richard, earl of Cornwall, brother to Henry III. King of England; and Rodolph, earl of Hapſburg, who, at length, obtained the Imperial dignity, by the conſent of all the electors, and was confirmed by the pope. He firſt occaſioned the advancement of the Auſtrian family, by creating his ſon Albert archduke of Auſtria, who ſucceeded to the empire after Rodolph, but was depoſed, it is ſaid, for ſubmitting to ſerve with his troops, as mercenaries, under Edward I. king of England, againſt France.

Albert, ſon of Rodolph being crowned emperor, and confirmed by the pope, made his ſon king of Bohemia.

Henry, earl of Luxemburg, was next elected, but poiſoned by a monk.

Charles IV. in 1347, firſt inſtituted the Golden Bull, containing the rites and ceremonies to be obſerved at the election of an emperor.

Sigiſmond, king of Hungary and Bohemia, was unanimouſly elected emperor; in whoſe reign John Huſs, and Jerome of Prague, diſputing the pope's authority, and being ſummoned to appear at the Council of Conſtance, were burnt for heretics there, notwithſtanding they had the emperor's ſafe conduct for their return.

Frederick IV. duke of Auſtria, being unanimouſly elected, married Leonora, daughter of Alphonſo, king of Portugal. He reigned 53 years, being longer than any emperor had reigned before him.

Maximilian, his ſon, ſucceeded him, having been elected king of the Romans anno 1489; and married Mary,

Mary the daughter and heireſs of Charles, duke of Burgundy, whereby he became entitled to all the dominions of that houſe.

Charles V. his grandſon, was elected emperor anno 1519, after an inter-regnum of ſix months, having been oppoſed by Francis I. king of France, his competitor. He cauſed Luther's doctrine to be condemned by the diet of the empire, which the Lutherans proteſting againſt, obtained the denomination of Proteſtants. This prince was victorious in more than 30 battles in perſon. The pope and French king were his priſoners at the ſame time. He ſubdued the Proteſtant princes, who had formed the Smalcaldic league againſt him, took the elector of Saxony and the prince of Heſſe priſoners, defeated the Turks, and raiſed the ſiege of Vienna: and in his reign great part of South America was ſubdued. He was ſovereign of the Philippine Iſlands in Aſia, of part of the coaſt of Barbary in Africa, of Spain, Germany, and the greateſt part of Italy and the Netherlands; and after a reign of 38 years, reſigned the empire, and his hereditary dominions on the ſide of Germany, to his brother Ferdinand; and Spain, Italy, the Netherlands, America, the Philippines, and the reſt of his territories belonging to the crown of Spain, to his ſon Philip II. after which he retired into a convent in Spain, where he died about two years after.

Ferdinand I. was unanimouſly elected emperor on the reſignation of his brother Charles. He reigned in peace till his death, which happened in the year 1564.

His ſon Maximilian ſucceeded him. Both theſe laſt emperors were remarkable for their indulgence to the Proteſtants.

Rodolph ſucceeded his father Maximilian, and was a very learned prince.

He was ſucceeded in the empire by Matthias, under whom the reformers, called Lutherans and Calviniſts, were ſo much divided among themſelves, as to threaten the empire with a civil war. Matthias dying in 1618, was ſucceeded by his couſin Ferdinand II. but the Bohemians offered their crown to Frederick, the elector Palatine, the moſt powerful Proteſtant prince in Germany, and ſon-in-law to his Britannic majeſty, James I. This prince was ſo incautious as to accept the crown; but he loſt it, being entirely defeated by the duke of Bavaria, and the Imperial generals, at the battle of Prague; and he was alſo deprived of his own electorate. Ferdinand made ſuch uſe of his advantages obtained over the Proteſtants, that they formed a freſh confederacy at Leipſic, of which the celebrated Guſtavus Adolphus was at the head. Ferdinand II. died in 1637, and was ſucceeded by his ſon Ferdinand III. who died in 1657, and was ſucceeded by the emperor Leopold, a rigid and not very fortunate prince. He had two great powers to contend with, France on the one ſide, and the Turks on the other, and was a loſer in his war with both. France took from him Alſace; and the Turks would have taken Vienna, had not the ſiege been raiſed by John Sobieſki, king of Poland. Prince Eugene, of Savoy, was a young adventurer in arms about the year 1697, and being one of the Imperial generals, gave the Turks the firſt check in Hungary; and, by the peace of Carlowitz, Tranſylvania was ceded to the emperor. Leopold, however, could not have withſtood the power of France, had not the prince of Orange, afterwards king William III. of England, laid the foundation of the grand confederacy againſt the French power, which overturned all their machinations. The Hungarians, ſecretly encouraged by the French, and exaſperated by the tyranny of Leopold, were ſtill in arms under the protection of the Turks, when that prince died in 1705.

This emperor being very ill ſerved by prince Lewis of Baden, the general of the empire, the French partly recovered their affairs, notwithſtanding their repeated defeats. The duke of Marlborough, though he obtained very ſplendid victories, had not all the ſucceſs he expected, or deſerved. Joſeph himſelf was ſuſpected of a deſign to ſubvert the liberties of Germany; and it was evident from his conduct, that he expected the Engliſh ſhould take the labouring oar in the war which was carried on chiefly on his account. He died of the ſmall-pox in 1711, before he had reduced the Hungarians, and was ſucceeded by Charles, king of Spain, who leaving that kingdom, and arriving at Frankfort, was elected on the 12th of October, 1711.

When the peace of Utrecht took place in 1713, Charles at firſt indicated a deſign to continue the war; but ſoon finding himſelf unable, now he was forſaken by the Engliſh, concluded a peace with France at Baden, in 1714, that he might attend the progreſs of the Turks in Hungary, where they received a total defeat from prince Eugene, at the battle of Peterwaraden. They received another of equal importance from the ſame general, in 1717, before Belgrade, which fell into the hands of the Imperialiſts; and next year the peace of Paſſarowitz, between them and the Turks, was concluded.

The emperor being now at peace both with Chriſtians and Turks, prevailed on the ſtates of the kingdom of Hungary to paſs an act for ſettling the ſucceſſion of that crown upon his female iſſue, according to their ſeniority, which was done on the 22d of June, 1722. This is what has frequently been termed in the German hiſtory the "Pragmatic Sanction," and has given riſe to ſeveral diſputes and contentions. His next care was to promote the trade of his ſubjects. He incorporated a company of merchants, therefore, at Oſtend, to trade to the Eaſt and Weſt Indies, and Africa, which the Dutch pretended to be much alarmed at, and preſented ſeveral memorials to the emperor on this ſubject, declaring it to be a breach of the treaty of Munſter, and other treaties for the inhabitants of the Spaniſh Netherlands (now Auſtrian) to trade to the Eaſt-Indies; charging the emperor with ingratitude in encroaching on their trade, when they had, at a vaſt expence, conquered ſo many conſiderable countries for him in the late war, with which the emperor was rather provoked than moved to alter his conduct, ſeveral ſhips being fitted out by the Oſtenders for the Eaſt-India trade.

There having been a congreſs at Cambray to compoſe the remaining differences between the princes of Europe, the emperor and Spain, wearied with the delays of the French, who took upon them the office of mediators and ſeemed to take a pride in carrying the miniſters of the contending powers from place to place, as that court removed, thought fit to accommodate matters themſelves, without communicating the terms to any foreign power. By this treaty, ſigned on the 30th of April, 1725, the emperor acknowledged Philip, duke of Anjou, king of all the Spaniſh dominions in his poſſeſſion, confirmed Sardinia to the duke of Savoy, and ceded the reverſion of the duchies of Tuſcany, Parma, and Placentia, to Don Carlos, prince of Spain, after the death of the reigning princes; but it was expreſsly provided, that no forces ſhould be ſent thither during the lives of the reigning princes.

King Philip, on the other hand, ceded to his ſon, Don Carlos, his territories on the coaſt of Tuſcany; and agreed that none of the Italian dominions ſhould ever be poſſeſſed by any prince who ſhould ſucceed to the crown of Spain: and king Philip renounced, in favour of his Imperial majeſty, all rights and pretenſions to the Spaniſh dominions in Italy, Sicily, Flanders, or elſewhere, in the poſſeſſion of his Imperial majeſty; and both Charles and Philip were to ſtile themſelves kings of Spain during their reſpective lives. This was called the Vienna Treaty. A treaty of commerce alſo was concluded between the ſame parties, May 1, 1725, in which Spain agreed that the emperor's ſubjects ſhould enjoy the ſame privileges in Spain as the moſt favoured nations, and particularly that they might diſpoſe of the Eaſt-India merchandize, which ſhould be brought over by the Oſtend Eaſt-India company, in Spain. The emperor alſo entered into alliances, of-

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ſenſive and defenſive, with Ruſſia and Poland, and other powers were invited to accede to it. The emperor alſo declared Trieſte, on the gulph of Venice, a free port.

The maritime powers, eſpecially the Dutch, apprehending there were ſome ſecret articles in the Vienna treaty, that would be prejudicial to their commerce in other parts of the world, as well as in the Eaſt-Indies, concluded a treaty with France and Pruſſia, September 3, 1725, whereby they guaranteed each others dominions, and their reſpective rights and privileges in trade, and agreed, that if any encroachments were made upon them, they would aſſiſt each other with their forces, to obtain ſatisfaction of the parties to the Vienna treaty; and this alliance being concluded at Hanover, obtained the name of the Hanover treaty. The kings of Great Britain and Pruſſia further agreed, that in caſe of an offenſive war, they would not furniſh their complement of troops to the empire againſt France; and if they ſhould be compelled to it, they would furniſh as many forces to aſſiſt France, as their complement amounted to.

The court of Vienna being acquainted with this treaty, made many ſevere reflections upon it; and it was reported, at the ſame court, that the Britiſh ambaſſador, at Conſtantinople, endeavoured to excite the Turks to invade the empire. To diſcover the truth whereof, orders were ſent to all the Imperial generals and officers on the frontiers of Turkey, to let nobody paſs without giving notice thereof to the court of Vienna; and a Britiſh courier being ſtopped in purſuance of thoſe orders, king George complained of it as a breach of the law of nations; though the courier was releaſed on diſcovering the badge of an Engliſh meſſenger, and delivering a letter from the Imperial reſident at the Porte, by whom he was ſo ſtiled; and the Imperialiſts inſiſted that they had much more reaſon to complain that ſuch negociations were carrying on to diſturb their peace, than the king of Great Britain had for apprehending his meſſenger.

Whatever truth there might be in theſe ſuggeſtions, the Germans were ſo much out of temper with the court of Great Britain at this time, that an Imperial edict paſſed, to prohibit the importation of Engliſh manufactures, or Eaſt-India goods, from England; and the Spaniards, who were now become the allies of Vienna, about the ſame time laid ſiege to Gibraltar, to which they were provoked by the court of Great Britain's ſending a ſquadron of men of war, under the command of admiral Hoſier, to block up Porto-Bello, and prevent the Spaniſh galleons coming to Europe. However, a treaty of pacification being ſet on foot between the allies of Vienna, and thoſe of Hanover, the following year, it was agreed, that the ſiege of Gibraltar ſhould be raiſed, the Oſtend trade to India ſhould be ſuſpended, and the Britiſh ſquadrons be withdrawn from Porto-Bello, and the coaſts of Old Spain; which treaty was ſigned the 31ſt of May, 1727.

By a ſubſequent treaty, made at Seville, anno 1728, between Great Britain and Spain, the former agreed to aſſiſt in tranſporting 6000 Spaniards to Tuſcany, to ſecure the eventual ſucceſſion of Don Carlos to that ducy and Parma; to which treaty both the French and Dutch acceded.

The article for introducing Spaniſh forces into Italy, during the lives of the duke of Tuſcany and Parma, alarming the emperor, he proteſted againſt it, and ordered a great body of his forces to march into Italy in the year 1729, to prevent its being put in execution, which occaſioned the tranſportation of thoſe forces to be put off for the preſent; but Sir Charles Wager, with a Britiſh ſquadron, joining the Spaniſh fleet, anno 1731, convoyed 6000 Spaniſh forces to Leghorn, compelling the then reigning duke, and the emperor, to ſubmit to that article: though the emperor repreſented, that the introducing theſe Spaniſh forces would endanger the loſs of all his Italian dominions. However, both the Engliſh and Dutch guaranteeing the poſſeſſion of all his Italian dominions to him, he acquieſced in what he could not well avoid: nor was he much miſtaken in his conjectures, for the French, under pretence that the emperor had aſſiſted in advancing the elector of Saxony to the throne of Poland, to the prejudice of king Staniſlaus, his father-in-law, entered into a confederacy with the kings of Spain and Sardinia, and at once invaded both his Italian and German dominions. They made themſelves maſters of fort Kheil, oppoſite to Straſburg, and beſieged Philipſburg, before which town the duke of Berwick, general of the French, was killed in the trenches. However, the Auſtrians not being able to relieve it, the place ſurrendered.

The armies of the Spaniards, and their allies, met with ſtill greater ſucceſs in Italy; for the maritime powers, who had guaranteed the emperor's hereditary dominions in Italy to him, refuſing to ſend him any aſſiſtance, his forces were driven out of Naples, Sicily, the Milaneſe, and all the reſt of his Italian dominions, except the city of Mantua; whereupon he formed a peace with the allies on the beſt terms he could.

The Britiſh court were much reflected on, for ſuffering the emperor's territories in Italy to be thus torn from him, which they had guaranteed; but the Dutch, who had done the ſame, conſenting to a neutrality in Flanders, it would have been highly impolitic, after that, for the Engliſh to have taken the whole burthen of that war upon themſelves. Theſe terms were agreed on by way of preliminaries, in the year 1735; and, in the year 1737, the emperor found himſelf obliged to engage in another war againſt the Turks, in which the Ruſſians bore a conſiderable part and were ſucceſsful, for ſome time, on their ſide. The Imperialiſts alſo, commanded by count Seckendorf, took the city of Niſſa, in Servia; but this was ſoon retaken by the Turks; and afterwards Media and Orſovo; which the court of Vienna aſcribing to the ill-conduct or cowardice of their generals and officers, count Seckendorf was impriſoned, the governor of Niſſa, general Donat, loſt his head, and the duke of Lorrain took upon him the command of the Imperial army; but ſoon after returned to court, being taken ill of a fever.

The year following the Turks inveſted Belgrade; and the emperor at this time, entertained ſuch a confidence in the friendſhip of the grand monarch, that he truſted him to negociate a peace for him with the grand ſeignior; by which treaty it was agreed, that the emperor ſhould yield up all Servia, with the capital city of Belgrade, to the Turks, the fortifications being firſt demoliſhed; and the Save and the Danube made the boundary of the Auſtrian dominions on the ſouth; the river Alauta, and the Iron-Gate mountains on the eaſt; and the river Unna, in Boſnia, on the weſt.

Soon after the demiſe of the emperor Charles VI. in 1740, the king of Pruſſia, with a powerful army, entered and conquered Sileſia, which he alledged had been wrongfully diſmembered from his family. The king of Spain, and the elector of Bavaria, preferred their reſpective claims to that country, and in this they were joined by France, though directly incompatible with a former agreement.

After a conſiderable time had elapſed, the Imperial throne was filled up by the elector of Bavaria, who aſſumed the title of Charles VII. in January, 1742. The French poured their armies into Bohemia, where they took Prague; and the queen of Hungary, from politic views, ceded to the Pruſſian monarch the moſt valuable part of the duchy of Sileſia by a formal treaty. Embarraſſed on all ſides, the unfortunate queen, as the laſt reſource, threw herſelf into the arms of the Hungarians, who though not well affected to the houſe of Auſtria, declared unanimouſly in her favour. Succeſs crowned her arms; the French were driven out of Bohemia; and his Britannic majeſty, George II. at the head of an Engliſh and Hanoverian army, gained the battle of Dettingen in 1743.

The emperor was at this time ſo circumſtanced, through the loſſes he had ſuſtained in divers encounters, that

that he was diſpoſed to an accommodation with the queen of Hungary almoſt upon her own terms: but ſhe would not liſten to any propoſals, though conſonant to the advice and opinion of his Britannic majeſty, her only faithful ally. This perverſe conduct in the queen afforded the king of Pruſſia a pretence for invading Bohemia, upon the principle of ſupporting the Imperial dignity; but his efforts not being attended with the ſucceſs expected, he abandoned ſome parts of the kingdom which he had taken, and retired to Sileſia. Soon after this the emperor Charles VII. paid the debt of nature, in the year 1745; and the duke of Lorrain, then grand-duke of Tuſcany, conſort to her Hungarian majeſty, after ſurmounting ſome difficulties, aſcended the Imperial throne, according to the uſual mode of election, under the title of Francis I.

The deſigns of the empreſs-queen againſt the king of Pruſſia were fruſtrated by the ill-ſucceſs of the allied army, and particularly the loſs of the battle of Fontenoy. A ſeries of events followed reſpecting the operations of the contending powers of Europe; and it may be ſaid, upon a review of the whole, that the war continued in the Low countries with various fortune, though chiefly to the diſadvantage of the Auſtrians and Dutch, till terminated by the treaty ſigned at Aix-la-Chapelle, in April, 1748. By this treaty the king of Pruſſia once more obtained poſſeſſion of Sileſia.

In the year 1756 a freſh war was kindled in the empire. The king of Pruſſia, ſuſpecting a deſign formed between the empreſs-queen, the empreſs of Ruſſia, and the king of Poland, as elector of Saxony, unnaturally abetted by France, to ſtrip him of his dominions, the former monarch, in conſequence, declared againſt the admiſſion of the Ruſſians into Germany, as did his Britannic majeſty againſt that of the French. Upon this principle an entire reconciliation was effected between thoſe monarchs, who proſecuted, in conjunction, a war more furious than ever. The Pruſſian hero atchieved prodigies of valour, though ſometimes moſt vigorouſly preſſed by the enemy. Many capital encounters took place in Germany, between the French, who were driven out of Hanover, and the Engliſh, or their allies. The atchievements were valiant, but not of great importance, becauſe they were not deciſive, though attended with great loſs of blood and treaſure to Great Britain. The king of Pruſſia, notwithſtanding his great military ſkill and unparallelled fortitude, was, at length, nearly overpowered by the Ruſſians, who had taken Berlin, and were receiving daily ſuch reinforcements as threatened the completion of his ruin, when the empreſs of Ruſſia, his moſt formidable enemy, paid the debt of nature, the 5th of January, 1762.

George II. having reſigned his life and crown on the 25th of October, 1760, the miniſtry of his ſucceſſor, George III. were diſpoſed to put an end to the war; and the new emperor of Ruſſia recalled his armies. Matters were at length finally ſettled by the treaty of Hubertſburg, in 1763, by which the poſſeſſion of Sileſia was again ſecured to the king of Pruſſia.

On the demiſe of the emperor Francis I. in 1765, his ſon Joſeph ſucceeded to the Imperial throne. He evinced, ſoon after his acceſſion, great talents for government, and joined in the diſmemberment of Poland with Ruſſia and Pruſſia. Hoſtilities afterwards commenced between Auſtria and Pruſſia, on account of the ſucceſſion to the electorate of Bavaria. Great armaments were brought into the field, but nothing of importance was done, as an accommodation took place.

The emperor then turned his thoughts to the promotion of the happineſs of his ſubjects; in order to effect which he granted a moſt liberal religious toleration; and aboliſhed, by edict, in 1783, the remains of ſervitude and villanage, as alſo the uſe of torture, as well as removed many grievances under which the common people laboured. He is a lover of literature, a patronizer of learned men, and appears to poſſeſs a ſoul worthy of his very elevated ſtation.

As the flames of war are unhappily broke out between the Turks, Ruſſians and Imperialiſts, and as there is cauſe to apprehend, from the great hoſtile preparations, a bloody campaign will follow, the reader will be preſented, at the cloſe of this work, by way of ſupplement, with a detail of every important event that may take place concerning it, as they will alſo with every material incident that may occur, with reſpect to political affairs, in other parts of the world; ſo that in conformity to our plan, we ſhall not only preſent the public with a Complete Syſtem of Geography, but alſo a conciſe Hiſtory of the moſt diſtinguiſhed kingdoms in the known world, to the lateſt period of our work.

CHAP. X.

BOHEMIA.

THIS country, called, in German, Boiheim, and corruptedly Bohmen, obtained its name from the Boii, its ancient inhabitants, who were a tribe of the Celtæ, that retired into the Hyrcanian Foreſt (which runs through this country) in order to avoid the perſecutions of the Romans. It is bounded on the eaſt by Poland; on the weſt by the palatinate of Bavaria, with part of Saxony; on the north by Luſatia; and on the ſouth by Auſtria. It is about 300 miles in length, from north to ſouth, and 250 from eaſt to weſt. It is divided into two parts, Bohemia Proper, and the Marquiſate of Moravia. As each of theſe diviſions has ſomething peculiar, either in the produce of the country, or the nature of the inhabitants, we ſhall deſcribe them ſeparately.

SECTION I.

BOHEMIA PROPER.

BOHEMIA Proper is bounded on the eaſt by Moravia and Sileſia, on the weſt by Bavaria, on the north by Luſatia, and on the ſouth by Auſtria. It is about 170 miles in length, from eaſt to weſt, and 140 in breadth, from north to ſouth. It is almoſt ſurrounded with mountains and woods; in the former of which are mines of gold, ſilver, copper, tin, iron, lead, ſulphur, and nitre. Here are likewiſe abundance of carbuncles, emeralds, amethyſts, jaſpers, ſapphires, cryſtals, and other precious ſtones, moſt of which are purchaſed by the Jews, and exported into foreign parts.

The climate of Bohemia is rather unwholeſome, owing, as it is ſuppoſed, chiefly to the large thick woods with which it abounds. The ſoil is, in general, tolerably fertile, being well watered with rivers, particularly the Elbe, the Moldaw, or Muldaw, the Egra, Oder, Viſtula, Teyn, and Igla. It produces great plenty of corn and millet; as alſo abundance of hops, ſaffron, ginger, red wines, flax, wood, and timber. The inhabitants have excellent paſturage; and, beſides cattle and ſheep, breed great numbers of fine horſes, which are chiefly purchaſed for the uſe of the French. The woods abound with various kinds of game, as alſo ſeveral ſorts of wild beaſts, the moſt remarkable of which are bears, lynxes, wolves, foxes, martens, badgers, beavers, and otters.

This country alſo produces terra ſigillata, or ſealed earth, Moſcovy-glaſs, ſtone, pit-coal, allum, vitriolic water, marble, mineral waters, and hot baths. The rivers produce various kinds of excellent fiſh; and in ſome of them are found gold duſt. Here were formerly great numbers of ſalt pits: but the working of them not anſwering the expence, they have been ſome time laid aſide; and the country is ſupplied with that article from Miſnia, and other places.

Bohemia Proper is divided into 12 circles, or provinces, excluſive of Prague, and the territory of Egra, or Eger. Before we take notice of the towns in the other circles, we ſhall deſcribe the city of Prague, which is not only the principal place in this diviſion, but alſo the capital of the whole kingdom of Bohemia.

The city of Prague is ſituated in 14 deg. 40 min. eaſt long. and 50 deg. 5 min. north lat. When the Bohemians firſt ſettled here they called it Boihoheim, as being the capital of the kingdom. It was afterwards called, by the Sclavonians, Prague, which name it has ever ſince preſerved. It is ſituated in a pleaſant and fruitful country, in the midſt of gardens and fine fields, and is ſurrounded with magnificent palaces belonging to the nobility and gentry. It is about 12 miles in circumference; and is watered by the river Moldaw, which runs through the principal part of the city. The houſes are chiefly built of ſtone, and conſiſt, for the moſt part, of three ſtories. Here are near 100 churches and chapels, and about 40 cloiſters, beſides 9 ſynagogues for the Jews. The Chriſtian inhabitants are computed to be 70,000, and the Jews about 12,000.

Prague comprehends three towns, the Old, the New, and the Leſſer Town. The Old Town, which is as large as the other two, is very populous, the houſes uniformly built, and well inhabited. Here is an univerſity (the only one in Bohemia) which was founded by the emperor Charles IV. in the year 1358. It has ſtill a great number of ſtudents, tho' very inferior to what it formerly contained. Here are alſo ſeveral monaſteries and colleges; of the latter of which there is a very magnificent one near the bridge, that formerly belonged to the Jeſuits, and was founded by the emperor Ferdinand for an hundred of that order. Great numbers of Jews live in this quarter, from whence it is called by ſome Judenſtant, or Jews Town. Theſe people have almoſt the whole trade of the city in their own hands. They deal in every kind of commodity, eſpecially the precious ſtones found in the Bohemian mines.

The New Town is by far the beſt built of the three and the ſtreets longer and much more ſpacious. Here are the ruins of the palace of their ancient kings; likewiſe a very handſome college that formerly belonged to the jeſuits, over the entrance of which are 13 ſtatues of men, as large as life; and are made of ſtone, whoſe quality is ſuch as to reſemble braſs. A ſmall fortreſs was ſome years ago built for the ſecurity of this part of the city. It is a neat building, and has ramparts well provided with cannon.

The Leſſer Town is pleaſantly ſituated on the weſtern ſide of the Moldaw, and communicates with the Old Town by means of a bridge, which is one of the largeſt and moſt ſubſtantial in Europe. It conſiſts of 24 arches, is 1700 feet in length, and 35 in breadth. It has a magnificent gate at each end, and the ſides of it are decorated with ſeveral ſtatues of ſaints. Part of this town lies on a riſing ground, the ſummit of which is called Ratſchin-Hill; and the ſtreets and buildings that ſurround it form another part, which is diſtinguiſhed by the name of Upper Prague. On this ſpot are many elegant buildings belonging to the nobility; and here the emperor has a magnificent palace, with a ſummer-houſe, which affords one of the moſt beautiful proſpects in the univerſe. The halls, galleries, and other apartments, are adorned with a prodigious number of paintings, executed by the beſt maſters. The great hall where the coronation feaſt is kept, is deemed, excluſive of that at Weſtminſter, the largeſt in Europe. In this part of the city is a very handſome and ſpacious cathedral, called St. Veſt, which contains many ancient monuments and magnificent tombs, erected to the memories of ſome of the moſt diſtinguiſhed perſonages of this kingdom. The original edifice was deſtroyed by the Swedes in 1648. Among the remains of great men interred in this cathedral are two ſaints, St. Wenceſlaus (the founder of the cathedral, who was king of Bohemia) and his wife's confeſſor, St. John of Nepomuck, who, becauſe he would not diſcover her confeſſions to her jealous huſband, was, by his order, thrown from the bridge into the Moldaw. He was afterwards canonized at Rome by pope Benedict XIII. in the year 1721, at the requeſt and expence of the empreſs, and of the ſtates of the kingdom. Great numbers of people, from all parts, reſort to the ſhrine of this ſaint; and his tomb, which is adorned with a rich canopy, is loaded with the moſt valuable preſents. This ſaint is at preſent held in ſuch veneration in Bohemia, that there is no church where he has not a chapel, no public building without his effigy, and ſcarce any perſon to be ſeen who has not his picture hanging before them, like the badge of an order, to a ſtraw-coloured ribbon. The ſtatue of him in braſs, as large as the life, is erected on the bridge near the ſpot from whence he was thrown into the river.

At ſome diſtance from the cathedral are two ſumptuous palaces, both of which have elegant and extenſive gardens. One of them belongs to the family of count Coloredo, and the other to that of count Wallenſtein. The latter is the largeſt and moſt magnificent. The hall is lofty and ſpacious, and the gardens large and beautiful. On one ſide of them is an aviary incloſed with trees; and on the other are large ſtables of curious architecture. The racks are made of ſteel, and the mangers of marble, with a marble pillar between each ſtall; and over every manger is the picture of the horſe it belongs to, as large as the life.

The town-houſe, which is a very beautiful ſtructure, is ſituated in a ſpacious ſquare, and has a noble clock, with a great variety of motions. It is a uniform building; and the principal room, which is elegantly finiſhed, is ornamented with the pictures of the emperors of Germany, and the kings of Bohemia.

The market-place conſiſts of one large and ſpacious ſtreet, where a market, or rather fair, is kept every day in the week. In one part of it is a large ſtone column, on the top of which is the ſtatue of the Virgin Mary in gilt braſs; and at the corners are four angels, each of which holds the figure of a devil in chains. Near this column is an antique fountain of curious workmanſhip, having 12 fronts. The baſon is of red marble; and in the centre is a figure on a pedeſtal, round which are engraven the 12 ſigns of the zodiac.

The caſtle ſtands on Ratſchin-Hill, otherwiſe called the White Mountain. It is a regular fortreſs, and always provided with a ſtrong garriſon. On the ſame mountain ſtands alſo the archiepiſcopal palace.

The inhabitants of Prague are, in general, poor, and their ſhops meanly furniſhed; notwithſtanding which, there are few cities where the nobility and gentry are more wealthy, and live in greater ſtate. Here are much gaming, maſquerading, feaſting, and very ſplendid balls, with an Italian opera.

The principal traffic of this city conſiſts in luſtres and drinking-glaſſes, which are made of Bohemian cryſtal, and ſo generally eſteemed, that they are exported to moſt parts of Europe. Theſe cryſtals are alſo poliſhed by the Jews, who turn them to good account by ſetting them in rings, ear-pendants, and ſhirt-buttons.

The tribunals of the regency meet at the emperor's palace to execute all public buſineſs relative to the kingdom. The chief of theſe tribunals conſiſts of 12 ſtadtholders, at the head of whom is the great burgrave, governor of the kingdom and cities, (who is immediately

ately under the emperor,) and the chancery of Bohemia.

The inhabitants of Prague enjoy many ancient privileges. Among the charters by which these are held, there is a remarkable one preserved in one of the churches. It was granted by Alexander the Great; and as it is one of the oldest records in Europe, and consequently a great curiosity, we shall, for the entertainment of the reader, preserve a translation of it. It is as follows: "We, Alexander the Great, son of king Philip, founder of the Grecian empire, governor of the Persians, Medes, &c. and of the whole world from east to west, and from north to south, son of great Jupiter, by, &c. so called, to you, the noble stock of Sclavonians, and to your lineage, because you have been unto us a help, true in faith, valiant in war, we confirm all that track of earth from the north to the south of Italy, from us, and our successors, to you and your posterity for ever; and if any other nation be found there, let them be your slaves. Dated at Alexandria the 12th of the goddess Minerva. Witness Ethra and the eleven princes, whom we appoint our successors."

The city of Prague has sustained great injuries, at different periods, since the commencement of the last century, having been several times besieged, taken and plundered. It was first attacked by the archduke Leopold, bishop of Passaw, who plundered the Lesser Town, as he would have done the whole, had it not been timely relieved by the emperor Matthias, king of Hungary. Nine years after this it was again plundered by the Imperialists, who entered the city, and carried off an inestimable booty. This depredation was made soon after the famous battle of Weissinberg, or the White Hill, on the 8th of November, 1620, when Frederick V. elector Palatine, was totally defeated by the forces of the emperor Ferdinand, under Maximilian, duke of Bavaria, and thereby lost the Bohemian crown, and his German electorate. It shared the like fate in 1631, when it was taken by the elector of Saxony, after he had made himself master of Bohemia; but the following year the great Wolstein, who recovered the country from the Saxons, took this city by storm. In 1641 the Swedish general Koningsmark surprised and plundered that part of it called the Lesser Town, with only 3000 soldiers; but the inhabitants of the Old Town, assisted by the scholars of the university, repulsed him, and that part of the city escaped being plundered. On the 26th of November, 1741, the French and Saxons, after a very short siege, stormed and took it; and the next month the elector of Bavaria was there proclaimed and crowned king of Bohemia. But, in 1742, the Austrians having for some months blockaded and besieged it, the marshal Belliste collected all the provisions, &c. that he could carry with him, marched out of the city in the beginning of December, with several thousand foot and horse, to Egra; and the same month the rest of the garrison capitulated to the Austrian general, prince Lobkowitz, and marched out: not long after which the queen of Hungary was crowned queen of Bohemia. In 1744 the king of Prussia invested it with a considerable army, which having, with its bombs, &c. destroyed great part of the Old and New Towns, the Austrian garrison, after the trenches had been opened six days, surrendered themselves prisoners of war. But the city was soon again in the hands of its sovereign; for, in November the same year, on the approach of prince Charles with the Austrian army, the Prussian garrison evacuated the town. His Prussian majesty made another attempt on this city in 1757, but was repulsed, and all his efforts rendered totally abortive.

The territory of EGRA, or EGER, receives its name from its capital, which is situated 90 miles west of Prague, and is the only place of any note throughout the whole district. It is built on the declivity of a rock, at the foot of the mountains which enclose Bohemia on the west, and near the Eger, from whence both it and the territory have their names. The city is well fortified with a double wall next the river, and in other parts with a triple one; besides which it hath a very strong castle. Frederick I. made it an imperial city in 1179, for its fidelity to him against the duke of Bavaria. In consequence of this it has the privilege of coining money; and from the judicial sentences of its council there lies no appeal but to the sovereign.

In this city are several ancient and elegant buildings; among which are three cloisters, and a handsome college that formerly belonged to the jesuits. Here are likewise several churches, with courts of judicature, hospitals, baths, and store-houses for corn. At a small distance from the city is an acid spring, the waters of which are purgative, and remarkable for removing disorders in the eyes, ears, and other parts of the head. In its neighbourhood are also mines of silver and gold; but they have not been wrought for several years past.

The river Eger is very broad, and so deep as to admit vessels of very considerable burthen, which is of the utmost utility to the inhabitants of the city, who are also plentifully supplied from it with a great variety of excellent fish.

The twelve circles, or provinces, of Bohemia Proper, exclusive of Prague, and the territory of Egra, are as follow:

Beraun-Podbrad, Rakownitz, Leutmeritz, Saaz, Pilsen, Prachin, Bechin Kaurzim, Tschaslau, Chrudim, Konigingratz, and Bunslaw. But as the kingdom of Bohemia has been greatly desolated by war and persecution, though there are many towns in these circles, there are few worthy of notice. The principal, however, are the following:

Leutmeritz, which gives name to a circle, is situated on the Elbe, thirty-five miles north-west of Prague. It is a rich, well-built, populous town, a royal borough, and bishop's see, the prelate of which is a suffragan to the archbishop of Prague. Here is a handsome college, which formerly belonged to the jesuits.

In the town of Krupka, or Krauppen, is an image of the Virgin Mary, to which pilgrimages are made from various parts of the kingdom. In the neighbourhood of this town are tin-works, and a college that formerly belonged to the jesuits.

Loworice is a small town, near which, in 1756, was fought a warm battle between the Prussians and Austrians.

Toplvi is a small but pleasant town, and remarkable for containing seven warm baths.

Elnbogen, or Loget, the capital of a territory, which was annexed to the circle of Saaz in the year 1714, is seated on a high steep rock, near the river Eger, 72 miles from Prague; and, being a frontier town, and strongly fortified, it is called the Bohemian key to the German dominions. The inhabitants speak the German language.

Wary, or Carlsbad, that is, Charles's Bath, is a royal borough, and celebrated for its baths and medicinal waters. These baths are of two sorts, differing both in heat and strength; the one being boiling hot, and the other little more than luke-warm. The source of them is in the middle of a river, formed by torrents from the neighbouring mountains, whose waters are exceeding cold; notwithstanding which those of the mineral springs, especially of the hottest, are seen to smoke in the river. These waters are beneficial in the cure of various disorders, particularly the gravel; and their virtues have been particularly described by Hoffman, and other physicians.

Pilsen, which gives name to a circle, is a large, well-built town, situated about 44 miles south-west of Prague. It has two large churches; and near the centre of it is a spacious market-place, well supplied with most kinds of provisions. The west and south sides of it are defended by a bulwark and a large ditch, within which are strong walls, with towers and bastions. This city hath suffered greatly in the respective wars of

Bohemia,

Bohemia, having been taken, retaken, and burnt ſeveral times.

Nepomuck is a ſmall town, and noted for giving birth to the ſaint of that name, who is ſo much venerated by the Bohemians. The principal buildings are a ſmall caſtle, with a cloiſter of Circaſſians.

Budweis, a royal borough, ſituated on the river Moldaw, is a ſmall but neat town, well-built, and ſtrongly fortified. The chief building in it is a cloiſter belonging to the order of Dominicans. All ſalt brought out of the Auſtrian dominions muſt be firſt expoſed to ſale here, and pay toll.

Kuttenberg, a royal borough, about 30 miles ſouth-eaſt of Prague, is noted for its ſilver mines, and others which yield copper, and were formerly very profitable.

Konigingratz, which gives name to a circle, is a royal-jointure town and biſhop's ſee, ſituated 45 miles north-eaſt of Prague, at the conflux of the rivers Elbe and Erlitz. Here is a commandery of the Teutonic order, and a fine college that formerly belonged to the jeſuits.

Benatky, a ſmall town on the river Iſer, is remarkable for having been the reſidence of Tycho Brahe, the celebrated aſtronomer.

Perſons, Manners, Language, Religion, &c. &c. of the Inhabitants of Bohemia Proper.

THE Bohemians are a mixture of Sclavonians and Germans; the former of whom live in villages, and are ſlaves. The inhabitants of the towns are neither fond of arms, arts, or trade, but prefer an idle, indolent life. They are, in general, well made, ſtrong, and ſubject to few diſeaſes. In their diſpoſitions they are ſubtle, but courageous, and always make a point of fulfilling their engagements. The gentry, and middling ſort of people, are open and agreeable in their converſation; but the boors, or peaſants, are ſly and moroſe, and greatly addicted to theft. The people, in general, are illiterate, notwithſtanding there are many ſeminaries of learning in different parts of the country. This is owing to the negligence of the parents, whoſe natural indolence renders them ſtrangers to the ſpirit of literary emulation.

The language of the Bohemians is a dialect of the Sclavonic, but ſomewhat harſher than that of their neighbours, who ſpeak the ſame language, as the latter change the conſonants more into vowels. Moſt people of faſhion, however, through their intercourſe with the court of Vienna, ſpeak High Dutch, or German, with which the language of the common people is alſo intermixed.

The religion of the Bohemians was that of the Greek church, till Boleſlaus, ſurnamed the Good, introduced Popery among them. John Huſs, and Jerom of Prague, were burnt at the Council of Conſtance, in the 15th century, for endeavouring to bring about a reformation in religion. This occaſioned a bloody war, which continued for many years; but the Huſſites were worſted; and, in 1547, the greater part of them were obliged to quit their country; upon which they withdrew to the neighbouring dominions, eſpecially Poland and Pruſſia. However, when Luther appeared, great numbers of the Bohemians embraced his doctrine, and theſe at firſt had toleration; but afterwards, being perſecuted, they took up arms, and, in 1618, choſe Frederick V. elector Palatine, for their king; but the war ended unfortunately both for the king and the Proteſtant Bohemians; the former being taken priſoner, and the latter perſecuted with the moſt unremitting ſeverity. In 1627 the remaining Proteſtants were deprived of all their rights and privileges; and ſuch as would not ſubmit to the Roman Catholic church were compelled to quit the country.

Since the above period Popery has been the eſtabliſhed religion in this country. There are, however, a few Lutherans in ſome parts of it; but they are obliged to be on their guard, and to conceal themſelves as much as poſſible. The Jews are more indulged, having an ample toleration for the exerciſe of their religion.

The archbiſhop of Prague is always legate of the holy apoſtolic ſee of Rome; and it is peculiar to his office to crown the kings of Bohemia. He is alſo a prince of the holy Roman empire, (though he has no ſeat in the diets,) primate of the kingdom, and perpetual chancellor of the univerſity of Prague. His ſuffragans are the biſhops of Leutmeritz and Konigingratz. The government of the church and clergy is veſted in the archiepiſcopal conſiſtory, from which an appeal lies either to the ſovereign or pope.

Conſtitution, Manufactures, Revenues, &c. of Bohemia Proper.

BOHEMIA, for a conſiderable time, was governed by dukes, and afterwards by kings, who were limited in their power, and elected by the ſtates; though they uſually kept to the family of the deceaſed monarch. After the battle of the White Mountain, in 1620, the crown was made hereditary in the Auſtrian family; ſo that, from that time, the ſtates have had nothing more to do with reſpect to the right of ſucceſſion. The ſtates, indeed, are ſummoned every year, by imperial command, and meet at Prague; but it is only for form's ſake. They conſiſt of the clergy, nobility, gentry, and repreſentatives of the towns. Here a commiſſioner from the ſovereign lays before them the neceſſity of granting ſuch ſupplies as the court demands, which uſually amount to a very great ſum; and theſe are granted without heſitation or examination. The peaſants here are bondmen to their lords; and to the hard yoke which galls them is doubtleſs owing in a great meaſure, both their perverſe obſtinate diſpoſition, and their indolence; the latter of which, among other things, is evident from the wretched condition of the villages; which, though wood is to be found here in great plenty, and building is far from being expenſive, are very mean and deſpicable. The clergy are compoſed of the archbiſhop of Prague, ſeveral biſhops, proveſts, and abbots, beſides thoſe of inferior rank. The nobility are divided into princes, counts, and barons; and the next degrees to theſe are knights, burghers, huſbandmen, and peaſants. Each circle has two headmen, or captains; one out of the ſtate of lords, and one out of the ſtate of knights. Bohemia is generally conſidered as a part of Germany, but with very little reaſon, for it is not in any of the nine circles, neither doth it contribute any thing towards the forces or revenues of the empire, or is ſubject to any of its laws.

The chief manufacture of Bohemia is linen, of which they export great quantities, together with corn, malt, hops, and mineral waters. They have alſo conſiderable manufactories of copper, iron, glaſs, earthen-ware, and paper, of which alſo a part is exported.

The revenues of Bohemia are raiſed by the ſtates of the kingdom, who are aſſembled annually at Prague, to provide ſuch ſums as the empreſs demands of them, over and above the cuſtoms and duties to which ſhe is entitled by her prerogative. The revenue is ſuppoſed to amount to near 100,000l. ſterling a year. The ſtanding militia of the Auſtrian hereditary countries is 24,000 men, towards which Bohemia furniſhes 9,000. In times of war theſe ſerve to fill up the marching regiments.

SECTION II.

THE MARQUISATE OF MORAVIA.

THIS marquiſate is about 120 miles in length, and 100 in breadth. It is bounded on the eaſt by Sileſia and Hungary, on the weſt by Bohemia Proper, and on the ſouth by Auſtria. A great part of it is overrun with woods and mountains, where the air is very cold, but much wholſomer than in the low grounds, which

which are full of bogs and lakes. The mountains, in general, are barren; but the more level parts tolerably fertile, yielding corn, hemp, flax, ſaffron, paſturage, wine, fruits, and garden ſtuff. Moravia alſo abounds in horſes, black cattle, ſheep, and goats. In the woods, and about the lakes, are plenty of wild fowl, game, veniſon, bees, hares, foxes, wolves, beavers, and a beaſt of prey called Ryſowe, about the ſize of a dog, having its belly and feet ſpotted, and leaping ſuddenly on its prey, from rocks or trees. This country likewiſe produces marble, baſtard diamonds, amethyſts, allum, iron, ſulphur, ſalt-petre, and vitriol, with wholeſome mineral waters and warm ſprings; but ſalt is imported. Its rivers, of which the March, Morawa, or Morau, are the chief, abound with great variety of fiſh, particularly trout, cray-fiſh, barbel, eels, jack, and perch.

The inhabitants of Moravia are, in general, liberal, not eaſy to be provoked or pacified, obedient to their maſters, and true to their promiſes; but credulous of old prophecies, and much addicted to drinking. Their language is a dialect of the Sclavonic, differing little from that of Bohemia; but the nobility and citizens ſpeak German and French.

The ſtates of this country conſiſt of the clergy, lords, knights, and burgeſſes; and the diets, when ſummoned by the regency, are held at Brunn. The marquiſate is divided into ſix circles, each of which has its captain, and contributes to its ſovereign about one-third of what is exacted from Bohemia. Seven regiments of foot, one of cuiraſſiers, and one of dragoons, are uſually quartered in it.

Chriſtianity was planted in this country in the ninth century; and the inhabitants continued attached to the church of Rome till the 15th, when they eſpouſed the doctrine of John Huſs, and threw off Popery; but after the defeat of the elector Palatine, whom they had choſen king, as well as the Bohemians, the emperor Ferdinand II. re-eſtabliſhed Popery. However, there are ſtill ſome Proteſtants in Moravia; and ſome years ſince a ſet of enthuſiaſts, called Hernhutters, or Moravian Brethren, headed by one of the counts of Zinzendorf, appeared among them, who, at firſt, met with great encouragement in England; but afterwards, when their tenets and practices came to be better known, fell into contempt; though they have ſtill ſome followers among the lower ſort. The biſhop of Olmutz, who ſtands immediately under the pope, is at the head of the eccleſiaſtics; and the ſupreme eccleſiaſtical juriſdiction, under the biſhop, is veſted in a conſiſtory.

The commerce of this country is inconſiderable. Of what they have, Brunn enjoys the principal part. At Iglau and Trebitz are manufactories of cloth, paper, gunpowder, &c. In ſome parts of the country are alſo iron-works and glaſs-houſes.

The chief places in the marquiſate of Moravia are the following:

Holomauc, or Olmutz, the capital, is a ſmall, but neat, well-built, and populous city, ſituated on the river Morawa, 80 miles north of Vienna. It is divided into the Old and New Town, in which are ſome ſpacious, regular ſtreets, with fine houſes, all painted on the outſide, two great ſquares, a cathedral dedicated to St. Wenzel, ſeveral hoſpitals and cloiſters of monks and nuns, an univerſity, riding academy, learned ſociety, and 26 churches. It is a royal borough, and the ſee of a biſhop; and, by means of its river, carries on a conſiderable trade with Bohemia, Hungary, Poland, Sileſia, and Auſtria. In the neighbourhood is a cloiſter of canons regular of the order of Præmonſtatenſes, whoſe abbot is mitred.

Brunn, or Brinn, is well built, fortified, and inhabited; and a place of the greateſt trade in Moravia. Here are held the courts of judicature and the diets. There are ſix cloiſters, a collegiate church, the biſhop's palace, and a large college, with an hoſpital of the knights of Malta in the ſuburbs. The cloiſter of Auguſtine hermits is famous for an image of the Virgin Mary, made, as they pretend, by St. Luke, and a foundation for young ladies. The citadel is called Spielberg, or Spilmberg, and ſtands on a mountain cloſe to the town.

Gihlawa, or Iglau, a ſtrong, well-built, populous town, and royal borough, on the river Ighlawa, was the firſt town of Moravia that received the Augſburg confeſſion. The principle buildings in it are a large college and gymnaſium, with two monaſteries, one of Dominicans, and another of Franciſcans. The trade of the town is chiefly in beer, and a coarſe woollen cloth. It is much frequented by travellers, being ſituated on the borders of Bohemia, and in the high road to Hungary.

Hradiſch is a ſtrong royal town on the March, containing a large college, and a cloiſter of Franciſcans. About a mile from the town ſtands the Ciſtertian cloiſter of Welehrad, whoſe abbot is the firſt of the regular prelates at the diet.

Kromerziz, or Kremſier, is a well-built town on the river March, or Morave, belonging to the biſhop of Olmutz, whoſe large and beautiful palace here was deſtroyed by fire in 1752, together with the archives, the ſuburbs, and 55 burghers houſes. Here is alſo a collegiate church, ſeveral cloiſters, and a mint.

LUSATIA.

LUSATIA has Sileſia on the eaſt, Miſnia on the weſt, Bohemia on the ſouth, and Brandenburg on the north. It is divided into the Upper and Lower Marquiſate. The air of the former, which is a hilly country, is more ſalubrious than that of the latter, the ſituation of which is low and fenny. The mountainous tracks are barren, but the vallies are fertile; and both of the marquiſates produce wood, turf, wheat, rye, oats, millet, beans, peas, buck-wheat, lentils, flax, hops, tobacco, manna, wine, &c. Here are likewiſe medicinal ſprings, quarries of ſtone, earths and clays for tobacco pipes and earthen-wares, baſtard diamonds, agates and jaſpers, allum, vitriol, &c. Cattle, veniſon, and fiſh are plenty. The country is well watered. The language of the people is very inarticulate, guttural, and barbarous; and their dreſs, at once, ſingular and mean. Both marquiſates were anciently ſubject to the king of Bohemia, the arch-dukes of Auſtria, or the electors of Brandenburg; but, in the year 1636, they were ceded to the elector of Saxony. Chriſtianity was eſtabliſhed here in the ſeventh century, and at preſent the reformed is the eſtabliſhed religion. The manufactures are woollen and linen ſtuffs, caps, gloves, ſtockings, ſpatterdaſhes, hats, leather, paper, iron, glaſs, gunpowder, bleached wax, &c. many of which the inhabitants export. The imports are ſilk, yarn, wool, ſpices, wine, corn, hops, garden-ſtuff, fruit, &c.

The ſtates of Upper Luſatia conſiſt of ſtate lords, prelates, gentry, and commonalty. Without the concurrence of theſe nothing of importance can be tranſacted. The diets are either ordinary or extraordinary. The former met once in three years, the latter upon particular emergencies.

Upper Luſatia is divided into two circles, called Budiſſen and Gorlitz.

The circle of Budiſſen receives its name from the capital of the marquiſate. The town of Budiſſen is the ſeat of the ſame diets, and of the chief officers and tribunals. It is ſituated on the Spree, 20 miles north-weſt from Gorlitz. It is pretty large, handſomely built, ſtrongly fortified, and well inhabited. Its caſtle is ſituated on a high rock within the town walls. The Lutherans and Roman Catholics perform divine ſervice in different parts of the cathedral. Here are ſeveral other churches, a council-houſe, library, orphan-houſe, ſpinning-houſe, houſe of correction, two diet houſes, three hoſpitals, a gymnaſium, &c. The trade of this place is in hats, ſtockings, gloves, linen, glazed leather, cloth, fuſtian, Turkey manufactures, &c. to a very large amount.

Carmenz, on the Elſter, contains eight churches, three hoſpitals, a manufactory of linen, another of woollen cloths, and a Latin ſchool.

Lobau has a mineral ſpring; Markliſſa a Latin ſchool; Uhyſt a caſtle; and Baruth, a ſmall town, with a citadel, is ſituated ſo pleaſantly, that the meadow in which it is erected is called the Golden Au.

Gorlitz, the capital of the circle of the ſame name, is 20 miles to the eaſt of Budiſſen. It was erected in 1139 by Boleſlaus, king of Poland; but ſoon after burnt, from whence ariſes its name; for Gorlitz, in the Sclavonic tongue, implies Burnt Town. It is the ſeat of juſtice for this part, and the reſidence of the governor, has ſeveral neat churches, and many ſtately houſes, built of ſtone. The chief trade is in beer, and in dreſſing and dying woollen and linen cloth. It is well fortified, and the approach to it difficult, becauſe it ſtands in a moraſs, on the weſt-ſide of the Neiſſe, which riſes on the borders of this country, and runs through it into the Oder. Its great church, formerly called St. Peter and Paul, is magnificent. Near a ſmall church, on a mount without the city, there is a model of the holy ſepulchre at Jeruſalem, built 200 years ago, by the direction of a citizen who had been there ſeveral times.

Muſka has a great allum work; Great Radmeritz contains a noble temporal foundation for 12 ladies; and Hertenhuth is a ſmall place belonging to count Zinzendorf. It was founded in 1722 by ſome Moravian brethren; and is now the chief nurſery and ſeat of that ſect called Hernhutters.

Laubans, upon the river Queiſs, and the confines of Sileſia, is well fortified, and has a great linen manufactory.

Zittau, on the river Neiſſe, is a fine city, near the borders of Bohemia, 8 miles ſouth of Leibau, and 28 eaſt of Dreſden. Wenceſlaus, king of Bohemia, encompaſſed it with walls in 1255. It is well fortified, and the houſes are built in the neweſt ſtile. It has a good trade in beer, a great manufactory of cloth, an hoſpital, which was once a Franciſcan monaſtery, and large populous ſuburbs.

The land eſtates of Lower Luſatia are ſimilar to thoſe of the Upper. Spiritual matters belong to a conſiſtory erected in 1668; the chief officers of which are the preſident of the upper office, the land captain, and the land judge. The tribunals are the Upper Office and the Land Court; and the whole is divided into five little circles, which contain nothing worthy of notice.

CHAP. XI.

HOLLAND, or the UNITED PROVINCES.

THE ſeventeen provinces, which are known by the general name of the Netherlands, and include the Seven United States denominated Holland, were formerly part of Gallia Belgica, or Belgic Gaul. They derived the appellations of Netherlands, Pais-Bas, or Low Countries, from their low ſituation. They are ſituated between 50 and 53 degrees of north lat. and between 2 and 7 degrees of eaſt long. comprehending in length 350 miles, and in breadth 300. They are bounded by the German Sea on the north, by the circle of Weſtphalia and other parts of Germany on the eaſt, by France on the ſouth, and by the Britiſh Channel on the weſt. The Seven United Provinces, of which we are here to treat, form only the northern part of this track, and compriſe Holland, Frieſland, Overyſſel, Zealand, Groningen, Gelderland, and Utrecht. Theſe ſeven provinces are ſituated between 3 deg. 20 min. and 7 deg. 50 min. eaſt long. and between 51 deg. 35 min. and 53 deg. 40 min. north lat. They are about 150 miles in length, and much the ſame in breadth.

SECTION I.

Climate, Productions, Rivers, and general Obſervations concerning Holland, or the United Provinces.

AS this country is low and ſwampy, partly ſurrounded by the ſea, and abounding in bogs and marſhes, the air is too moiſt, and conſequently unwholeſome. Rains and fogs are frequent; and the gout, ſcurvy, rheumatiſm, &c. are common and inveterate. Holland would be overwhelmed by the ſea, were it not for the dykes and dams, which exhibit aſtoniſhing proofs of human induſtry, and are ſtupendous works, deſigned to repreſs the inundations of the ſea, and drain the waters from the land. The marſhes are very fertile, and feed abundance of cattle. The milk being exceeding rich, great quantities of butter and cheeſe are made, not only for home conſumption, but for exportation. The breed of ſheep is good, and produces excellent wool. The other natural productions of the country are tobacco, madder, turf, fruit, iron, &c. All the provinces either lie upon, or communicate with, the North Sea, by means of the Zuyder Sea. This Zuyder Sea, or South Sea, was formed originally by a branch of the Rhine, increaſed afterwards by a ſtream of the Vecht, and at length rendered very capacious by an inundation of the ſea, which happened in the 13th century. The principal rivers are the Rhine, Maes, Scheld, and Vecht.

There are many ſmaller rivers that join theſe, and a vaſt number of canals; yet there are few good harbours in the provinces. The beſt are thoſe of Rotterdam, Helvoetſluys, and Fluſhing. As to the harbour of Amſterdam, it is, indeed, one of the largeſt and ſafeſt in Europe; but there is a bar at the entrance of it, over which large veſſels cannot paſs, without being lightened, or unloaded. There are no mountains in theſe provinces; and the only lake, properly ſo called, is that of Haaerlem. The provinces are well cultivated, and very populous, eſpecially that of Holland, which, in this reſpect, perhaps, has not its equal in the univerſe. The towns are very agreeable, being kept exceedingly clean; and having canals in the middle of the ſtreets, planted with trees. The number of inhabitants is computed at about two millions. The animals here are much the ſame as in England; but their horſes and horned cattle are of a larger ſize. Storks build and hatch on the chimnies; but, being birds of paſſage, they leave the country about the middle of Auguſt, with their young, and return the February following. It is ſaid there are ſome wild boars and wolves here; and that neither oyſters or herrings are to be found upon the coaſt; but of other fiſh they have the ſeveral ſorts, both in their ſeas and rivers.

Though the quantity of grain produced here is not ſufficient for home conſumption; though woods are unknown; and, in fine, though the Hollanders have very few ſtaple commodities, ſuch is their mercantile turn, and ſuch their general induſtry, as to furniſh them in an ample degree with all the comforts of life.

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SECTION II.

Particular Deſcription of the ſeveral United Provinces.

AS this country enjoys as great a foreign trade as any in the univerſe, and is of great importance in the ſcale of affairs in Europe, we ſhall treat of the particular provinces in the following diſtinct order.

HOLLAND.

HOLLAND, by far the moſt conſiderable, and giving name to the whole of the United Provinces, is ſituated about 100 miles to the eaſt of England, being bounded to the north and weſt by the German Ocean, to the eaſt by the Zuyder Sea, and to the ſouth by Zealand and Utrecht. It is about 100 miles long, rather leſs than 30 broad, and divided into north and ſouth. Some few places of this province are fruitful in corn, but the greateſt part conſiſts of very rich paſture lands, where conſiderable herds of kine are bred. The multiplicity of rivers and canals that interſect the whole country, and form a communication between almoſt every village and town, are of infinite ſervice to the inland commerce of the country, though they are of great diſadvantage to the climate. The province of Holland is ſo populous, that the number of inhabitants is computed at one million two hundred thouſand. In point of cleanlineſs, no country ſurpaſſes, and few equal it, eſpecially north Holland, and that even in the villages. From the counts of Holland this province devolved, in 1436, to the dukes of Burgundy, and from them to the houſe of Auſtria, along with the other provinces. The ſtates for Holland and Weſt Frieſland are compoſed of the nobility and deputies of the towns. Of the latter there are eighteen that ſend deputies to the aſſembly of the ſtates, which is held at the Hague. The grand penſionary is a perſon of great dignity and weight in this aſſembly, and his office requires extraordinary abilities. There are alſo two councils compoſed of deputies, one for South and another for North Holland, who have the cognizance of the revenue and military affairs. The whole province ſends one deputy from among the nobleſſe to the ſtates-general, who takes precedence of all others, together with three or four more. There are two ſupreme courts of judicature for Holland and Zealand, viz. the great council of Holland and Zealand, and the hof, or court of Holland. To theſe appeals lie from the towns; but the cauſes of noblemen come before them in the firſt inſtance. With reſpect to the eccleſiaſtical government, there is a ſynod held annually both in South and North Holland, of which the former contains eleven claſſes, and the latter ſix.

South Holland contains the following towns:

Dort is ſituated 34 miles from Amſterdam, on an iſland that was formed, in 1421, by the overflowing of the Maes and Merwe. It is ſo very ſtrong, from its natural advantages, that few artificial fortifications ſeem requiſite. It contains the mint for South Holland, a gymnaſium, and a commodious harbour. The town is large and populous, the ſtreets broad and well paved, and the houſes high, and built with brick. It is admirably calculated, by its ſituation, for commerce; particularly in grain, linen, thread, timber, and Rheniſh wine, the two latter articles of which are brought down the river from Germany. Strangers uſually go to view an apartment in the Guildhall, where the celebrated ſynod was held in 1619, for terminating the religious differences between the Arminians and Gomariſts. Dort is famous for its ſalmon fiſhery.

Haarlem is a city of great conſideration, as well as antiquity, ſituated on the river Speren, 10 miles weſt of Amſterdam. It has eight gates, is ſurrounded by a wall, and contains a great number of inhabitants. It is very large, but not ſtrong. During the holy wars; when the Chriſtians deſigned to beſiege Damietta in Egypt, a prodigious iron chain obſtructed the paſſage into the harbour. This chain the ſhips of Haarlem undertook to break, and ſucceeded in the hazardous attempt, which facilitated the capture of the place. As a memorial of this tranſaction, the arms of the city are a ſword, between four ſtars, and a croſs over the point, with this motto, *Vires vincit virtus*; or, Valour vanquiſhes violence.

The Roman Catholics are more numerous than the Proteſtants. A moſt extravagant taſte, with regard to flowers, once prevailed here; where ſeveral kinds, particularly tulips, were bought and ſold at an enormous price. Great quantities of linen, thread, &c. are bleached here, as the waters of the place are peculiarly excellent for ſuch purpoſes. The buildings here are all of brick, and the ſtreets ſtrait, and embelliſhed with canals. The great church is one of the fineſt ſtructures in the Netherlands, and contains, among other things, two ſilver bells. The ſtadt-houſe is a magnificent building, adorned with very fine paintings. Here are 4 Dutch, 1 French, 1 Lutheran, 1 Arminian, and 5 Anabaptiſt churches, with many Roman Catholic chapels.

Haarlem is the ſecond in order among the voting cities in Holland, and its government conſiſts of four burgomaſters, ſeven eſchevins, one ſcout, and thirty-two ſenators. The manufactures are linen cloth, ribbons, tape, thread, ſilk, velvet, &c. Good beer is brewed here, great quantities of which are exported. This city claims the honour of having given birth to Laurence Coſter, the pretended inventor of printing, and the firſt book he printed is kept in the ſtadt-houſe; as is the ſtatue of Laurence Coſter in the town houſe. There is a communication with the lake, and with Amſterdam and Leyden, by means of ſeveral canals. Schemes have been often formed for draining the lake, but never put in execution. To the ſouth of the town lies a wood, cut into delightful walks and viſtas. When the Spaniards laid ſiege to this place, in 1573, for the ſpace of ten months, the inhabitants ſuſtained innumerable hardſhips. In the year 1752 an academy of ſciences was founded here, which has ſince produced ſome eminent men.

Delft, four miles ſouth-eaſt from the Hague, is reſorted to on account of its pleaſant ſituation, by rich people who have retired from buſineſs. In the great church is a magnificent mauſoleum, erected in 1609, at the expence of the ſtates-general, to the memory of William I. prince of Orange, who was baſely aſſaſſinated by an emiſſary of Philip II. king of Spain. At the feet of the Prince's ſtatue lies a dog, who is ſaid to have died of grief when his maſter was murdered. Among other ſtately monuments in the old church is that of the renowned admiral Van Tromp. Delft is famous for its fine earthen-ware, made in imitation of china, and known by the name of Delft ware. The town-houſe is adorned with ſeveral ſtatues, as thoſe of Juſtice, Prudence, Mercy; and over the gate is a diſtich, which may be thus tranſlated:

This houſe loves peace, and honours virtue's cauſe;
Checks crimes—hates vices—and preſerves good laws.

The arſenal for the province of Holland, two powder magazines for the province, and two for the *generalité*, are kept here, as are likewiſe the deputies yachts, which are very beautifully decorated. This city is two miles in circumference, of an oblong figure, ſurrounded by an old wall and ditch, and defended againſt inundations by three dams and dykes. Here, as in moſt other provinces, are chimes extremely harmonious; they play one tune at the firſt quarter after every hour, two at the next, three at the next, and four before the hour ſtrikes.

Leyden is one of the largeſt, pleaſanteſt, and moſt magnificent cities in Holland. It is ſituated ſix miles eaſt from the ocean, and 19 ſouth of Amſterdam. It

was erected on the ancient channel of the Rhine, which paſſes through, interſects, and divides it into ſeveral iſlands, that meet again about the white Gate. It has 8 gates, 24 wards, ſubdivided into 90 leſſer parts, 50 iſlands, of which 31 may be ſailed round by boats, 180 ſtreets, 145 bridges, and 42 towers on the walls. The ditches are broad, deep, and circumſcribed by a quick-ſet hedge. The eſplanade is adorned with rows of trees, and has the rampart on one ſide, and gardens or meadows on the other. The houſes are magnificent and neat, the ſtreets broad and clean, and the canals regular and agreeable. In the middle of the town is a round ſtrong tower, called the Burgh, which meaſures 610 feet in circumference, and has an aſcent of 50 ſteps, and a fine proſpect from its ſummit. The burgrave of Leyden take their appellation from the burg, or tower. The great church is a noble ſtructure, with a lofty roof, large windows, and three rows of elegant pillars on each ſide of the choir. This, as well as the other churches, contain ſeveral remarkable monuments, and other curioſities. Among the reſt, in the church of Notre Dame, is the monument of the celebrated Joſeph Scaliger. Here are many hoſpitals, which are kept with that remarkable neatneſs peculiar to the Dutch. The orphan-houſe only, maintains 900 children. The ſtadt-houſe is a capacious building, with a handſome ſtone front. In the burgomaſter's chamber is a fine piece of painting, by Luke of Leyden, repreſenting the Laſt Day of Judgment. The waters in ſome of the canals, in hot weather, uſed to grow ſtagnant; on which account two large canals, a few years ſince, were made, on one of which two mills were ſo contrived as to force water into the town, and on the other two mills of a different conſtruction were formed to draw it from thence, which has, in ſome meaſure, remedied the great inconvenience complained of. The univerſity belonging to this city is its greateſt glory. It was founded, A. D. 1573, by the ſtates-general, as ſome recompence to the inhabitants for the great hardſhips they had undergone; and loſſes they had ſuſtained, when they were beſieged by the Spaniards. The ſchool is a capacious pile of building, three ſtories high; in the uppermoſt ſtories of which the celebrated Elzevir had his printing office. This univerſity has produced many learned profeſſors, in particular Lipſius, Scaliger, Salmaſius, Heniſius, and Boerhaave. Phyſic and law are the predominant ſtudies; and the number of ſtudents have ſometimes amounted to 2000: but only two of the colleges are endowed, ſo that the ſtudents who do not belong to them are obliged to board themſelves in the town. When matriculated, the ſcholars have great privileges, and even before matriculation are ſo far from being obliged to conform to an academic dreſs, that they are even permitted to wear ſwords. The univerſity is governed by three curators. The rector is elected annually, and has his own aſſeſſors. Near the ſchool is a phyſic-garden, where the botanical profeſſor reads his lectures; and the Indian cabinet contains a great number of curioſities. The anatomy hall is an octagon building, the walls of which are adorned with pilaſters and cornices; and the library, founded by William I. is well furniſhed with books. The cloth manufactory here is much decayed, which formerly flouriſhed to a great degree. This city is famous for the long and ſevere ſiege it maintained in 1573 againſt the Spaniards. We cannot help mentioning the reply of that illuſtrious magiſtrate, Adrian de Verſ, when the citizens repreſented to him the havock made by the famine during the ſiege, and inſiſted upon his ſurrendering: "Friends, (ſaid he,) here is my body, divide it among you, to ſatisfy your hunger, but baniſh all thoughts of ſurrendering to the cruel and perfidious Spaniard." They took his advice, in regard to their not ſurrendering, and never would liſten to any overtures; but told the Spaniards, they would hold out as long as they had an arm to eat, and another to fight.

Amſterdam is the capital not only of the province of Holland, but of all the United Netherlands. Its ſituation is on the river Amſtel, and an arm of the ſea called Wye. It is in 52 deg. 20 min. north lat. and 4 deg. 30 min. eaſt long. and erected in a moraſs, on ſtrong and extenſive piles, in the form of a creſcent. The ſtadt-houſe alone hath upwards of 130,000 ſtrong piles of wood for its foundation. This city is ſuppoſed to have derived its name from the river Amſtel, or from a fortreſs on the Amſtel of the ſame application. However, it is moſt probable, that it received its name from the river, which is formed by the confluence of ſeveral ſtreams about ſix miles above the city, and a dam which is deſigned to prevent this river from overflowing the country; theſe joined together make Amſtel-Dam, which hath been corrupted to Amſterdam.

It was founded towards the latter end of the 12th century, and roſe gradually from being only a ſmall fiſhing village to its preſent ſtate of opulence and importance. The Amſtel divides it into two grand diviſions, and having filled all its canals there, again ſubdivides it into various ſmall iſlands. A communication, however, is maintained by a great number of bridges; and the maſts of the multitude of ſhips, rows of trees, &c. give an idea to the beholder of a foreſt in a town. The plantagie is a place laid out in beautiful walks, and planted with trees; and on the Wye is a delightful walk, which commands an admirable proſpect. The city of Amſterdam, next to London, is thought to be the moſt extenſive city in Chriſtendom. It is, without any manner of doubt, one of the greateſt trading ports, and not perhaps inferior to any city for riches. It is ſurrounded with brick walls, and a large ditch, and the gates are built with free-ſtone. The walls are high, kept in good repair, and flanked with 26 baſtions. The harbour is ſhut up with large ſtakes of piles drove perpendicularly into the bottom of the water, and joined together on the top by ſtrong beams placed horizontally; with openings between them for ſhips to go in and out; but theſe openings are every night ſhut up by booms, laid acroſs and locked, after ringing of a bell, to give notice to thoſe who would go out or come in to make haſte. Beyond the ditch that ſurrounds the walls there is a dyke to receive the water of the canals, which would overflow the neighbouring meadows, that are a great deal lower than the water in the canals. On each ſide of the baſtions there is a windmill to grind corn; and round the whole city is a great number of mills for ſawing boards, preparing tobacco, making gunpowder, and many other uſes. The gates are very fine, particularly that of Haaerlem, which is a noble piece of architecture: it is all of free-ſtone, and adorned on each ſide with large columns, with a lion's head on the top of each. This gate is 24 feet high, and the arch of it 19. In the middle is placed the new coat of arms of the city, viz. Gules, a pale ſable and three ſoltiers with creſt and Imperial crown, ſupported by two lions. The bridge over the Amſtel, which joins one ſide of the rampart to the other, is one of the fineſt ſtructures of that kind in the whole country. The three principal canals, which run through the city, in the form of ſemicircles, are the Heere-Gragt, the Keyſers-Gragt, and the Prince-Gragt; that is to ſay, the canals of the Lords, the Emperor, and the Prince. The quays of them are all of free-ſtone, and adorned on both ſides with noble houſes, and fine rows of lofty trees. Moſt of the houſes upon thoſe canals have very pleaſant gardens behind them.

The houſes of Amſterdam, in general, are handſomely built, either with brick or ſtone. The ſtreets are ſpacious, well paved, embelliſhed with trees, and have canals paſſing through them. Here are eleven Dutch Calviniſts, one high Dutch, two French, and three Engliſh churches; but only the Calviniſts have the privilege of uſing bells. The Roman Catholics have twenty ſeven chapels, and a kind of cloiſter, the nuns of which, however, are allowed to go abroad, and to marry if they pleaſe. The Jews, Arminians, Anabaptiſts,

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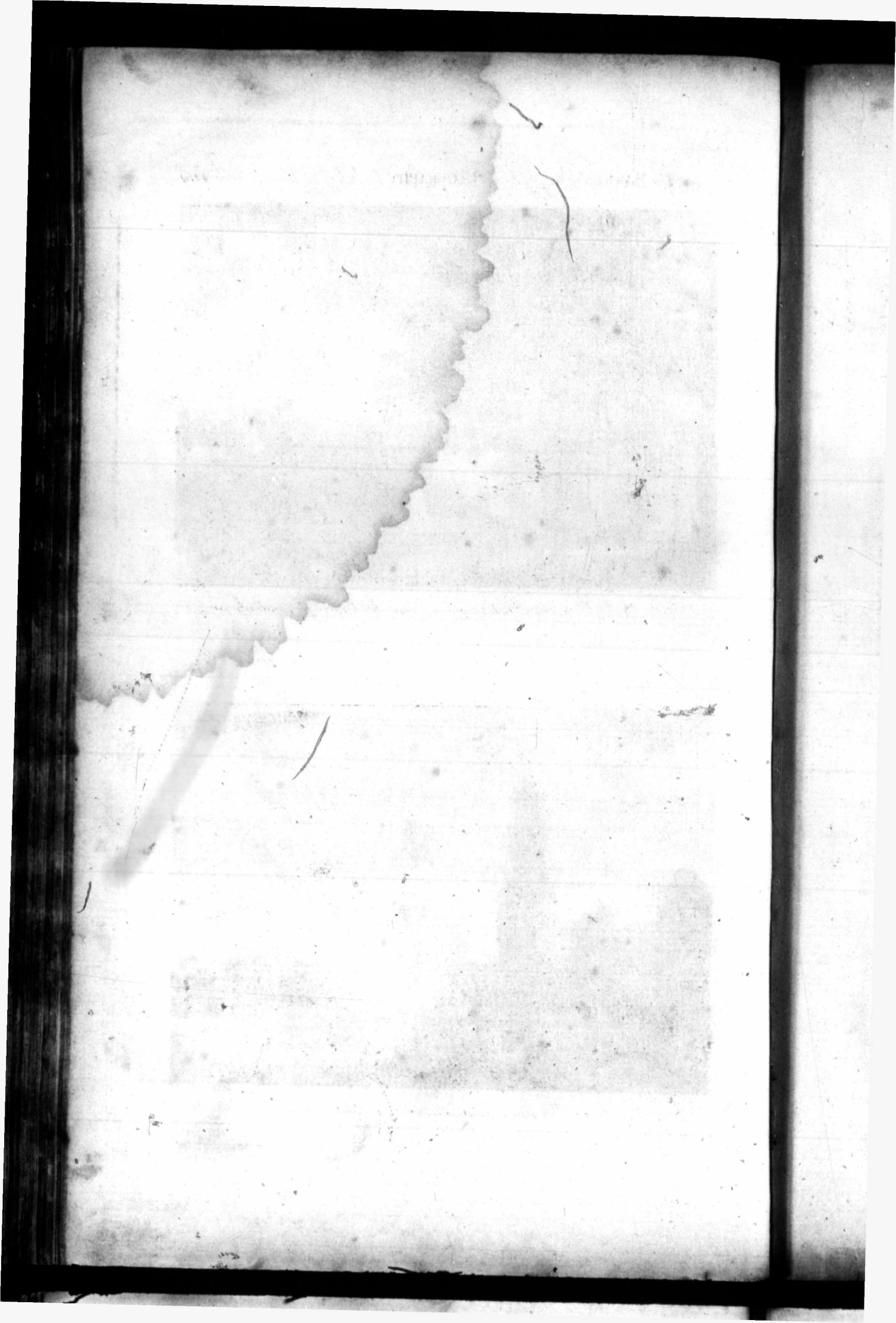
View of the Herring Packers Tower in the City of Amsterdam.

Roberts sculp.

The Old Fort & Mount Albans Tower in the City of Amsterdam.



A Perspective View of the ADMIRALTY OFFICE, DOCK-YARD, STOREHOUSES &c. at Amsterdam.

A Perspective View of the ADMIRALTY OFFICE, DOCK-YARD, STOREHOUSES &c. at Amsterdam.

Engraved for BANKES's New System of GEOGRAPHY Published by Royal Authority.

View of the New Chapel and the Exchange in the City of Amsterdam.

Taylor sculp.

View of the Arsenal at Amsterdam and Landing of Ordnance Stores.

tiſts, &c. are likewiſe places of worſhip; but all who are not of the eſtabliſhed religion muſt not marry in their own mode without the peculiar permiſſion of the magiſtracy. In a court yard belonging to one of the Jews ſynagogues are ſchools where children are inſtructed in the principles of the Jewiſh religion and taught Hebrew.

What they term the Lombard is a corporation, empowered by authority to lend money upon pledges at a moderate intereſt. The bank here was founded in 1609. All payments, exceeding the ſum of three hundred guilders, muſt be made in bank. Bank money is generally about five per cent. better than current, and the difference is termed the agio. Inſtead of drawing an intereſt, every proprietor pays conſiderably for keeping his money in the bank, the credit of which is very great, as depending not ſo much upon the treaſure actually depoſited there, as upon the ſecurity of the city, and even of the republic. It is under the care and inſpection of the burgomaſters. This city has a great ſhare not only of the trade carried on in Europe, but in all the reſt of the world; and in particular, it is in poſſeſſion of one half of that vaſt commerce carried on by the Dutch to the Eaſt Indies, and governs the whole.

The induſtry of the inhabitants of Amſterdam is amazing; all are employed in ſome trade, manufactures, or buſineſs, and none are idle, but ſuch as either want hands, or ſtrength to uſe them. The number of inhabitants, is computed at about two hundred thouſand, of which a great part are Papiſts and Jews. The greateſt diſadvantages this city labours under are the want of good air and water. At the mouth of the harbour is a bar, which cannot be paſſed by large ſhips, till they are lightened.

This city cannot properly be ſaid to be adorned with any ſquares: the principal place ſo called is the dam, which is very irregular, and has no capital building but the ſtadt-houſe, which is a noble oblong edifice of free-ſtone, 282 feet in length, 235 in breadth, and 116 in height. The architecture of the new ſtadt-houſe is admired by moſt. At the entrance on the right hand is the hall of juſtice, and below ſtairs is the office of the bank, and the priſons both for debtors and criminals, and a guard-chamber. There are eight large ciſterns of water on the ſummit of the whole fabric, to be conveyed by pipes to every room in the building in caſe of fire; and the very chimnies, by way of precaution, are lined with copper. The cupola affords an agreeable and extenſive proſpect, and has a round tower, riſing 50 feet above the roof, ſupported by pillars, adorned with ſtatues. It is furniſhed with a good chime of bells. This noble edifice is unfurniſhed, and likely to remain ſo, through a ſuperſtitious motive; as the Dutch pretend that their deſtruction depends on its completion, and produce, to vindicate this notion, an old prophecy, which implies,

When men a finiſhed piece the ſtadt-houſe call,
The Seven United Provinces ſhall fall.

The new church of St. Catherine is a magnificent edifice, and contains many curious pieces of ſculpture, painted windows, &c.

The admiralty houſe is an old building, having been formerly a nunnery. The arſenal is a fine ſtructure, 200 feet long and 22 broad. Near the arſenal is the dock, which is 508 feet in length, and has the ſtore-houſes, ſhip carpenters houſes, &c. contiguous. The Eaſt India Houſe is a very large building, and contains a prodigious quantity of various articles. The India company hath likewiſe a magazine or arſenal independent of that juſt mentioned.

Amſterdam contains many hoſpitals, which together maintain and relieve great numbers of both ſexes. Beſides theſe, here are many places where people may have diet and lodging for life, on advancing a certain ſum of money, which is not very conſiderable. At many parts of the city poor boxes hang on chains, being locked up and ſecured by the overſeers of the poor, who every quarter go round the city, open the boxes, and diſtribute the money. The play-houſes pay half their profits to the uſe of the poor. All who entertain people at fairs are obliged to contribute a third of their profit; and all who paſs through pay a penny for the ſame purpoſe.

The exchange is another ornament of Amſterdam, It is built over three arches, under which runs part of the waters of the Amſtel, thro' a canal called Rockin, into another named Dam-Rack. Formerly boats were ſuffered to paſs under thoſe arches; but they are now locked up with wooden rails, ſince it was diſcovered that ſome traitors attempted to hide under them a boat laden with gunpowder, in order to blow the exchange up, at the time the merchants were met there. At a quarter after twelve the gates are ſhut, and thoſe who come after that time muſt pay a penny for the uſe of the poor. Above ſtairs, over the gallery, there is a fencing ſchool, the maſter of which is appointed by the magiſtrates; and a hall, where they ſell all ſorts of woollen cloth. The chief poſt-offices are all in the neighbourhood of the exchange.

The public houſes of correction are worth a ſtranger's view; as the Raſp-houſe, where rogues are impriſoned, and kept at hard labour; eſpecially raſping or ſawing Braſil wood, for three, four, ſeven, ten years, or for life, according to the nature of their crime. When they are incorrigible they are often put in a dungeon where the water comes in; ſo that they muſt be continually labouring at the pump to avoid being drowned. The ſpin-houſe is a place where proſtitutes, or diſorderly women, are locked up, and obliged to ſpin or ſew with great diligence; but if they can be at the charge of it, they may have chambers by themſelves.

In the illuſtrious ſchool, or academy, public lectures are read on the oriental and other tongues, divinity, philoſophy, hiſtory, &c. The lawyers and phyſicians have likewiſe their colleges; and here are ſeveral high towers with a clock on each, ſo diſtributed, that the hours may be heard to ſtrike in any part of the city. The library, near the ſouth church, is a fine building, well furniſhed with books.

The ſluices are works of prodigious expence and art, and worth a traveller's notice. Formerly the city was frequently damaged by the overflowing of the water, which, upon the blowing of the north-eaſt wind, was driven out of the Zuyder Sea and the Wye, with ſuch violence, into the canals in the ſtreets, that the water overflowing, not only run into their cellars, but even roſe to the firſt floor of their houſes that ſtood in the lower parts of the town: to prevent which the magiſtrates cauſed theſe ſluices to be made at the mouth of every one of the four canals that open to the Wye. Theſe are ſtrong ſolid brick-works, 10 or 12 feet thick, raiſed from the bottom of the river, or rather gulph, to the ſurface of the ground, and built acroſs the canals, leaving only convenient places for the paſſage of ſhips; which openings are again ſhut up with very ſtrong flood-gates, able at all times to reſiſt the force of the water, and ſecure the inhabitants from its rage.

There is a ſettled cuſtom in the Netherlands not unworthy of notice, which is, that the cities and moſt of the villages have a houſe for rhetoricians, or rather for poets; for here, under the denomination of rhethoricians, are underſtood thoſe that delight in poetry. As their inclination to verſe is very ſtrong, it engages the Dutch poets to erect public ſchools every where, in order to exerciſe themſelves, and to acquire ſome reputation by their performances. The ſpiel, or muſic-houſes, are a kind of taverns, where young people of the lower claſs meet two or three times a week, to entertain themſelves with muſic, dancing, &c. The peſt-houſe was built in 1630, and has 360 windows.

Amſterdam has two ſuburbs, one at the gate of the regulars, and the other extending to the village of Over-

ton, where boats that come from Leyden are rolled over land upon wooden rollers. The city is governed by a ſenate of 36; and when a vacancy happens by death, the ſenators chuſe whom they think proper to fill the place, without any reference to the people. The principal civil officers in Amſterdam are the treaſurers, who manage the public revenue; the ſcout, whoſe office at once reſembles that of a magiſtrate of the police, and that of a ſheriff; and the penſioner, who acts as recorder of the city.

The militia conſiſts of 60 companies of foot, of at leaſt 200 men each; ſo that the whole number is always from 12,000 to 15,000. The Jews and Anabaptiſts not being admitted to bear arms, are obliged to maintain 1400 ſoldiers, who act as the city guard.

Navigation and general commerce, from this city, to France and England, are not very great; but the correſpondence between the bankers of Amſterdam, and thoſe of London and Paris, and the buſineſs of exchange, and that ſort of traffic that depends upon banking, is highly conſiderable. In ſhort, Amſterdam has her ſhare in all the buſineſs that is done in Europe, and in moſt of the trading world.

To this prodigious extent of foreign commerce we muſt add the manufactures, which, though carried on in other towns of Holland, are alſo more or leſs practiſed in this powerful and opulent city, with exception only to Delf ware. There are refiners for ſugar, ſalt, cinnamon, camphire, borax, ſulphur, yellow wax, &c.

This city was lately beſieged by the troops of the king of Pruſſia. Commotions had been excited in ſome of the ſtates, which ſeemed reſolved to deprive the ſtadtholder of ſeveral rights he poſſeſſed as devolving from his predeceſſors. Amidſt the general tumult his royal conſort, ſiſter to the king of Pruſſia, had been treated, at the inſtance of certain perſons high in power, in a manner derogatory to her dignity. Incenſed at this the Pruſſian monarch commenced hoſtilities againſt the malcontents, inveſted the capital of Amſterdam, cauſed the inſurgents to ſurrender, and brought them to terms of accommodation with the ſtadtholder; who, being reinveſted with his rights, and peace and good order reſtored throughout the provinces of Holland, his troops evacuated the city of Amſterdam.

Gouda, Gauda, or Ter-gow, is ſeated on the ſmall river Gow, from which it has its name, and the Yſſel, which, about five miles lower, falls into the Maes. It is almoſt of a round figure, and enjoys a pretty healthful air, though ſeated in a marſhy ground; and by their ſluices the inhabitants can drown all the adjacent country, which makes it inacceſſible, except by two banks, on each ſide the Yſſel, which are ſo well fortified, that no enemy can come that way; and the town is likewiſe encompaſſed with a good wall, and a broad and deep ditch. The market-place is reckoned the largeſt in Holland, the town-houſe ſtands in the middle, and near it the great church, the paintings on the windows of which are extraordinary fine. They are the works of two brothers, natives of Gouda, named Theodore and Walter Crabeth, the moſt eminent painters on glaſs that ever were. The buildings here are, for the moſt part, more neat than ſtately; and the city is kept very clean, by a multitude of canals, and ſmall currents, that are cleanſed by the tide. The chief manufactures of the inhabitants are of cordage, and particularly of pipes, which are neat, and of which they have a very extenſive trade. They make alſo, in the neighbourhood of this city, a vaſt quantity of bricks and tiles. It is encompaſſed, like moſt other cities in Holland, with multitudes of pretty gardens, adorned with neat ſummer-houſes. Goudeſluys, which takes its name from this city, lies near the old channel of the Rhine, between Badegrave and Leyden.

Rotterdam is ſituated at the conflux of the Maes and Rotter, from the latter of which, and Dam, its name is formed. It is 12 miles from the Hague, and 28 from Amſterdam. The ſtreets are ſpacious, adorned with lofty trees and beautiful canals; by ſome of the laſt of which ſhips of the greateſt burden are brought into the very heart of the city. Over the Maes, which is very broad, is a bridge, on which is placed a braſs ſtatue of Eraſmus. The Haaring-Vliet, and the Boom Quay, are noble ſtreets; the latter lies along the Maes; and on one ſide has a magnificent row of trees and houſes, or rather palaces, extending above half a mile; and on the other the river, where ſhips are continually ſailing up and down, or at anchor. The principal buildings in the town are the exchange, the Eaſt and Weſt-India houſes, the bank, the arſenal, and the great church, or that of St. Laurence.

There are three high tribunals in this city, viz. that of the admiralty of the Maes; of the high-bailiff, or dyke-graaf of Schieland; and that of the judges of Schieland. On the eaſt and weſt ſides of the city are docks, where they are continually building, repairing, or launching veſſels; but the largeſt ſhips belonging to the admiralty of Rotterdam lie at Helvoetſluys; and, as there is not a ſufficient depth of water at the mouth of the Maes for ſhips that draw above 15 feet, they are obliged to come hither by the way of Helvoetſluys, and the Haaring-Vliet. The glaſs-houſe here produces abundance of glaſs toys, and enamelled bowls, which are ſent to India, and exchanged for China ware, and other oriental commodities.

Gorcum is a neat well-built city, ſtrongly fortified by art and nature, and is, as well as Worcum and Loevenſtein, one of the keys of Holland. They have a daily market for corn, butter, cheeſe, fowls, wild-ducks, and other proviſions. Their lords formerly named their ſenate, but in 1652 the ſtates gave them power to appoint their own magiſtrates. Over the water-gate there is this inſcription: "A city happy in the loyalty of its inhabitants, bleſſed in peace, and unconquered in war."

Aſperen, a ſmall walled town, belonging to the family of the Boetſelaars, is noted for giving birth to ſeveral eminent divines. At Leerdam, a ſmall city belonging to the family of Orange, the celebrated Cornelius Janſenius was born.

Schiedam, on the river Schie, is celebrated for the number of juniper-trees which grow in the neighbourhood. The inhabitants are, in general, fiſhermen and net-makers.

Schaonhoven, ſituated at the conflux of the Lech and Vliet, at the diſtance of 11 miles from Rotterdam, is well fortified, and has a good harbour and trade, eſpecially in ſalmon, herrings, paper, &c.

Birel, in the iſle of Voorn, near the mouth of the Maes, has a good harbour and trade, pleaſant walks of trees on the ramparts, and is ſtrongly fortified. The celebrated admiral Van Tromp was born here. The iſland on which this town ſtands is 20 miles long and ſix broad; the air is thick, and the ſoil fruitful. The Briel was the firſt town that the malcontents, under the command of the earl of March, took from the Spaniards in the year 1572, which occaſioned the revolt becoming general, and laid the foundation of the Republic of the United Provinces. It was likewiſe one of the cautionary towns; which was mortgaged to queen Elizabeth, for repaying the expences ſhe had been at in ſupporting them againſt the crown of Spain.

The Hague, or Gravenhage, is ſituated two miles eaſt of the ſea, nine north-weſt of Rotterdam, and nine ſouth-weſt of Leyden. The name implies *Earl's-Grave*, as formerly the earls of Holland had a villa here. Since the commencement of the Republic in 1579 it hath become a very important place; though it is called only a village, becauſe it is not walled, and does not ſend deputies to the ſtates. It, however, ſurpaſſes many cities in moſt reſpects, and, with regard to extent, opulence, number of people, &c. is equaled by few. It contains above 5000 houſes, about 50,000 inhabitants, is ſituated on an elevated ground, in the centre of many cities, towns, villages, &c. is ſurrounded by a fine canal, and commands the moſt beautiful proſpects that imagination can conceive.

The buildings, in general, are grand, the company good, the air pure and wholeſome, and the people politer than in any other part of the Netherlands. The palace, or inner court, is moated about on three ſides, and on the fourth is waſhed by the Vyver, or Diſh-Pond. There are three entrances into it, over ſo many draw-bridges, which might be drawn up in caſe of a tumult. The court is large, and almoſt ſquare; and in it, before the guard-room, ſtands a very large tree, which was planted by one of the princes of Orange. The buildings are old, irregular, and not very magnificent. The ſtadtholders reſide here; and the ſtates-general, the ſtates of the province of Holland, the council of ſtate, the council of the nobility, and the ſovereign courts of juſtice, hold their aſſemblies here in different apartments. A great hall, of groſs Gothic architecture is the moſt conſpicuous building of the place, but with no happy effect. The walls are hung with colours, drums, and other trophies of victory, taken from the Spaniards, French, and other enemies of the commonwealth. The names of the battles are written underneath them, as Hochſtet, Ramilies, Malplaquet, &c. In the middle of the hall is a ſcaffold, or wooden ſtructure, where the ſtate lotteries are drawn by hoſpital boys, as in London: there are alſo ſeveral bookſellers, ſtationers, and other ſhops in it.

The chamber, where the ſtates-general aſſemble, is partly adorned with fine tapeſtry, and embelliſhed with elegant paintings of the princes of Orange. The chamber of truce, from the ſize and number of the windows, is very luminous; and in it the ambaſſadors have their public audiences. Near it is the chamber of private conference, a plain apartment, but containing 12 fine pictures of Hans Holbein. The outward court is much larger, and more open, than the inner. The horſe-guards draw up here, as the foot do in the inner court. The former do no duty, except when the ſtates are ſitting: they are cloathed in blue, faced with red, very finely mounted, and make a good appearance. At the gate through which is the paſſage from the outer court into the Plaats, ſtands the priſon for ſtate criminals, where the unfortunate de Wits met their fate; this place is always ſhewn to ſtrangers. De Plaats is an open airy place, almoſt in the form of a triangle: it has no trees, but is adorned with neat and beautiful houſes. Criminals of any eminence are executed here, on a ſcaffold erected for that purpoſe.

The Plaats opens to the Vyverberg, which is the moſt agreeable part of the Hague; is is called Berg, or Hill, becauſe it is an eminence made with the earth dug out of the Vyver, or large baſon of water at the bottom of it. It conſiſts of ſeveral fine ſhady walks, with ſeats in them; and has on one ſide a row of handſome buildings, and on the other the Vyver, which affords a very grateful proſpect on a ſummer's day. The Vyver is handſomely faced with ſtone, 200 paces long, and near 100 broad: it waſhes the back part of the court, and of prince Maurice's houſe. There is a pretty iſland in the middle of it planted with a tuft of trees. One of the moſt remarkable buildings on the Vyverberg is the Hof, or Palace of Frieſeland, which belongs to the prince of Orange. It was built by one of his anceſtors, and is dark and decayed; for which reaſon his highneſs, when he comes to the Hague, does not live in it, but in an hired houſe in the plain. A little beyond that palace is the Logement van Dort, or the houſe where the deputies of the city reſide, when they are at the Hague.

The Vyverburg terminates in a very ſpacious opening, which takes in part of the Voorhout, and is full of regular plantations and gardens.

The Voorhout is ſo called becauſe it was formerly the entrance into the wood, Voor ſignifying before, and Hout, a wood, or grove. It is the moſt celebrated part of the Hague, and conſiſts of the mall, and three ways for coaches on each ſide, planted with trees; beyond which are two parallel rows of magnificent houſes, chiefly occupied by the foreign miniſters, and perſons of the firſt quality, at the Hague. The moſt remarkable buildings here are at the upper end of the mall. The palace of Opdam, or Waſſanaar, is a neat elegant ſtructure. The Little Voorhout is railed round, and adorned with high trees like the other. The houſes about it are elegant and pleaſant. The Jews ſynagogue is very neat, and particularly elegant within. The Little Voorhout opens to the New Princeſs Graft, one of the moſt elegant parts of the Hague. The magazine, or military ſtore-houſe, is a lofty building, principally deſigned for founding cannon. The French play-houſe, in Caſnari-ſtreet, is a very indifferent building; and the Plain, in Dutch Het Pleyn, into which one enters from the outer-court, is a beautiful grove, laid out in ſeveral croſs walks, and ſurrounded with ſtately houſes; here the foot-guards draw up every afternoon. The deputies of the city of Amſterdam have their houſes here, which are magnificent, and worthy the repreſentatives of ſo great a city, and the prince of Orange has alſo a fine houſe here.

The Noord-eynde, or North-end, is a long ſtrait ſtreet, in the middle of which is the Oude Hoff, or Old Court, a noble palace, belonging formerly to king William III. It is a large modern building, with two advanced wings, ſupported by high arches, from the angles of which runs a noble baluſtrade; in the midſt of it is the principal gate; and at each end are two leſſer ones: this baluſtrade, which is of iron gilt, ſeparates the court from the ſtreet.

Near the great market ſtands the Stathuys, or Town-Houſe; it was formerly but an ordinary building, but is now rebuilt in a modern taſte; it fronts the great church, and the ſpace between them is uſed for public executions. A ſcaffold is erected, on ſuch occaſions, before the windows of the town-houſe, where the magiſtrates ſit, and ſee the ſentence executed. The town-houſe is a plain and handſome building, but differs in nothing from a private houſe, only in the front of it there is this good motto, in large gilt capitals: *Ne Jupiter quidem omnibus placet*; that is to ſay, "Jupiter himſelf cannot pleaſe every one;" alluding to the difficulty of pleaſing univerſally in the adminiſtration of juſtice. The bench on which the judges ſit is finely gilt and carved; and over it is a mythological painting, on the adminiſtration of juſtice, exquiſitely well done.

The great church, over againſt the town-houſe, is very large: the choir, which is ſeparated from the body of the church by a braſs baluſtrade, is darkened by the great number of eſcutcheons affixed to it.

Near this church is the anatomical hall, belonging to the ſurgeons of the Hague; they are upon the ſame footing as thoſe in France, form a company, and have a profeſſor of anatomy, who diſſects publicly, reads lectures to them, and is paid by the magiſtrates.

In the ſtreet, called the Hooge Weſt-eynde, or High Weſt-end, is the hotel of Spain: it belongs to the crown of Spain, whoſe arms are affixed to the wall, and whoſe ambaſſador always reſides in it. This is the only crown that has an hotel, or houſe, at the Hague, for its miniſter.

Near this hotel is an houſe where ladies, whoſe fortunes are not equal to their birth, are maintained. It was founded by our excellent queen Mary, conſort of William III. for a certain number of French Proteſtant gentlewomen, who, having made a ſacrifice of their eſtates in France to their religion, and not being capable of getting a livelihood, would have been reduced to the utmoſt diſtreſs, had they not met with ſuch a ſeaſonable relief.

In this part of the Hague is alſo the Prince-graft, one of the moſt beautiful and magnificent ſtreets in Europe: it is near half a mile in length, proportionably broad, and as ſtrait as a line. A fine canal, adorned on both ſides with ſhady trees, runs through the midſt of it. The bridges over it are of hewn ſtone, with iron rails upon the ſides of them. The buildings, eſpecially thoſe lately

erected

erected on one ſide of the ſtreet, reſemble palaces more than private houſes, and are inhabited by perſons of the firſt rank.

Near the farther end of this ſtreet ſtands t'Hofje van Nicoop, *i. e.* Nicoop's Hoſpital, or ſeat for poor people. It is one of the moſt beautiful hoſpitals of that kind, and was built by one Newport, a Roman Catholic merchant, for 60 poor widows of his religion; but the magiſtrates obliged him to allow the Proteſtants an equal ſhare in his charity. The contrivance of the building is admirably adapted to the uſe it was intended for.

The environs of the Hague are exceeding pleaſant. Among other agreeable objects are the wood, with the palace of Orange at the extremity of it, called the Houſe in the Wood; the village of Scheveling; and the ſand-hills along the North Sea; with the village of Voorburg, and the charming ſeats and fine gardens round it. Two miles from the Hague is Ryſwick, a village; and a quarter of a mile from that a noble palace belonging to the prince of Orange, famous for the treaty of peace concluded there in 1697. Five miles beyond Looſduynen, and not far from the beautiful village of Graveſande, is Honſlardyck, another palace belonging to the prince of Orange, and one of the fineſt ſtructures in the Low Countries.

Naorden, a town on the Zuyder-Sea, is ſtrongly fortified, and a kind of barrier to Amſterdam. Here are ſome woollen and velvet manufactories.

Muyden is a well-fortified town at the mouth of the Vecht, on the Zuyder Sea. Great quantities of ſalt are made here; and the adjacent country, in caſe of need may be laid under water.

The principal places in North-Holland are as follow:

Alkmaar, 23 miles north of Amſterdam, is a beautiful and pleaſant town, ſurrounded with gardens, walks, and meadows. The road and canal from hence to Bemſted are very agreeable, as are the walks upon the ramparts. The inhabitants are principally Roman Catholics, and the greateſt trade is in butter and cheeſe.

Edam, near the Zuyder-Sea, has a conſiderable trade in timber, train oil, ſalt, ſhip building, &c.

Monikendam, Monikedam, or Munikedam, lies on the Zuyder-Sea, about eight miles diſtant from Amſterdam to the north-eaſt, and as many from Muyden to the north. It has its name from the ſmall river Monick, which runs through it. It is an ancient city, mentioned in the Dutch annals of 1236, well fortified with ramparts and walls, and has a monk for its arms. The inhabitants of this city contributed very much to the victory gained by the Dutch near Hoorn, in 1573, over the Spaniſh fleet, commanded by the admiral count Buſſu; and they ſtill keep in the town-houſe the collar of the order of the Golden Fleece, which was taken from that admiral by Cornelius Dirczen, a native of Monikendam, who was admiral of the Dutch fleet.

Hoorn is ſituated on a bay of the Zuyder-Sea, 12 miles from Alcmaer to the eaſt, and 17 from Amſterdam to the north. It is a pleaſant, rich, and large town, encompaſſed with ſo many dykes and canals, that it is reckoned impregnable. The inhabitants are alſo famed for courage. Some derive its name from its crooked harbour. Hoorn, in Dutch, ſignifying a horn. On the land ſide are rich paſtures, fine gardens, and pleaſant walks. The trade of this city conſiſts chiefly in butter and cheeſe, whereof they export vaſt quantities into Spain, Portugal, and other parts, eſpecially at their annual fair in the month of May. They have a conſiderable trade in Daniſh cattle, which being brought lean into this place are fattened in the adjacent paſtures and then drove to the other places in Holland. They alſo build ſhips, and have a ſhare in the whale-fiſhery. Here is one of the ſix chambers of the Dutch Eaſt-India company. The chamber of North-Holland, for the Weſt-India company, is ſettled here: and one of the five colleges of the admiralty reſides alternately at Hoorn and Enchuyſen. Hoorn has given birth to ſeveral learned men, and particularly to Peter Junius, the celebrated hiſtorian; and to William Scouten, who, ſailing beyond the Straits of Magellan, diſcovered, in 1616, the paſſage called the Strait of Le Maire.

Enchuyſen, or Enchuſia, ſtands on the Zuyder-Sea, 11 miles diſtant from Hoorn. It is very ſtrong by its ſituation and by art. The harbour is one of the beſt in this country; but as there lies a bank of ſand before it, it is liable to be choaked up, and made impracticable for large veſſels. They build many ſhips here, drive a great trade in herring fiſhing, and ſend out large fleets into the Baltic, and other places, by which, as well as by their refining ſalt from Brittany, in France, the city is in a flouriſhing condition. This is the firſt town that revolted from Spain, after the taking of the Briel by the confederates.

Medinblick, on the Zuyder-Sea, ſeven miles diſtant from Enchuyſen, is reckoned the moſt ancient city in North-Holland, and was formerly its capital, and the ſeat of the Friſon kings. The town is ſmall, but has a noble harbour. The banks, or dykes here, are ſtronger, broader, and higher than any in the country. The chief trade of the inhabitants conſiſts in timber, which they fetch from Norway, and other places in the Baltic. They were the firſt who, in 1593, ſailed to Guinea, from whence they returned to Amſterdam richly loaded. The neighbouring country abounds in excellent paſtures, where are bred a prodigious number of cattle.

Fourteen miles to the weſt of Medinblick lies Sohaagen, a rich village: the adjacent country is reckoned the richeſt ſoil in Europe.

Egmond, a well built village, which gave title to the counts of Egmond, lies in this country.

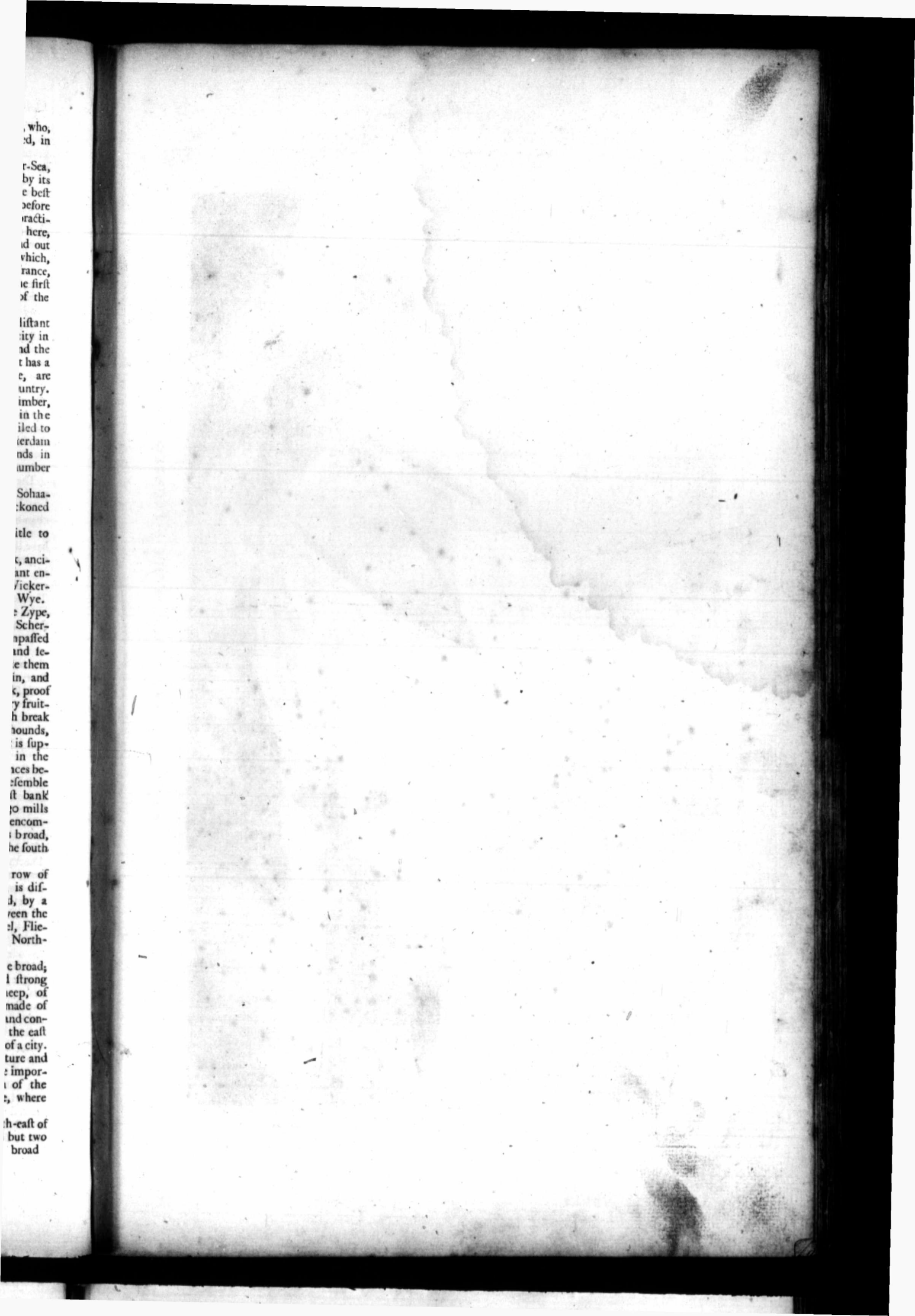
Seven miles farther to the ſouth lies Beverwick, anciently noted for pilgrimages to it. It has pleaſant incloſures, a good harbour on the mouth of the Wickermeer, and a lake which communicates with the Wye.

The drained lands in North-Holland are the Zype, the Beemſter, the Purmer, the Woormeer, and Schermeer. The Zype was firſt drained and encompaſſed with banks by William, lord of Schaagen, and ſecured by ſtrong fences in 1552, but the ſea broke them down in 1570: after which it was drained again, and ſecured by a mole of prodigious height and bulk, proof againſt all attacks of the ſea; and it is now a very fruitful ſoil. The noiſe made by the waves which break upon it ſounds like the barking of a pack of hounds, from whence it is called the Hounds-Wood. It is ſupported by large beams of timber, firmly placed in the ground, and ſtrongly faſtened together, the diſtances between them being filled with large ſtones, that reſemble rocks; and the mole is ſtrengthened by a vaſt bank caſt up againſt it. There were no leſs than 30 mills made uſe of to drain the Beemſter, which is encompaſſed by a channel from four to eight rods broad, and is joined to Purmer-end, by a bridge at the ſouth end.

Acroſs the mouth of the Zuyder-Sea lies a row of iſlands; the firſt of which, named the Texel, is diſjoined from the north cape of North-Holland, by a very narrow channel; nor are the diſtances between the reſt much larger. The three, named Texel, Flieland, and Schelling, are reckoned part of North-Holland.

The Texel is about eight miles long, and five broad; it is defended from the ſea by ſand-hills, and ſtrong banks. Moſt of the ſoil is applied to feed ſheep, of which they have great flocks; and the cheeſe made of their milk vies with the Parmeſan. This iſland contains ſeveral fine villages, and a large town on the eaſt ſide, called Burch, which enjoys the privileges of a city. The inhabitants apply themſelves to agriculture and herring-fiſhing; and the ſtates, becauſe of the importance of this place, which lies at the mouth of the Zuyder-Sea, have built a ſtrong fortreſs here, where they keep always a good garriſon.

Flieland, or Vlieland, lies towards the north-eaſt of the Texel, and is about nine miles long, and but two broad



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View of the entrance into the PORT of FLUSHING.

abroad; it has only two ſmall villages, and is chiefly remarkable for the great quantity of muſcles found here.

Schelling, or Der Schelling, lies to the north-eaſt of Flieland, and is about 10 miles long, and three broad. It has two villages with churches, and three without. The chief of them, containing above 1000 houſes, was burnt, with 100 merchants ſhips, by Sir Robert Holmes, with an Engliſh ſquadron, in 1666. Some reckon this iſland to belong to the province of Frieſeland. Theſe iſlands lying along the mouth of the Zuyder-Sea, by means of ſeveral large banks of ſand, break the rage of the ocean, and form two good harbours at the Texel and Vlie: the firſt being a noted ſtation for ſhips bound to the ſouth, and the other for thoſe bound to the north.

The Wierengen, thus called from the great quantity of ſee-weed, named Wier, is a number of little iſlands, which lie more to the ſouth, on the coaſt of North-Holland; the chief of them is five miles long, and two broad, has ſeveral good villages, a rich ſoil, and large flocks of ſheep.

ZEALAND.

ZEALAND has Flanders to the ſouth, the province of Holland to the north, Brabant to the eaſt, and the German Ocean to the weſt. It conſiſts of iſlands, is guarded againſt the ſea by dykes, has a fruitful ſoil, but is without fuel, except what England and Scotland ſupply. Sheep are numerous, and the wool fine, and fiſh may be had in great plenty. The province is populous and wealthy, but the air is not wholeſome. The aſſembly of the ſtates conſiſts of ſeven members, is held at Middleburg, and has the prince of Orange for its preſident. To the aſſembly of the ſtates-general Zealands ſends four deputies, who hold their office for life. Two high courts of juſtice, a college of admiralty, and a chamber of accompts, are the principal tribunals. The clergy are divided into four claſſes. The principal places in Zealand are,

Middleburg, the capital, ſituated 50 miles ſouth-weſt of Rotterdam, and takes its name from its ſituation, in the middle of the iſland of Walcheren. It has the firſt ſeat in the aſſembly of the ſtates of Zealand, and is extenſive, handſome, and populous. The form is oval. the public buildings magnificent, and the ſtreets broad and well paved. The whole is environed by a fine capacious canal well ſtored with fiſh, and the neighbouring proſpects are very beautiful. The gates are eight in number; the harbour and city are ſtrongly fortified, and the latter contains 33 pariſhes, about 4000 houſes, and near 26,000 inhabitants. Here are one Engliſh, one French, one Lutheran, and ſix Dutch churches, a Roman Catholic chapel, a Jews ſynagogue, &c. The ſtadt-houſe is a fine building, ſituated in the market-place, adorned with 25 ſtatues of the counts and counteſſes of Holland, a ſtatue of the emperor Charles V. and a handſome tower. The chamber of the aſſembly of the ſtates is an old building, but is finely hung with tapeſtry. The bank is a neat edifice, containing ſeveral apartments; the commiſſioners make up their accounts three times in a year, and the city is ſecurity for the bank. Here are two priſons, very ſtrong, a commodious Latin ſchool, a horſe-guard houſe, an Eaſt-India houſe, a large market-place where the annual fair is kept, a fiſh-market. a market for vegetables, an exchange, a mad-houſe, an orphan-houſe, and an hoſpital for the aged and decrepid. The burgers weeſhuys was built in 1718, for the maintenance of decayed burghers children; the money for founding it was left by a lady. Here is a pond, which, being filled every ſpring-tide, and emptying itſelf again, makes a continued ſtream through all the canals, and prevents the water from ſtagnating. This city is the ſtaple for French and Spaniſh wines, and its trade in other articles is very conſiderable. The inhabitants burn coals, which they procure from Scotland, or Holland turf, not having any fuel of their own.

Fluſhing, ſituated in the iſland of Walcheren, five miles from Middleburg, is ſtrongly fortified, has an excellent harbour, great trade, and contains ſeveral fine ſtructures. It ſhook off the Spaniſh yoke in 1572, and voluntarily ſubmitted to the ſtates. In 1585 it was mortgaged to queen Elizabeth, but reſtored by James I. Sir Philp Sidney was governor of it while in the hands of the Engliſh. Loaded veſſels come up to the very doors of the merchants. The famous admiral de Ruyter, who roſe, from a common ſeaman and pilot, to be admiral of the United Provinces, was born here in 1607. The prince of Orange, as marquis of Fluſhing and Veer, or Teer-Veer, is firſt nobleman of the province, and preſident in the aſſembly of the ſtates.

Rammekins is a ſtrong fort, built by Mary, queen of Hungary, and governeſs of the Low Countries, for Charles V. It ſtands pleaſantly, being encompaſſed with villages, meadows, and fields; and on one ſide it has a creek, which is a ſafe harbour for ſhips. It was one of the cautionary towns given to queen Elizabeth. Weſt-Cappelle on the weſtern coaſt of the iſland, has a commodious harbour, and is famous for the maritime laws uſed in the Seven Provinces, and called by its name. The palace of the abbots of Middleburg, called Weſthove, is pleaſantly ſituated amongſt woods, near Domburg, which is now reduced to a village, being ruined by inundations.

Veer, or Teer-Veer, four miles from Middleburg, is well fortified, and has a good trade, eſpecially to Scotland, the natives of which enjoy particular privileges here. The arſenal is the beſt furniſhed in the province, and the harbour a very good one. The Calviniſts alone are allowed the public exerciſe of their religion in the town; whence the Veres, anciently earls of Oxford, have derived both their origin and name.

The iſland of South-Beveland is the pleaſanteſt of all the Zealand iſlands, and contains the town of Ter-Goes, on the northern part of the iſland, not far from Eaſt-Schelde. It is ſmall, but neatly built, ſtrongly fortified, and carries on a good trade; beſides, it is the only town on the iſland that ſends deputies to the ſtates.

Schowen iſle is 17 miles long, about eight broad, tolerably fertile, has many rich farms and gentlemens' ſeats, and contains the town of Zirkſee, 13 miles from Middleburg, which ſends deputies to the ſtates.

The iſland of Duiveland took its name from the great number of duives, or pigeons, which formerly abounded in it, and contains only a few villages.

Tholen iſle is eight miles long, and four broad, but does not contain any place worth naming, except Tholen, which ſtands on the Eariracht, is well fortified, ſends deputies to the ſtates, and has a toll-houſe.

St. Philip's iſland contains only one village of the ſame name.

FRIESELAND.

FRIESELAND is bounded by the Flie to the weſt, by Groningen and Overyſſel to the eaſt, by the German Ocean to the north, and by the Zuyder Sea to the ſouth. It is 32 miles long, 27 broad, has a ſoil and air reſembling thoſe of Holland, rich paſtures, that feed large quantities of cattle, ſheep, horſes, &c. and in the higher grounds good corn lands. It produces turf and wood, has many lakes, and is guarded from the ſea by conſiderable dykes. Here are many canals, which facilitate commerce. The inhabitants are chiefly Anabaptiſts. The language approaches the neareſt to the Old Engliſh of any other in Europe. The linen manufactured here is the fineſt perhaps in the univerſe, and the woollens are much eſteemed. The aſſembly of the ſtates here conſiſts of about 82 perſons, who ſend five deputies to the aſſembly of the ſtates-general. Several courts and chambers belong to this province; and the

View of the entrance into the PORT of FLUSHING.

Calviniſt miniſters are divided into ſix claſſes which hold ſynods annually and alternately.

Leuwarden, the capital of this province, is 60 miles from Amſterdam to the north-eaſt, and 7 from the German Ocean to the ſouth. It is the largeſt, richeſt, beſt built, and moſt populous town of the province, the ſeat of the provincial ſtates and the ſovereign council, and the reſidence of the ſtadtholder. The ſtreets are clean, the houſes ſplendid, the bridges well paved, and the gardens pleaſant. The churches, the governor's palace, that where the ſtates meet, and the houſes of the noblemen, are fine ſtructures. The form of the city is an oblong ſquare, encompaſſed with ſtrong ramparts, a broad deep ditch, and five bulwarks of earth, with a ditch to each. It ſtands in a fruitful ſoil; and, by its navigable canals, the largeſt of which runs to the ocean, they have a good trade with Hamburg, Bremen, Embden, and Holland; and are plentifully ſupplied with neceſſaries from the neighbouring countries. One of their canals to the weſtward is ſecured by ſtrong ſluices. Here were formerly four monaſteries, now turned to other uſes. They have two hoſpitals, one of them nobly endowed for 100 poor perſons of both ſexes, with accommodations for the aged, ſick, and lunatic; and for entertaining poor ſtrangers two nights at a time. They have ſeveral good laws for regulating their government, into which they admit no military men, nor any but thoſe of the eſtabliſhed religion, and of competent eſtates. The magiſtracy is compoſed of three burgomaſters, and nine ſcheepens, or aldermen; one of the former, and two of the latter, are changed annually on New Year's day. This city and Franeker are the only two in the province that chuſe their own magiſtrates; thoſe of the other towns are appointed by the ſtadtholder, from a double nomination preſented to him.

Franeker, a town about 10 miles from Leuwarden, and four from the Zuyder-Sea, has an univerſity, and a phyſic-garden. The ſalaries of the profeſſors are paid out of the revenues of the old monaſteries; and the ſtudents, neither in this or the other univerſities of the provinces, pay any tax for their wine and beer. Fine blue glazed tiles and bricks are made here in large quantities.

Sneek is ſituated on a lake of the ſame name, which ſupplies it with plenty of fiſh, both for conſumption and ſale; but otherwiſe of no note.

Dokkum ſtands in a fruitful country, abounding with corn, paſture, villages, and gentlemens ſeats. A great deal of ſalt is alſo made at it.

Harlingen ſtands on the coaſt of the Zuyder-Sea, at the mouth of a large canal. The admiralty college of Frieſeland has its ſeat here. Its manufactures are ſalt, bricks, and tiles.

Workum is famous for the quantities of lime made there from muſcle ſhells; Ylſt ſends deputies to the ſtates; and Makkum has many ſalt-houſes and brick-kilns.

Hinlopeu has a harbour on the Zuyder-Sea; the inhabitants are employed in fiſhing, or ſhip-building, and differ from the other Frielſians in dialect and apparel.

Molkweren is a village ſituated in a marſhy ground. They ſpeak here a particular language, which none of the other inhabitants of the country are able to underſtand. It is a remainder, or dialect, of the ancient Saxon; ſo that the people of that village, and the Engliſh, underſtand each other pretty well. The houſes here are all ſeparated from one another, and placed ſo irregularly, that when a ſtranger comes into this village, he muſt have a guide to help him out of that labyrinth.

At Wykeb village, in the quarter of the Seven Foreſts, are interred the remains of the celebrated general Cochorn; and on the coaſt of Frieſeland are two little iſlands, viz. Ameland and Schiermonnigkoog, the former of which belongs to the prince of Orange, as a free independent lordſhip.

GRONINGEN.

GRONINGEN is bounded on the weſt by Frieſeland, on the eaſt by Munſter, on the ſouth by Darenthe, and on the north by the German Ocean. It is 47 miles long, and the greateſt breadth is about 33 miles. The air and ſoil are ſimilar to thoſe of Frieſeland. The number of canals and dykes are very conſiderable, and the principal river is the Hunſe. The ſtates conſiſt of the deputies of the town of Groningen, and of the neighbouring country thereof; and the colleges are much the ſame as in the other provinces. Six deputies are ſent to the ſtates-general. The number of eſtabliſhed clergy are 160 miniſters, divided into 7 claſſes; and the principal places are

Groningen, the capital, ſituated at the conflux of ſeveral rivulets, which form the Hunſe and Fivel. Ships of conſiderable burthen can come up to the city, in conſequence of which it enjoys a good trade. The univerſity is well endowed out of the revenues of the ancient monaſteries. The town, which was formerly one of the Hans, and has ſtill great privileges, is large and populous, being the ſeat of the high colleges, and containing 3 ſpacious market-places and ſtreets, in whichare many fine houſes, beſides churches, and other public ſtructures. By the river Fivel, and the Eems, it has a communication with Weſtphalia. In 1672 it made a gallant reſiſtance againſt the biſhop of Munſter. Rodolphus Agricola, and Veſelius, two of the moſt learned men of the age in which they lived, were born here. Under the juriſdiction of this city is a conſiderable diſtrict, called the Gorecht.

Dam, or Damme, ſtands on the river, or channel, called Damſterdiep. The Imperialiſts took this city by ſtorm in 1536, when thoſe of Gelderland were lords of it; and it was then agreed, that the walls ſhould never be rebuilt, nor the town fortified. Though this is an open place, yet it has all the privileges of a city, and ſends deputies to the ſtates of the province. It has ſuffered very much of late by inundations.

Delfzyl has a very good harbour, which, for ſituation, and other advantages, exceeds that of Embden. It is a ſtrong place, ſurrounded with good ramparts, and ſeven baſtions; and defended by a citadel, encompaſſed by broad and deep ditches. In 1672 the Dutch Eaſt-India fleet, conſiſting of 14 ſhips, the cargoes of which were valued at 16 millions ſterling, eſcaped into this harbour from the Engliſh fleet, which purſued them very cloſe.

Winſchoten is a ſtrong fortreſs, but was taken and plundered by the troops of Munſter in 1674. It is chiefly remarkable for the firſt battle fought againſt the Spaniards in 1568, by the Dutch, in defence of their liberty; when count Lewis of Naſſau, brother to prince William I. defeated the Spaniſh general Arenberg, who was killed in the action, after himſelf had killed, with his own hand, count Adolphus of Naſſau, another brother of prince William I. The Spaniards loſt in the battle 1200 men, all their baggage, and ſix guns.

OVER-YSSEL.

OVER-YSSEL is bounded on the ſouth by Zutphen: on the north by Frieſeland and Drenthe; to the eaſt by the county of Bentheim, and the biſhopric of Munſter; and to the weſt by the Zuyder-Sea. It has the name of Over-Yſſel from its ſituation in reſpect of Holland. Utrecht, and part of Gelderland. With reſpect to the ſoil, it is, in general, far inferior to the other provinces, being full of ſands, heaths, and marſhes; yet, in ſome places, they have good corn land and paſture. The ſtates conſiſt of the nobility, and the towns of Deventer, Kampen, and Zwol, in which their annual aſſemblies are alternately held. The province was long ſubject to the biſhops of Utrecht, till biſhop Henry, of Bavaria, transferred it to Charles V. and, in 1580, it acceded

acceded to the union of Utrecht. Here are high tribunals and colleges, anſwering to thoſe of the other provinces; and five deputies are commonly ſent from hence to the aſſembly of the ſtates-general. The clergy of the eſtabliſhed religion, who are divided into four claſſes, hold their annual ſynods alternately in the chief towns. The moſt remarkable places in the province are the following:

Deventer, in the quarter of Salland, on the Yſſel, is a neat, populous, well-built, and well-fortified city, containing ſeveral churches belonging to different ſects, a gymnaſium illuſtre, a mint, and an iron foundery; and five annual fairs are held here. They brew alſo a pleaſant ſort of beer, and have a good trade. Along the river ſide is a fine quay, adorned with rows of trees.

Kampen, on the Yſſel, is ſtrong from its ſituation, and may be eaſily laid under water. The wooden bridge is a curious ſtructure, ſtanding upon vaſt piles. This place was once a free Imperial city, and has ſtill a mint, but its trade is greatly decayed.

Hoſſelt is a fortified town on the Blackwater; Genemunden is remarkable for the mats made there; Amels is famed for its manufactures of fine linen; and Woolenhoven, on the Zuyder-Sea, is a commercial place.

Zwol is the handſomeſt and moſt wealthy town in the province. It is ſtrongly fortified, contains ſeveral churches and hoſpitals, an arſenal, a college, and a granary. The provincial ſtates meet here, at Deventer, and Kampen alternately: and the celebrated Thomas-a-Kempis was prior of a monaſtery near this town.

GELDERLAND.

THIS province is uſually called North-Gelderland, to diſtinguiſh it from Upper Gelderland, or Gelders, which belongs to the king of Pruſſia, and which we have already deſcribed in that monarch's dominions. North Gelderland is bounded on the eaſt by Munſter and Cleves; on the weſt by Utrecht and Holland; on the north by Over-Yſſel and the Zuyder-Sea; and on the ſouth by the Maes, which ſeparates it from Brabant. It is 47 miles from north to ſouth, and upwards of 40 from eaſt to weſt. The land lies higher, and the air is much clearer, than in the maritime provinces, and the ſoil in moſt parts are fruitful. Gelderland is watered by the Rhine, and its three branches, the Yſſel, Leck, and Waal, ſeveral canals, &c. It is divided into three diſtricts, viz. Nimeguen, Zutphen, and Arnheim, each of which has its diets and ſtates. Thoſe for the province are held twice a year, and the deputies ſent to the ſtates-general are 19. Here are upwards of 200 Calviniſt miniſters, 4 Lutheran, 14 Roman Catholic, and 3 Anabaptiſt congregations. The principal places in the diſtrict of Nimeguen are as follow:

Nimeguen ſtands on the Waal, and is the capital of the quarter to which it gives name. It is a large ancient city, ſtrongly fortified, and pleaſantly ſituated, where the Oppidum Batavorum is ſuppoſed by ſome to have ſtood. The provincial ſtates, and thoſe of the diſtrict, aſſemble in the ſtadt-houſe. This city is famous for the peace concluded here in 1678, between the French and the confederates. It carries on a good trade with the duchy of Cleves, and makes great profit by its white beer, which is much eſteemed throughout the provinces. In the town-houſe is kept the ſword with which the counts Egmont and Hoorn were beheaded by the duke of Alva's order. The burgrave, who reſides in the caſtle, is one of the chief nobles of the province, and preſides in its diets. In the higher part of the city are three large ponds, fed from hidden ſprings; and through the whole there are many deep wells, which are obſerved to riſe and fall as does the Maes, though ſix miles diſtant from this city, whereas the Waal runs cloſe by it, but in a valley, towards which the deſcent is conſiderable. Upon the gate to the north-weſt of the caſtle are theſe inſcriptions: *Pes imperii. Huc uſque jus Staviræ. Melior eſt bellicoſa libertas quam ſervitus pacifica.* That is to ſay, "This is the border of the empire. So far reaches the right of Stavira. It is better to have liberty with war, than ſlavery with peace." The reaſon of theſe inſcriptions is ſuppoſed to be, that this was the limit of the Roman empire on this ſide; and that the impoſt, or tax, called Stavira, reached not them, becauſe they were exempted from this city to Arnheim, acroſs the Betuwe, about ſeven miles long, at the charge of theſe two cities.

Tiel, on the Waal, 17 miles weſt of Nimeguen, though much decayed from its priſtine ſplendor, is ſtill populous, and has a tolerable trade.

Bommel, the capital, and only conſiderable place of an iſland of the ſame name, otherwiſe called Bemmelwaert, ſtands on the river Waal. It is a pleaſant walled city, with broad and regular ſtreets. It is very ſtrong, being fortified with good curtains, baſtions, and towers, a double wall, and double ditches. It ſtands low, in a marſhy ground, which can be overflowed from the Waal and the Maes. It ſurrendered to the French in 1672, who ſpent 14 days in deſtroying its fortifications, carried off the artillery and ammunition, and obliged the town to pay 36,000 guilders to prevent its being burnt. It was afterwards ſtrongly fortified when recovered by the ſtates. The town chuſes their own magiſtrates, under whoſe juriſdiction is the whole iſland of Bommel, in which are many good villages, and which is about 13 miles long, and 4 broad, between that and the Maes.

Batenburg is the chief place of a little diſtrict, called Maes and Waal, becauſe it lies between thoſe two rivers, near their conflux. The town has the title of a barony; and two brothers, lords of Batenburg, were beheaded at Bruſſels, in the year 1569, by the duke of Alva's orders. The counts of Hoorn were alſo deſcended from that family.

Panderen is a village in the bailiage of Upper Betuwe, where begins the new canal, through which the Rhine at preſent paſſes. In the ſame bailiage ſtood formerly the Schenken-Schanze, a very ſtrong and ſpacious fort, built in 1586 by general Martin Schenk; and the Tolhaus, a caſtle where the dukes of Gelderland frequently reſided, and where veſſels ſtill pay toll, as they did formerly. The Betuwe is that track of land lying between the Rhine and the Waal. It is divided into two bailiages, called the Upper and Lower, or Eaſtern and Weſtern Betuwe.

Zutphen, a town on the right bank of the Yſſel, is large and ſtrongly fortified, and has a bridge of boats over the Yſſel, which divides the town into two parts. The whole neighbouring country may be laid under water by means of the Borkel, a river which here joins the Yſſel. There are ſeveral churches here belonging to different ſects, with hoſpitals for the aged, ſick, orphans, and ſtrangers, and a gymnaſium. There are pleaſant walks about it, eſpecially on the ramparts. The citizens are noted for their courteſy and politeneſs, to which the many gentlemen who live here greatly contribute. The great Sir Philip Sydney died here of the wounds he received at the ſiege of this city; and Gerard Van Zutphen, maſter to the famous Thomas-a-Kempis, was born here.

Arnheim, the third diſtrict, contains a town of the ſame name, which is not only the capital of this diſtrict, but of the whole province. It ſtands on the Rhine, at the foot of the Veluwe hills, 6 miles from Nimeguen, and 48 from Amſterdam, and is ſtrongly fortified. It has alſo a commodious harbour, and is the ſeat of the ſupreme council of Gelderland, and the chamber of accounts. Here is an ancient palace, in which the dukes of Gelderland, and after them the ſtadtholders of the province, uſed to keep their court. The walls, being delightly planted with lime-trees, render the walks pleaſant. In the great church are the monuments

monument of ſeveral counts and dukes of Gelderland; and near the city is the village of Oofterbeck, where the emperor Henry III. was born in 1027.

At Harderwyk, ſituated on the Zuyder-Sea, is an univerſity, which, till 1641, was only a *Schola Illuſtris*.

The trade of the town is conſiderable, eſpecially in fiſh, of which its red herrings are much admired. The ſteeple of St. Mary's church, a ſtately ſtructure, is ſo high that it ſerves for a land-mark, being ſeen at a great diſtance, both by ſea and land. Prodigious quantities of blue-berries are gathered in the neighbouring woods, and carried to Amſterdam, and other towns. The provincial mint is in this city, the fortifications of which are in the ancient manner. The famous lawyer Gerardus Voetius is ſaid to have been a native of this place.

In the neighbourhood of Wageningen, a ſmall town on the Rhine, with a commodious harbour, tobacco is much cultivated.

Elburg is a ſmall town on the Zuyder-Sea, whoſe ramparts, planted with lime-trees, form a delightful walk. Its inhabitants ſubſiſt chiefly by fiſhing and catching wild ducks.

In that track of land called the Veluwe is the lordſhip of Leo, belonging, with a beautiful ſeat on it, to the prince of Orange.

UTRECHT.

THE province of Utrecht is ſurrounded by Holland and Gelderland, a ſmall part which borders on the Zuyder Sea excepted. The length is about 32 miles, the breadth about 20. The air is ſalubrious, and the ſoil fruitful. The rivers are the Rhine, Leck, Vecht, and ſome ſmaller ſtreams. The provincial ſtates are compoſed of 12 members, and three deputies are ſent to the aſſembly of the States General. The eſtabliſhed clergy are divided into three claſſes, and hold an annual ſynod at Utrecht.

Utrecht, the capital of this province, and ſeat of the ſtates, is ſo called from its ancient ferry or paſſage over the Rhine. It is a large and populous city, ſituated 19 miles from Amſterdam and Rotterdam. There were ſeveral large and rich monaſteries, and other religious houſes here, before the reformation. The churches are magnificent, eſpecially that of St. Martin, formerly the cathedral, and uſually called the dome. Over that of St. Salvador, or the old minſter, where the Engliſh have a place of worſhip, is a muſeum of all ſorts of antiques and rarities. The only defence of the city is a wall on the canal. Here is a ſtately town-houſe, with a commandery of the Teutonic order, and a celebrated univerſity, which was founded in 1636, ſince which it hath flouriſhed greatly, though it has not all the privileges of moſt other univerſities, being wholly ſubject to the magiſtrates of the city. The mall, without the town, having five rows of lofty limes on each ſide, is very pleaſant; and the phyſic garden, belonging to the univerſity, is extremely curious. There are five churches here that have chapters; but the members of thoſe purchaſe their places, of which ſome coſt 6 or 7000 guilders. The ſtreams which run through ſeveral of the ſtreets contribute much to the beauty and cleanlineſs of the town; and the canal that is cut from the Leck, and paſſes through it to Amſterdam, will carry ſhips of any burthen. Pope Adrian VI. was a native of this city. His epitaph is worth inſerting: *Adrianus Sextus hic ſitus eſt, qui nihil ſibi in vita infelicius duxit, quam quod imperaret*, i. e. "Adrian VI. lies here, who reckoned it his greateſt misfortune that he ſhould ever have been called to government." Here, in 1579, the memorable union was formed between the ſeven provinces; and, in 1713, the celebrated peace concluded between France on the one part, and the allies on the other. The Papiſts have a nominal archbiſhop of the city; and there is a ſilk manufactory carried on in it, which employs a number of hands.

Amersfoort is ſituated on the little river Eem, which runs by its walls, and falls into the Zuyder-Sea. It took its name from a ford on this river: it is ſix miles diſtant from that ſea to the ſouth, and 17 from Utrecht towards the north-eaſt. It is an ancient town, and was the uſual retreat of the biſhops of Utrecht, when drove out by the citizens; and the inhabitants of this place frequently helped to reſtore them. This town was anciently but ſmall, as appears from the remains of its old fortifications. It is now much larger, and will take near an hour to walk round it. It is of no great ſtrength, being commanded by a neighbouring hill. The buildings, eſpecially thoſe of the Old Town, are very neat. They have three churches here, one of which is a large and ſtately fabric. Their hoſpitals are equal to thoſe of the greater cities; and they have a public ſchool, where ſeveral eminent perſons have had their education. It ſuffered much formerly by the Geldrians, who took it in 1543. It was alſo taken by the Spaniards in 1629, but afterwards quitted by them, and better fortified by the ſtates. Their government is much like that of Utrecht, and they enjoy almoſt the ſame privileges. They had formerly a great trade in brewing beer; but now they ſubſiſt chiefly by feeding cattle, and by huſbandry, there being good arable and paſture ground on the eaſt and ſouth; but on the weſt and north there is nothing but a barren heath. It is called Amersforder-Berg, or the hill of Amersford; and is ſix miles long, and almoſt as many broad. They have planted upon it two rows of trees from Amersford till within ſix miles of Utrecht.

Juſt upon the edge of this hill ſtands Soetſyke, a pleaſant palace, adorned with fine gardens, curious fountains, delightful walks, ſhaded with lofty trees, pleaſant parks filled with deer, a large aviary, exceeding fine ſtables, &c.

Rhenen is ſituated on the Rhine, about 7 miles above Wyck-te-Overſtede to the eaſt, 19 from Utrecht towards the ſouth-eaſt, and 13 from Amersford to the ſouth. It is an ancient town, thought to be the Grinnes, mentioned by Tacitus, and is ſurrounded with walls and baſtions. On the ſteeple of the church is a very fine clock, with a moſt harmonious chime of bells. In the fields between the town and Utrecht are dug moſt of the turfs that ſerve the neighbouring country with fuel.

Montfort, the chief place of a little diſtrict, is ſituated on the little Yſſel, near the borders of the province of Holland, 10 miles above Gauda to the eaſt, ſix from Utrecht towards the ſouth-weſt, and but three from Oudewater to the ſouth-eaſt. It is not a large town, but is fine, neat, and pretty ſtrong: it was built by a biſhop of Utrecht in 1159, as a bulwark againſt the incurſions of the Hollanders.

SECTION III.

Claſſes, Perſons, Diſpoſitions, Dreſs, Cuſtoms, Manners, &c. of the People of the United Provinces in general.

THE people of the United Provinces may be divided into five ſeparate claſſes. Firſt, the nobles; ſecond, the opulent merchants retired from buſineſs; third, the merchants and traders; fourth, the ſeamen; and fifth, the boors, or country farmers. Of the firſt there are but few in Holland and Zealand, having almoſt become extinct during the long wars with Spain; but in the other provinces they are numerous. They pride themſelves upon their rank, and imitate the manners and dreſs of the French. Economy and moderation once characteriſed the ſecond claſs, the opulent merchants; but of late they have been tainted with the profuſion and luxury of their neighbours of France and Great Britain. The merchants and tradeſmen are tolerably acute, and, in general, intent on the accumulation of wealth. The mariners are plain, ſurly, and ill mannered. The boors are moſtly induſtrious and diligent, but not very laborious: they are, upon the whole, honeſt and frugal.

All

ANCIENT DUTCH DRESSES.

1. The Prince of Orange in the Year 1572.....2 a Count of Flanders in 1582.
3 à Soldier in 1588.

Origuion Sculp.

ANCIENT DUTCH DRESSES.

1 a Physician in the Year 1640.....2 a Merchants Wife in 1640.
3 a Nobleman of the States in 1588.

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All appetites and paſſions run lower and cooler here than in any other countries, avarice excepted. When they attempt to revenge an injury, their reſentment is uſually unmanly and ſavage, agreeable to the opinion which the great Dryden entertained of them, who ſays,

With an ill grace the Dutch their miſchief do;
They've both ill-nature, and ill-manners too.

The dreſs of the common people is plain, and they change faſhions as rarely as the Spaniards. The dreſs of both ſexes is inelegant; that of the men conſiſts of coats without ſhape or plaits, with long pockets placed as high as the ribs. The dreſs of the women is ſtill more ſingular, for their coats reach only to the middle of their legs, and in North-Holland no lower than their knees.

Theſe people are patient, ſteady, wary, covetous, calm, and ſeldom have any difference with each other; but when they are irritated, as before obſerved, they grow bruiſh. Many of the lower claſs carry knives about them, with which they ſtab their antagoniſts, notwithſtanding the ſevere laws againſt this practice. They are, however, very indulgent to their children. They are addicted to drinking, and when they treat their friends they do it ſumptuouſly. They are neat to exceſs in their houſes and furniture, and the ſtreets themſelves are kept amazingly clean. The women, however, have but an indifferent character; and there is a proverbial ſaying, "That the dirtieſt thing in a Dutchman's houſe is his wife;" but this character is not univerſal. The pavement of the chambers is generally of marble. Their general mode of living is plain and frugal. The poorer people live upon ſour milk, pulſe and herbs. It is uncommon for any of them to be really in love, or even to pretend to it; nor do the women ſeem to care whether they are or not. People converſe pretty much upon a level here; nor is it eaſy to diſtinguiſh the man from the maſter, or the maid from the miſtreſs. The principal enjoyment of the Dutch is eating and drinking, for they have no idea of pleaſure unconnected with feaſting and carouſing. The humidity of the air doubtleſs inclines them to the cuſtom of drinking and ſmoaking tobacco, which are in general uſage throughout the country. One of their winter amuſements is ſkaiting, in which they excel; ſo that in a hard froſt it is aſtoniſhing to ſee the crowds of both ſexes that paſs from place to place upon the ice, and dart along with amazing velocity.

Many of the Dutch excel in painting and engraving, ſome have been good ſtatuaries, and a few have been remarkable for their wit and ingenuity, as Eraſmus, Grotius, &c. The common mode of travelling in the United Provinces, and, indeed, throughout the Auſtrian and French Netherlands, is in trackſcoots, or draw-boats, which are large covered boats, drawn by a horſe, at the rate of three miles an hour, the fare of which does not amount to more than a penny a mile. The rate of theſe boats, and alſo of the poſt waggons, is fixed, and you are permitted to carry a portmanteau and proviſions, ſo that you are not under the neceſſity of expending any thing at public houſes. The carriage of the baggage is not ſettled by law, therefore an agreement ought to be made, otherwiſe the driver will charge not what in equity he ſhould, but according to the dictates of his avarice, and the money muſt be paid him if a previous bargain is not made. At the inns and public houſes on the road a perſon is ſure to meet with clean linen and ſoft beds; but their bedſteads, or rather-calcins, in the ſides of the walls, are placed ſo high, that a man may break his neck if he happens to fall out of them. Beſides, a traveller muſt be content to lie with half a dozen people or more in the ſame room, and be diſturbed all night long by ſomebody or other, if a churliſh landlord pleaſes to have it ſo. There is no diſputing with a Dutch inn-keeper, either about the reckoning or any other particular.

SECTION IV.

Religion, Language, Conſtitution, Military and Naval Armament, Commerce, Coin, &c.

THE prevailing religion of the United Provinces is Calviniſm, which is embraced by the bulk of the people. All other ſects, however, of the reformed religion, are tolerated and protected here. The Jews have likewiſe their ſynagogues in Amſterdam and Rotterdam. The Roman Catholic religion was excepted at the firſt eſtabliſhment of this government; but the States, at length, deſirous of giving all men liberty in this point, now ſuffer the public exerciſe of that religion. Indeed, their great care has long been to favour no particular inquiſition into the faith or religious principles of any peaceable, good ſubject, who live under the protection of their laws, and to ſuffer no violence or oppreſſion to be offered to any man's conſcience, when his opinion or actions did not interfere with, or were of ill conſequence to, the civil government of the ſtate.

The Calviniſt clergy are, in general, throughout this country, attached to the family of the prince of Orange. The church government amongſt that prevailing ſect is according to the diſcipline eſtabliſhed by the grand ſynod held at Dort in 1618. The eccleſiaſtical aſſemblies are compoſed of different claſſes, laity as well as clergy, to whom all are allotted their reſpective functions.

The only ſubordination among the clergy in Holland is, that the conſiſtories are ſubordinated to the claſſes, and theſe to the provincial ſynod; for as to national ſynods, there have been none ſince that of Dort, mentioned above.

The Dutch language is a dialect of the German, and has a harſh ſound; but the better ſort of people ſpeak French.

The cities and towns of the United Provinces are little republics of themſelves, whoſe deputies, with the nobility, compoſe the ſtates thereof; and the deputies of the provinces, in a ſimilar manner, compoſe the ſtates-general. Every town, or province, may ſend as many members as they pleaſe to the ſtates-general; but all belonging to one town, or province, have but one voice; and no reſolution taken by the ſtates-general is of any force till ratified by the ſeveral provinces. In the cities and towns the legiſlative power is veſted in the ſenates, and the executive in the burgo-maſters, ſyndics, &c. The ſtates of the provinces, except Holland, are ſtiled *noble and mighty lords*. Thoſe at Holland are called *noble and moſt mighty lords*; and the title of the ſtates-general is *high and mighty lords*, or *their high mightineſſes*. Beſides the ſtates general, there is alſo a council of ſtate, conſiſting of deputies from the ſeveral provinces. They are twelve in number, whereof Holland ſends three, Gelderland two, Zealand two, Utrecht two, Frieſland one, Groningen one, and Over-Yſſel one. Their buſineſs is to prepare eſtimates, and ways and means for raiſing the revenue, as well as other matters that are laid before the ſtates-general. In this council every deputy preſides a week by turns; and the ſtadtholder has a deciſive voice when the votes happen to be equal. The principal affairs that come under their deliberation are thoſe relating to the army and finances. The ſtadtholder is alſo preſident of the ſtates in every province, but has no ſeat in the ſtates-general. One diſſenting voice in the provincial ſtates prevents their coming to any reſolution. From the death of William III. prince of Orange, and king of England, there had been no ſtadtholder, at leaſt for the provinces of Holland, Zealand, and Weſt Frieſland; but theſe alſo, in 1747, upon the French breaking into Dutch Flanders, made choice of William-Charles-Henry-Friſo, prince of Orange, and father of the preſent ſtadtholder, William V. The ſtadtholderſhip was at the ſame time made hereditary to his heirs male

and female, provided the latter did not marry the ſon of a king, or a papiſt. The ſtadtholder's powers and prerogatives are very conſiderable: in particular, he ſeems directly, or by his influence, to have the nomination of the magiſtrates, deputies, and moſt of the officers, civil and military. In ſhort, though he has not the title, he has more real power and authority than many kings; for, beſides the influence and revenue he derives from the ſtadtholderſhip, he has ſeveral principalities and large eſtates of his own. With reſpect to the adminiſtration of juſtice in this country, every province has its tribunal, to which, except in criminal cauſes, appeals lie from the petty and country courts; and it is ſaid, that juſtice is no where diſtributed with more impartiality.

The taxes in theſe provinces, eſpecially in Holland, are many and heavy. The ordinary revenues of the republic are computed at between two and three millions ſterling annually. Out of 100 guilders the province of Holland contributes 58, and conſequently above one half of the whole public expences. For the encouragement of trade, the duties on goods and merchandize are very low. Notwithſtanding the number and greatneſs of the taxes, every province is ſaid to labour under very heavy debts, eſpecially Holland.

With reſpect to their land forces, in time of peace they ſeldom exceed 40,000, and very often fall ſhort of that number. They employ a great many foreigners, eſpecially Swiſs and Scots, in their ſervice; and, in time of war, hire whole regiments of Germans. The chief command of the army is veſted in the ſtadtholder, under whom is the field-marſhal-general. No nation can fit out a more formidable fleet than the Dutch, having always vaſt quantities of timber prepared for building ſhips, and great numbers of ſhip-carpenters and mariners: however, in times of peace, they uſually have no more than 30 in commiſſion, for the protection of their trade in the Mediterranean, and to convoy their homeward-bound Indiamen, &c.

The Dutch Eaſt-India company have had the monopoly of the ſpice trade conſiderably more than a century; hence it is one of the moſt opulent trading companies in the univerſe. Though the United Provinces of themſelves produce very few things, yet all the commodities and products of the globe may be procured here. The Dutch likewiſe acquire great riches by their herring, cod, and whale fiſheries; by their manufactures of linen, paper, earthen-ware, &c. and by ſhipbuilding. Every province has the right of coinage, but all the pieces muſt be of a ſimilar intrinſic value. The following table exhibits, at one point of view, the value, in Engliſh money, of the Dutch gold and ſilver coin:

GOLD.				SILVER.		
Name	Value.			Name.	Value.	
	£.	s.	d.		s.	d.
Ryder	1	5	6	Three guilder piece	5	5½
Half-ryder	0	12	9	Rix-dollar	4	6½
Double ducat	0	19	1	Dollar	2	8½
Ducat	0	9	6½	Twenty-eight ſtiver piece	2	6
				Six ſtiver piece	0	6½
				Pieces of five ſtiver and a half	0	6
				Two ſtiver pieces, eleven of which make	2	0
				Stiverpieces, eleven of which make	1	0

It is to be obſerved, that the ſmalleſt coin, or doit, is worth about half a farthing; and that Engliſh, French, and German coin, paſs current here for their intrinſic value.

SECTION. V.

Deſcription of the County of Drenthe, or Drent, the Generalité Lands, &c. included under the title of Dutch Flanders.

THE county of Drethe is bounded on the ſouth by Bentheim, and Over-Yſſel; on the north by Groningen; on the weſt by Frieſeland; and on the eaſt by Munſter. It is tolerably fertile; the ſtates conſiſt of the nobles and freeholders; the aſſembly is annually held at Aſſen, but no deputies are ſent from thence to the ſtates-general. Aſſen, the capital, is ſmall, well built, and the ſeat of the high colleges; and Koevorden, though a ſmall town, is ſtrongly fortified.

The Generalité Lands are thoſe parts of the Netherlands that appertain to the United Provinces in general. The hereditary ſtadtholder is governor of them all. The high tribunals are held at the Hague, Middleburg, and Veulo; and the eſtabliſhed religion is Calviniſm. Theſe lands conſiſt of part of the duchies of Brabant and Limburg, of the upper quarter of Gelderland, and part of Flanders. The principal places in Brabant, belonging to the ſtates, are the following:

Bois le Duc on the Dieſt, 20 miles from Breda, is ſtrong by nature and art. The majority of the inhabitants are Roman Catholics. The town contains ſeveral churches, maſs-houſes, a citadel, gymnaſium, &c. The manufactures are linen, woollen, cutlery wares, needles, &c. It was once a biſhopric; and the cathedral, which is now in the hands of the Proteſtants, is one of the moſt magnificent in the Netherlands. Before the Reformation there were 16 monaſteries of both ſexes here. In the diſtrict to which the town gives name are the towns of Oſterwyk, Tilborg, Boxtel, Einhoven, Griſchot, Helmond, Os, Grave, and Raveſtein. The Grave is ſtrongly fortified, and belongs to the prince of Orange, who is alſo proprietor of the barony of Kuik, and other eſtates in the diſtrict. Raveſtein, with the lordſhip to which it gives name, are held as fiefs of the ſtates-general, by the elector palatine; and Helmond is the property of the houſe of Aremberg. In the ſame diſtrict is alſo a lordſhip belonging to the Teutonic order, and two rich convents, which, by the indulgence of the ſtates, are ſuffered to remain and enjoy their ancient revenues.

Breda, ſituated at the conflux of the Merk and the Aa, which, after their junction, are navigable from hence to the German Ocean, 14 miles from Dort to the ſouth, 20 miles from Bois le Duc to the weſt, and 25 from Antwerp to the north-eaſt, is pretty well built and fortified, and a part of the adjacent country may be laid under water. Here are ſeveral ſquares, one of which is delightfully planted with trees, and adorned with a moated caſtle, and ſeveral churches, but the trade and manufactures of the town are greatly declined. The ſtates have been poſſeſſed of it ever ſince the year 1637. Here king Charles II. reſided a ſhort time before he ſet out, when invited by his ſubjects to take poſſeſſion of his kingdoms, and from hence was dated his famous declaration. Here alſo, in 1669, the famous treaty of peace was concluded between the ſaid king Charles, Lewis XIV. of France, and the ſtates-general, under the mediation of the king of Sweden. The neighbourhood of the town is very pleaſant; among other agreeable objects are ſeveral woods, of which one is cut out into beautiful walks and viſtas. The town gives name to a barony, which contains 18 little towns and villages, the principal of which are Williamſtadt and Steenbergen, which are both well fortified and garriſoned.

Bergen-op-Zoom is not ſo called from its being ſituated on the river Zoom, as there is no ſuch river. Thoſe who have been of that opinion have taken for a river a canal that runs through this city, and was made for the conveniency of bringing into the town boats laden with turfs, which ſerve for fuel to the inhabitants.

But Zoom, in Dutch, ſignifies a ſeam, an hem, or a border, and was given to the country where this city ſtands, becauſe it borders upon the ſea: and the city being built on an hill, called, in Dutch, Berge, or Bergen, it was from thence called Bergen-op-Zoom, i. e. "The Hill on the Border." It is 19 miles diſtant from Antwerp to the north, and 17 from Breda towards the weſt. It is one of the ſtrongeſt places belonging to the Dutch, who fortified it ſo ſtrongly in the year 1629, that it was reckoned almoſt impregnable. On the ſide towards Antwerp they have built a large half-moon, which extends as far as the fort called Kyk-in-de-Pot, i. e. "Look into the pot." That fort is defended by four redoubts, with batteries planted with great guns on every ſide. There is a canal from the ſea to this city, by which ſupplies of men and ammunition can be brought in, without being prevented by the beſiegers. From this city to the ſea there are eleven forts well planted with cannon, and many redoubts and paliſadoes along the dyke or cauſeway. Towards Steenbergen there are alſo ſeveral fortifications, with many redoubts and intrenchments; and as the country about it is marſhy, and often overflowed, the approaches to it are very difficult. It is reckoned a ſea-port town, becauſe it is pretty near the ſea, with which it has a communication by means of the river Scheld. Its harbour is very fine, and defended on both ſides by ſtrong forts. The houſes here are well built, and the ſquare large and beautiful. The church of St. Gertrude is a noble piece of architecture; its roof being but one ſingle arch vaulted over. The palace of the marquis is alſo worth ſeeing.

Maeſtricht, on the Maes, is one of the ſtrongeſt fortreſſes belonging to the republic, ſtanding 12 miles from Liege, and 48 from Bruſſels. The ſtates-general, to whom it was yielded up by the treaty of Munſter, are ſovereigns of it, jointly with the biſhop of Liege, as having ſucceeded to the rights of the dukes of Brabant. There are many popiſh convents in it, and churches belonging to different ſects; and a ſtrong garriſon is maintained by the ſtates. The magiſtracy conſiſts partly of Calviniſts and partly of Roman Catholics, and the latter muſt be natives of the biſhopric of Liege. In a hill in the neighbourhood is a horizontal quarry full of long winding paſſages, in which, in time of war, the country people ſecure their cattle and valuable effects; 40,000 men might lodge in it with great convenience. The town contains about 3000 houſes, and 13,000 inhabitants, beſides the garriſon. There is a Calviniſt gymnaſium and grammar-ſchool here, the maſters and profeſſors of which are paid by the ſtates; a large college, a commandery of the Teutonic order, a ſtately town-houſe, and governor's houſes, with other public buildings.

In the part of the duchy of Linſburg, belonging to the ſtates-general, are,

Valkenburg, the Falcon's Mountain, or Caſtle, which ſtands on the river Geul, and, though but a ſmall open place, is the capital of a county. By a particular privilege it is exempted from all taxes.

In the upper part of Gelderland, belonging to the ſtates-general, are the following places:

Venlo has its name from its ſituation among low meadows, which is the meaning of its name in Dutch. It ſtands on the right bank of the Maes, ſeven miles diſtant from Gelder to the ſouth, and 17 from Ruremonde to the north. This city is of a ſquare form, and pretty large, having two ſquares; the town-houſe ſtands in one, where they alſo keep a market three times a week; the other is the parade, and place of arms. Here are between 8 and 900 houſes, and about 4000 inhabitants, moſt of whom are Roman Catholics, who enjoy the free exerciſe of their religion. They have but one parochial church, and ſeveral convents. The Dutch Proteſtants have a pretty church here; and this is the only frontier town where there is no French miniſter.

The houſes are very indifferent, and the inhabitants generally ſo poor, that they let their houſes fall to ruin. The magiſtracy is compoſed of a ſchout, a burgomaſter, ſeven ſcheepens, three counſellors, and two ſecretaries. The burgomaſter is changed annually by the ſtates-general, and choſen among the ſcheepens, from a nomination of three preſented to them by the counſellors.

Stevenſweert is a ſtrong fortreſs with ſeven baſtions. It ſtands in an iſland of the Maes, near the borders of the duchy of Cleves, and the biſhopric of Liege, three miles below Maeſyck, and nine above Ruremonde. In the year 1633, after the death of the infanta Iſabella, the marquis of Aitove, whom Philip IV. king of Spain had appointed governor of the Low Countries, till he could pitch upon a more proper perſon, cauſed this fortreſs to be built; and in order to obſtruct the trade of the Dutch up and down the Maes, he cauſed a bridge of boats to be made here, the head of which he fortified.

The principal places belonging to the ſtates-general in Flanders are the following:

Sluys, on the German Ocean, the harbour of which is now almoſt choaked up. The fortifications are remarkably ſtrong, but the air is ſo bad that the garriſon muſt be changed every year. All the other Dutch governors in Flanders are ſubordinate to the governor of this town.

Hulſt is a ſtrong fortified town, ſituated in a fruitful plain, which may be laid under water. The commodity it chiefly deals in is corn, having a canal, or harbour, which communicates with the Weſt-Scheld. The forts and lines by which it is ſurrounded render the approaches to it very difficult; but the air is but indifferent, and moſt of the inhabitants are Papiſts. It gives name to a bailiage, which is of conſiderable extent.

Sas van Ghent is a ſmall but ſtrong town, on a bay of the Weſt-Scheld. Its name ſignifies the Sluice of Ghent; for the inhabitants having dug a canal from hence to that city erected a ſluice here for keeping up the waters. About a mile from the town is a fort called St. Anthony's, which was built for the defence of the ſluice.

Philippine is a ſmall but well fortified town, on the weſtern arm of the Scheld, called Brackman-water. It had its name from Philip II. king of Spain, who cauſed it to be built.

In this part of Flanders is the iſland of Kadſand, or Catſand, which, as well as many other places whoſe names begin with Cat, is ſuppoſed to have been ſo called from the Catti, who formerly inhabited part of the Netherlands. It lies over-againſt Sluys, and is very fertile. To defend it againſt the ſea, to which it is much expoſed in ſtormy weather, ſtrong dykes have been erected, and are kept in repair at a vaſt expence.

The hiſtory of the United Provinces will be included in that of the Netherlands in general.

CHAP.

CHAP XII.

AUSTRIAN FLANDERS, or the AUSTRIAN NETHERLANDS.

THIS province of the Netherlands, bounded on the north by the United Province, on the eaſt by Germany, on the ſouth by ſeveral parts of France, and on the weſt by the German ocean, is 60 miles long and 50 broad.

The ſeveral diſtinct diſtricts are as follow:

BRABANT is bounded on the north by the United Provinces; on the ſouth by Hennegan and Namur; on the weſt by Flanders, properly ſo called; and on the eaſt by Liege. The air is good, and the ſoil fruitful. It is watered by ſeveral rivers, the chief of which is the Demer, or Rupel. There are two fine canals in it, one of which joins the Senne and the Rupel; the other runs from Louvain to the Rupel. Between Louvain and Bruſſels is a fine ſtone cauſeway, and another reaching from Louvain to Thienen and Liege. The ſouthern part, called Walloon-Brabant, is mountainous, but not unfruitful. In Auſtrian Brabant are reckoned 19 walled towns, beſides a great many boroughs and villages. The ſtates of the province conſiſt of the clergy, nobility, and repreſentatives of the chief towns. Theſe ſtates meet four times a year at Bruſſels, In them, and the viceroy, the legiſlative power, and that of levying money, is veſted; but the whole aſſembly muſt be unanimous in paſſing an act. They appoint a kind of committee, of two clergymen and two noblemen, to meet daily during their receſs. There are four hereditary officers of ſtate for this province, viz. the ſeneſchal, the chamberlain, the marſhal, and the guidon: beſides which there are alſo a great huntſman, a great falconer, a great foreſter, a chief juſtice in eyre, and a maſter of the wolf-hunters. The high council of Brabant, which is divided into two chambers, or courts, is chiefly held at Mechlin, where moſt of the provincial cauſes are tried. The Roman Catholic is the only religion of this country; and the number and opulence of the eccleſiaſtics is very great. At Mechlin is the ſee of an archbiſhop, to whom are ſubject the prelates of Antwerp, Ghent, Bois le Duc, Bruges, Ypres, and Ruremonde. In the archbiſhop are 14 collegiate churches, and 203 cloiſters. This, with many other countries, came to the houſe of Auſtria by the marriage of Maria, daughter of Charles the Bold, duke of Burgundy, with Maximilian, archduke of Auſtria. The principal manufactures are lawns, cambrics, and tapeſtry.

The Walloon language, which is ſpoken here, is a mixture of German, French, and Spaniſh. The arms of the duchy are a Lion, Or; in a Field, Sable. Auſtrian Brabant is divided into ſeveral quarters. In the quarter of Louvain the principal places are,

Louvain on the Dyle, 13 miles eaſt of Bruſſels, formerly the capital of the duchy; but at preſent Bruſſels is conſidered as ſuch. Louvain is a place of great antiquity, having been founded by the emperor Arnulphus as a check againſt the Normans. The emperor Charles V. was educated in the caſtle, which long continued the reſidence of the dukes of Brabant. Many aſſemblies of the ſtates have been kept in it. The churches and cloiſters are very numerous and fine, both within and without the town, which is very large, but not populous: for there are many meadows, vineyards, gardens, and orchards, within the walls. The ſtadthouſe and the church of St. Peter are very beautiful. In the 14th century the manufacture of woollen cloths was ſo great here, that there were vaſt numbers of woollen-drapers, and many thouſand of weavers, in the city. When they went from their work, a great bell was rung to give notice to the mothers to keep their children within doors, leſt they ſhould be trampled under feet by that crowd of workmen; but, in proceſs of time, the journeymen weavers, and other tradeſmen, revolted, took up arms, threw ſeveral of their magiſtrates out of the windows of the town houſe, and laid waſte all Brabant: at laſt, however, they were ſubdued, ſome of their ringleaders executed, and moſt of the others baniſhed. Of theſe, many retired to England, and were kindly received. The trade of Louvain has ever ſince been upon the decline, and at preſent is inconſiderable, conſiſting chiefly in the excellent beer which is brewed there, of which great quantities are ſent to the neighbouring cities, eſpecially to Bruſſels. With a view to reſtore this city to its former luſtre, an univerſity was founded in it in 1426, by John IV. duke of Brabant, which enjoys great privileges, granted to it both by the popes and dukes. There are above 40 colleges; and in the hall, where the public exerciſes are performed, are three ſpacious rooms, where lectures are read every morning in divinity, law, and phyſic, to which the ſcholars, in every college, may reſort. The Hollanders have a college here for their Roman Catholic, the Engliſh one of Auguſtine monks, and the Iriſh one of Dominicans, and another of Recollects. To give encouragement to learning, pope Sixtus IV. granted to the univerſity, A. D. 1483, the privilege of preſentation to all the livings in the Netherlands. The church, which belonged to the jeſuit's convent, is admired for the elegance of its architecture. The convent for Engliſh ladies is very capacious and elegant, and more richly endowed than any other in the Low Countries. The burghers of Louvain boaſt that their city was never taken by force. In 1710, indeed, the French entered it by ſtratagem, but were ſoon repulſed with great loſs by the citizens. To reward their fidelity and bravery, Charles, then ſtyled king of Spain, and afterwards emperor, preſented them with a golden key, which is ſtill kept in the town-houſe.

Tienen, on the Ghete, ſeven miles eaſt of Louvain, was formerly a very conſiderable city, but is now greatly decayed. Here are two collegiate churches, the canons of one of which are permitted to marry, but if they become widowers they are not allowed to wed a ſecond time, unleſs they reſign their prebends. No layman has been able to aſcertain the amount of their revenues, as they are bound by oath not to reveal it. They muſt be all natives of the place, and the prebends are in their own gift, ſo that upon the whole they are very opulent. Beſides the above, here are eight nunneries and ſix monaſteries.

Helerve is a town with a ſtrong caſtle, belonging to the duke of Aremburgh and Arſchot; and Limale is a fine borough town.

Gemblours ſtands upon a ſteep hill, encompaſſed on all ſides with precipices, except towards the eaſt, where a little hill hangs over it. It is conſiderable only for its abbey of St. Hubert, of the Benedictine order. The abbot is the firſt nobleman of Brabant, has the title of earl of Gemblours, of which he is a temporal lord, and has, as ſuch, the firſt voice in the aſſembly of the ſtates of Brabant. This abbey has produced ſeveral learned men; and, amongſt others, the celebrated monk Sigebertus, author of the Chronicon Gemblacenſe, well known by the learned: he died here in the year 1112, and his chronicle was continued by abbot Anſelmus till the year 1137, when he died. Gemblours is famous in hiſtory for the victory which don John of Auſtria gained near it on the 31ſt of January, 1578, over the army of the ſtates-general, commanded by Antony de Coignies, who loſt all his cannon, and was himſelf taken

taken priſoner. This defeat was imputed to the abſence of the chief officers of the ſtates, who were then at Bruſſels, and to the jealouſy ſome others had conceived againſt the prince of Orange. In the abbey of this town king William took up his head quarters during a great part of his wars with France.

Dieſt is a little city upon the river Demer, noted for its woollen cloths, hoſe, and other manufactures; as alſo for the excellent beer brewed here, which is ſold in all the neighbouring towns. They keep, on every Aſh-Wedneſday, a famous fair for horſes. This city, with its territory, has the title of a barony, which belonged to king William, and is claimed at preſent by ſeveral of his heirs. There are at Dieſt two collegiate churches, and ſeveral convents of friars and nuns.

The French lines in Brabant running along by this place, it ſurrendered to the duke of Marlborough, when he had forced theſe lines in 1705. But towards the end of the ſame campaign the French re-took it, and diſmantled it. However, at laſt, the allies again got poſſeſſion of it, and it was ceded to the houſe of Auſtria by the peace of Utrecht.

Montaigne, in Flemiſh Scherpen-Heuvel, that is to ſay, Sharp-Mount, and, in Latin, Mons Acutus, which ſignifies the ſame, is thus called from its ſituation on the top of an hill: it ſtands between Dieſt and Sichem; and, though ſmall, is very regularly built, and of an heptagon figure. It is famous for an image of the Holy Virgin, which ſtood formerly in a little nich againſt a tree; but, in the year 1609, the archdukes of Auſtria built here a chapel, or ſmall church, which is become very rich by the offerings of the devotees to that image.

Ramilies is a ſmall village, near 11 miles from Namur, where, in the year 1706, the duke of Marlborough defeated the French, and obtained a ſignal victory.

Lecuwe, on the Ghete, a ſtrong town, ſeven miles from Tienen, is in a marſhy ſituation, which renders it almoſt inacceſſible. The air is extremely bad, on which account the ſovereigns of the county uſed formerly to baniſh delinquents hither.

Landen is famous for the deſperate battle fought near it in the year 1693, between the confederates, under the command of king William and the elector of Bavaria, and the French, commanded by the dukes of Luxemburg, Villeroy, and Berwick, in which the former were defeated.

In the Bruſſels quarter of Brabant the principal places are,

Bruſſels, which gives name to the territory, and is, though but ſecond in rank, not only the capital of Brabant, but of the Netherlands in general. It is 13 miles weſt of Louvain, ſituated on the brow of a hill, and watered by the little river Senne, lat. 50 deg. 51 min. north; long. 2 deg. 30 min. weſt. The proſpect of it at a diſtance is admirable, but, upon entering it, its irregularity is rather diſguſtful to a ſtranger. It is ſeven miles in circumference, (and conſequently too large to hold out a long ſiege,) has ſeven ſtrong gates, and is ſurrounded by a double brick wall, and deep ditches. It is populous, and the houſes are handſome. Here are ſeven beautiful ſquares; in particular, the great ſquare, or market-place, is one of the moſt noble in Europe: around it are the halls of the different trading companies, and the town-houſe. The latter occupies one quarter; and the fronts of the whole are embelliſhed with ſculptures, gilding, Latin inſcriptions, &c. The town-houſe, which is an elegant ſtructure, contains the apartments for the aſſembly of the ſtates of Brabant. They are ſpacious and ſuperb, finely adorned with tapeſtry in gilt frames, and many original paintings. On the top of the ſteeple is the ſtatue of St. Michael killing the dragon, of gilt copper, 17 feet high, which ſerves for a weather-cock. The public buildings in general, particularly the palaces and courts of the ſeveral princes, counts, and other perſons of diſtinction, together with the churches and cloiſters, are large and magnificent. Behind the Imperial palace, that ſtood in the higheſt part of the city, but was burnt down not many years ago, is a park well ſtocked with deer, and planted with trees, like that of St. James's at London, for the inhabitants to walk in. At the farther end of it is a fine pleaſure houſe, built by the emperor Charles V. after his abdication. Of the other palaces, thoſe of the prince de la Tour and Taxis, and of the Engliſh earl of Ayleſbury, are very fine; and of the gardens, thoſe of the Duke of Bournonville are the moſt delightful. In all the palaces are collections of original paintings, by the moſt eminent maſters, both Italian and Flemiſh. The arſenal is well worth ſeeing, on account of the curious antique arms. The opera-houſe is very ſpacious and magnificent, built after the Italian manner, with rows of lodges, or cloſets, in moſt of which are chimnies. Four fine pictures of the markets of Bruſſals, by Rubens and Snyder, which coſt the dukes of St. Pierre 40,000 florins, and for which the French king, Lewis XIV. offered great ſums, are now in the poſſeſſion of the Orford family.

This city is well provided with water, having 20 public fountains, adorned with ſtatues at the corners of the moſt public ſtreets. The lower part of the city is called the Rivage, and is cut into canals, which communicate with the great canal, extending from Bruſſels to the Scheld, 15 miles. By this canal, which was finiſhed in 1561, and coſt the city an immenſe ſum, a perſon may ſail from Bruſſels to the North Sea; and large covered boats, called treck-ſchoots, actually go twice a day to Antwerp and back again. Each boat is drawn by one horſe only, which goes a gentle pace at the rate of three miles an hour, and the fare is about two-pence farthing for every hour. Along the canals, both within and without the city, are fine walks planted with trees, as in Holland, and alſo on the walls. Of the churches, the moſt remarkable is that of St. Gudula, which is an old gothic building on the outſide, but finely adorned within. In the choir are ſeveral fine monuments of illuſtrious princes: and all around it are many pretty chapels, in one of which they worſhip three hoſts, which, they ſay, were ſtabbed in the year 1369, by a Jew, and bled. Theſe are expoſed every feſtival, in a chalice, richly ſet with diamonds; and on the Sunday after the 13th of July there is a yearly proceſſion, in memory of this ſtabbing, when the hoſts are carried round the city, decorated with a great number of precious ſtones, and attended by all the clergy, ſecular and regular, the magiſtrates, courts of juſtice, and the governor of the province. The chapel where they are kept is all of marble, and the altar of ſolid ſilver. Among the cloiſters of all orders here are two Engliſh, one of which is of Dominican ladies, founded by cardinal Howard in the reign of Charles II. of which a lady of the houſe of Norfolk was always to be abbeſs, and the other is of nuns of the Benedictine order. The beguinage here is like a little town, ſurrounded by a wall and deep ditch, and ſubdivided into various ſmall ſtreets and lanes. The number of beguines, who have all ſeparate apartments, amount to above 800: they are governed by four matrons, whom they chuſe out of their own body: their church is very elegant; and they have a confeſſor appointed by the biſhop of Antwerp. Here is a pawnbroker general, or public office, for lending money upon pledges at a moderate intereſt. It is called the Mamit of Piety, and was eſtabliſhed by the archbiſhop Albert and his conſort Iſabella, in the year 1617. Several private paſſages lead to it, ſo that any perſon may enter it without being ſeen going in from the public ſtreets. The inhabitants of Bruſſels ſeem to have had a great predilection for the number ſeven, as

In this city we find ſome footſteps of the ancient fancy for that number; for there are ſeven principal ſtreets that enter into the great market; ſeven ſtately houſes in the market, let out by the ſenate for the uſe of the corporation; ſeven pariſh churches; ſeven noble families, eminent for their antiquity and great privi-

leges; ſeven midwives, licenſed and ſworn by the ſenate, to viſit the poor, as well as the rich, when called; and ſeven public gates of Doric work, remarkable for leading to ſo many places of pleaſure, or different exerciſes; one to fowling, a ſecond to fiſhing, a third to hunting, a fourth to pleaſant fields, a fifth to paſture grounds, a ſixth to ſprings and vineyards, and a ſeventh to gardens.

The city entertained at one time ſeven crowned heads, beſides the dukes of Savoy and Lorrain, with 9000 horſe belonging to their retinues. The inns, or eating-houſes here, are equal to any in the world; a ſtranger may dine at any time betwixt twelve and three, on ſeven or eight diſhes of meat, at a moſt moderate charge. The wines alſo are very good and cheap; and for a meer trifle by the hour you may have a coach to carry you wherever you pleaſe. At the gate of Bruſſels begins the famous wood of Sogne, of great extent, out of which the inhabitants are allowed to cut a great quantity of wood for fuel every year; and as faſt as the trees are cut down freſh ones are planted in their room, by which means the foreſt will continue for ever for the benefit of the poor. This city is the ſeat of the council of ſtate, the privy-council, the council of finances, the war council, and the chamber of accompts of the chancery and fœdal court of Brabant, the court of the grand foreſter, and a particular chamber of accompts for the province of Brabant. The trade conſiſts in camblets, laces, and tapeſtries, manufactured here, and ſent all over Europe. In the year 1695 it ſuffered much by a French bombardment: in 1706 the allies made themſelves maſters of it; and the French in 1746, but it was reſtored by the treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle. Here is a ſtatue of gilt marble, erected by the company of brewers to prince Charles of Lorrain, governor-general of the Auſtrian Netherlands.

At Vilverden, a ſmall town, ſeven miles from Bruſſels, ſtands, on the canal of Bruſſels, the famous William Tindal, who firſt tranſlated the New Teſtament into Engliſh, and ſuffered martyrdom contrary to the law of nations, he being a ſubject of England.

Nivelle is 15 miles diſtant from Bruſſels. It is a pretty conſiderable city, ſince, beſides two collegiate churches, there are five parochial ones, and ſeveral convents, one of which is for polite learning. There are alſo ſeveral nunneries, and a chapter of canoneſſes, who muſt all be the daughters of princes, or at leaſt of noblemen of four deſcents. The abbeſs is ſtiled princeſs of Nivelle, and is appointed by the ſovereign, who muſt chuſe one out of three canoneſſes named to him by the chapter. The abbeſs is ſpiritual and temporal lady of the city, and of its diſtrict. There are 17 villages within the diſtrict of this city. The town enjoys large privileges; and a great quantity of fine linen is made here equal to that of Cambray.

About five miles to the ſouth of this city ſtands the village of Seneſ, famous for a battle fought near it in 1674, between the Dutch, under the prince of Orange, and the French, commanded by the prince of Condé. They fought with great fury on both ſides eight hours during day-light, and two by moon-light; but the moon ſetting obliged them to give over. The French pretended they had carried the day, becauſe they took more priſoners than the Dutch; but the latter remained maſters of the field of battle. There were about 14,000 men killed on both ſides; but the French loſt more men than the Dutch, and had a great many officers of diſtinction killed.

In the Brabant quarter of Antwerp are,

Antwerp, which gives name to the marquiſate of the Holy Roman empire, or of Antwerp. This city is ſituated on the Scheld, 25 miles north of Bruſſels. It is the third in rank in Brabant, extenſive and elegantly built. The houſes are lofty, built of free-ſtone, and have courts before, and gardens behind them. At one end of a noble ſtreet, called Mere-ſtreet, there is a brazen crucifix, 33 feet in height. The cathedral, dedicated to the Virgin Mary, and the ſtadt-houſe, are very magnificent ſtructures. The exchange for merchants is the firſt that was built in Europe, and from which Sir Thomas Greſham took his model of that at London, as did alſo thoſe at Amſterdam. It has four ſpacious gates, oppoſite one another, which are always open; and the walks on each ſide are ſupported by 43 pillars of blue marble, all engraved, but not two of them alike. The length of this exchange is 180 feet, and the breadth 140. Underneath are vaults and magazines for merchants goods; and above is an academy for painting, ſculpture, architecture, and mathematics. This city was once the emporium for trade on this ſide of Europe, being ſituated on the banks of the river Scheld, where ſhips of the greateſt burthen came up to her quays, as upon the river Thames at London. But when the Seven United Provinces were declared a free ſtate, and the navigation of the Scheld was yielded to them by Spain, they built a fort, called Lillo, ſeven miles below this city, on the narroweſt part of the river, to hinder all ſhipping from coming up, except what paid cuſtom to them: and as Fluſhing, in Zealand, is at the mouth of the river Scheld, they took effectual care to render the navigation that way impracticable: ſo that trade took wing from Antwerp to Amſterdam, a town formerly not very conſiderable, but now one of the moſt flouriſhing in Europe. This drove the merchants of Antwerp to turn their heads to jewelling, painting, and banking, which they have continued to this day to the greateſt perfection. Here is likewiſe an excellent manufactory of tapeſtry and lace; and, for the promotion of trade, an inſurance company has been erected. This city is the ſee of a biſhop, who, as abbot of St. Barnard, is the ſecond prelate in Brabant. The biſhopric is of great extent, and the cathedral a moſt noble pile, with one of the fineſt ſteeples in the world. The emperor Charles V. when he made his entry into Antwerp, ſaid it ought to be put in a caſe, and ſhewed only once a year for a rarity. The houſe of the Hans-Towns, built when the city was in its flouriſhing condition, is a ſtately building, with magazines above for dry goods, and cellars below for wet, and in the middle ſtory were 300 lodging rooms for merchants; but now it is turned to a horſe barrack. There is a market here called the Friday's market, becauſe it is held every Friday, where all ſorts of houſehold goods, pictures, and jewels, are ſold by auction. No city in the Netherlands has ſo many and ſuch fine churches as this. Many of them particularly the cathedral and jeſuits church, are adorned with paintings, by Sir Peter Paul Rubens, who was a native of this city; and by Quintin Maſſeys, who is ſaid to have been a blackſmith, but that having fallen in love with a painter's daughter, and been told by her father, when he aſked her of him in marriage, that he would have none but a painter for his ſon-in-law, he went to Italy to ſtudy painting, and, in a few years, returned ſo eminent in his new profeſſion, that he found no difficulty in obtaining the father's conſent. He is interred at the entry of the cathedral, where his effigy is put up, with an inſcription ſignifying, That conjugal love made an Appelles of a blackſmith. The before mentioned church is extremely magnificent, and the chapel of the Virgin, joining to it, ſtill more ſo. Among the cloiſters, the moſt remarkable are the noble and rich abbey of St. Michael, on the banks of the Scheld, the apartments of which are truly royal, and in which all ſovereign princes that paſs this way actually lodge; and the Engliſh nunnery, of the order of St. Tereſa, the nuns of which never wear linen, or eat fleſh, and lie upon ſtraw. The grates of the convent are ſo diſmal that it looks like a priſon.

As to the fortifications of the city, it is environed with a fine wall, planted with rows of trees on each ſide, with walks between, broad enough for two coaches to go a-breaſt; being alſo defended by a very ſtrong, large, regular citadel, in form of a pentagon, erected by the duke of Alva in 1568, which commands the town and neighbouring country. The magiſtracy of

of this city is chosen only out of the seven patrician families, and consist of two burgomasters, and 18 eschevins, besides inferior magistrates. Among the privileges granted to it by its princes there is one by which every person born in it is a citizen, though both his father and mother were foreigners. When the duke of Alençon, brother to the French king Henry III. whom the states-general had appointed governor of the Netherlands, made an attempt, in 1582, to surprize this city, the citizens defended themselves so bravely that they drove the French out of the town, killed 1500 of them, of which 300 were noblemen, and took 2000, with the loss of only 80 men: the duke having, by this step, lost the confidence of the states, retired to France, where he soon died of grief. The siege which this city held out in 1585 against the duke of Parma, governor of the Netherlands, is one of the most renowned in history. The siege lasted a twelvemonth; and he never could have succeeded, had it not been for the stupendous bridge he laid over the Scheld to carry on his attack. Here the celebrated geographer Abraham Ortelius was born. In the noble steeple of the cathedral, mentioned above, are 33 bells, and two chimes, a clock with a diameter of 30 feet, and a cross at top, which is 15 feet in height.

Lier, on the conflux of the Greater and Lesser, Nethe, is a small town, but strong both by art and nature. A paved road leads from hence to Antwerp. Here is a spacious market-place, where once every week, from St. John's day to St. Martin's, they keep a famous market for black cattle. They brew an excellent sort of white beer, called Cavesse, which is very much esteemed all over the Netherlands: they also make lace, which is reckoned equal to that of Mechlin. The chief church, which is a collegiate one, is a fine building, adorned with an harmonious chime of bells. There are several convents and nunneries here: among the latter is that of English barefooted Carmelite nuns. The Carthusians have a monastery, the largest in the Netherlands: the circumference of the walls that enclose the cells and kitchen-garden, is a full English mile, and the monks have a greater privilege granted them by the pope than the other monasteries of that order; for they are allowed to dine together in the refectory every Wednesday; and altho' they eat nothing but fish, they have each a bottle of wine at dinner, and have the liberty, six weeks in summer, to go abroad in coaches to take the air, and to stay out from seven of the clock in the morning till five at night. The monastery is very large, and the cloisters leading to the cells are paved.

Turnhout, a small city, with the title of a lordship, was built by Henry IV. duke of Brabant, about the year 1212. Here is a collegiate church dedicated to St. Peter, the chapter of which is composed of a dean and 12 canons. The regular canons of the priory of Consenbonk have here a college, where they teach polite literature. In the year 1545 the emperor Charles V. gave this city and lordship to his sister Mary, queen of Hungary, to enjoy it during her life. In 1648, after the conclusion of the treaty of Munster, Philip IV. king of Spain, gave it to the princess Amelia of Solms, the widow of prince Frederick Henry of Nassau; by which means this lordship came to the house of Orange. King William III. dying without issue, the lordship of Turnhout was adjudged, by a decree of the sovereign fœdal court of Brabant, issued the 26th of May, 1708, to the king of Prussia, agreeable to the princess Amelia's last will; but on condition that the king should pay a stipulated sum to John William Frisco, prince of Orange.

The lordship of MECHLIN is no more than eight miles in length, and about five in breadth.

Mechlin, situated on the Demer, 15 miles from Antwerp, is the capital. The archbishop takes the title of primate of the Netherlands, and abbot of Affligem, one half of the revenues of the abbey being appropriated to his see. His suffragans are the bishops of Antwerp, Ghent, Ypres, Bruges, and Ruremonde; and, within his archiepiscopal jurisdiction, are 17 cities, and 455 villages. The cathedral is a large and magnificent structure. The clock upon the 4 sides of the tower or steeple is 144 feet in circumference, each figure being above a yard long; and yet so high is the steeple, that, from the market-place, it seems but an ordinary clock. Besides a great number of convents of men and maidens, there is in this city a large beguinage, containing generally 700 beguines, and sometimes more, who make some of the finest Mechlin lace. St. Rombant, who was an Irishman, and bishop of Dublin, is patron of this city. Mechlin is the seat of a governor, a provincial court, and also a parliament or sovereign council, to which appeals lie from most of the courts of justice in the Austrian Netherlands; but from it lies no appeal, except in the causes of the knights of the Golden Fleece, to the sovereign of the order. The city is pretty large and well built, with broad clean streets, driving a considerable trade in corn, blankets, and thread; but their chief manufacture is of those fine laces famous throughout all Europe. Here is a stately arsenal, and a noble hospital for wounded or superannuated soldiers.

The Duchy of LINSBURG is surrounded by Inliers, Luxemburg, and Liege. The country is pleasant, populous, and fruitful; abounds in cattle, mines of iron, lead and calamy, and is well watered. The states consist of the nobility, clergy, and commons; and the principal places are,

Linsburg, which stands on an eminence, is well fortified, has one large street, two strong gates, and a capacious suburb called Dahlem.

At about a mile distance from the city of Roleduc stands the famous abbey of Roleduc, of the order of St. Augustin; it is called Cloosterrode by the people of that country. The abbot is temporal lord of the villages of Marckstein, Kerkenrode, and other places; and is the first member of the states of the province of Linsburg, and perpetual commissary or deputy of the clergy, alternately with the abbot of Valdieu: he is also patron of the parochial church of Roleduc, which he generally bestows on one of the monks of his abbey.

The Duchy of LUXEMBURG is bounded by Liege to the north, by Lorrain to the south, by Treves to the east, and by Champagne to the west. It is nearly square, and extends about 80 miles each way. The air is pure, the land well watered, the soil fruitful, and the country populous. The states consist of the clergy, nobles and deputies; and the religion is Roman Catholic. Three different languages are spoken in this duchy, viz. German, French and Walloon. It lies in the center of the forest of Ardenne, and contains the following places:

Luxemburg, the capital of the province, is divided into Upper or Old Town, and Lower or New Town. The former is surrounded by rocks; and the latter contains two suburbs. Here is a strong castle and regular fortifications.

The city is governed by a richter, or judge, and seven eschevins, or aldermen, who judge both in civil and criminal matters. The richter is chosen every year, on the eve of St. Andrew's festival; that office is held alternately by a citizen, and by one of the aldermen.

The chief church here is that of St. Nicholas, a parochial one, but not very considerable; so that when there is any public act of devotion to be performed, it is always done either in the church which formerly belonged to the jesuits, or in that of the recollects. There are three other parishes in this city; one of which belongs to the abbey of Munster, of the Benedictine order, founded by Conrade I. count of Luxemburg, in the year 1083: besides which there are three convents of men, and as many of maidens.

Arlon was so named from an altar sacred to the moon, which the ancient inhabitants worshipped as a deity. It lies on an eminence, 12 miles from Luxemburg to the north-

north-weſt, and was formerly a conſiderable place, well peopled and fortified, but hath ſince ſuffered by wars, and been diſmantled.

Baſtogne, ſituated in the county of Chiny, near the foreſt of Ardenne, is ſo well peopled, has ſuch a good trade, and is ſo well built, that the people of that country call it Paris in Ardenne. There are in this city two convents of men, and one of maidens. It is the ſeat of a provoſtſhip, containing 145 villages or hamlets within its diſtrict. In this city was born John Beck, a man of mean extraction, who, from being a meſſenger, raiſed himſelf, by his merit and courage, to the poſt of quarter-maſter-general of his Catholic majeſty's armies, and was made governor and captain-general of the duchy of Luxemburg: he was killed at the battle of Lens, in the year 1648.

Marche, or Mache-en-Famene, is a ſmall ity, ſituated on the little river Marſette, on the borders of the county of Namur. It is called Marche-en-Famene, becauſe it is the chief place of a diſtrict called Famene; it is alſo the ſeat of a provoſtſhip, which has 19 villages under its juriſdiction. The parochial church, dedicated to St. Remoalus, is a fine buildi ig. Here is a convent of Carmelite monks, and another of nuns, of the ſame order, and a beautiful college, where they teach polite literature. They keep yearly two free fairs, one the Wedneſday after Eaſter, and the other the 11th of September: this privilege was granted to that city in 1712, by Maximilian Emanuel, duke of Bavaria, whilſt he was in poſſeſſion of the duchy of Luxemburg.

Roche, or Roche-en-Ardenne, ſituated in that foreſt, is one of the ſtrongeſt and beſt fortified towns in the whole province, being ſurrounded with ſtrong bulwarks, and broad ditches full of water, that comes from the river Ourte, which runs acroſs this city: it is alſo defended by a caſtle built on rocks, which commands the town.

In the marquiſate of Le Pont D'Oye are ſeveral ſmall inconſiderable towns.

The Auſtrian part of the duchy of Gelders contains only the little cities of Elmpt and Swalm, with their villages and ſeigniories, and the ſtrong town of

Rwremond, ſituated at the conflux of the Roer with the Maes, 25 miles from Maeſtricht. It is the largeſt town in Gelders, and ſubject to the archbiſhop of Mechlin. A toll is levied here; and in the town are many convents, and a charter houſe.

FLANDERS, properly ſo called, is bounded on the eaſt by Brabant, on the north by the Ocean, on the weſt by Artois, and on the ſouth by Hennegau and Artois. It is 75 miles long, 55 broad, has a good air, and perhaps the moſt fruitful ſoil in Europe. The population is ſuch that it looks like one continued city. The principal rivers are the Scheld, Lys, Scharp, and Dender. The ſtates conſiſt of the nobles, clergy, and commons. The firſt claſs conſiſts of certain families, who have hereditary offices, or baronies; the ſecond includes the biſhops and abbots; and the third is formed of the deputies of cities and diſtricts, the burgomaſters, and penſioners. Moſt of the Flanderkins are fat, clumſy, and dull, but induſtrious, honeſt, and great lovers of liberty. The women, in general, are fair and virtuous, but not remarkable for wit, or the affectation of it. Both ſexes, however, are fond of public diverſions; and every city, town, or village, almoſt, has a kermiſſe, or fair, in which public ſhews are exhibited. The manufactures conſiſt of ſilk, woollen, tapeſtry, lace, cotton, brocades, camblets, and linen.

This country had counts of its own, from the 9th century to 1369, when it went, by marriage, to the dukes of Burgundy; and afterwards from them, by a ſubſequent marriage, to the houſe of Auſtria. France ſeized ſome of the ſouthern parts in 1667; and the ſtates-general, in 1715, obtained ſome part of the northern diſtricts. The arms of this country are, *A Lion, Sable, in a Field, Or.* As we have already deſcribed

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thoſe parts of Flanders which belong to the Dutch and ſhall reſerve ſuch as appertain to France for the enſuing chapter, we have only here to inveſtigate thoſe which own the ſovereignty of the houſe of Auſtria, which are as follow:

Ghent, the capital of Flanders, is ſeven miles in circumference within the walls, (though not above half that ſpace is built upon,) is 28 miles north-weſt of Bruſſels, and 33 eaſt from Oſtend. This city is watered by the rivers Scheld, Lys, Lieve, and Moere; and theſe, together with their branches and canals cut from them, divide the whole into 26 iſlands, which have a communication with each other by means of 26 large and 72 ſmall bridges. Ghent is ſtrongly fortified both by art and nature: it is at once ſecured and commanded by an important caſtle; and the inhabitants can, by ſhutting up the ſluices, lay the country, for a mile round, under water. It was once ſo opulent, powerful, and populous, as to be able to raiſe conſiderable armies, declare war, and oppoſe its ſovereign. In this city the famous emperor Charles V. was born, A. D. 1500; and its firſt biſhop was the celebrated Janſenius, from whom the Janſeniſts take their name. From the tower of Belfort, in the centre of the town, there is a moſt delightful proſpect over the whole, as well as part of the adjacent country. Here are many churches, hoſpitals, monaſteries, and market-places. The market-place, called the Friday's market, is very large, and adorned with a ſtatue of the emperor Charles V. in his imperial robes. The ſtadthouſe is a noble ſtructure; and the cathedral, which is very ſuperb, has, beneath it, a fine crypta, or ſubterraneous church. Here are 50 companies of tradeſmen, and very curious manufactories of cloths, ſtuffs, and ſilks. The chief magiſtrates are the high bailiffs, under whom are burgomaſters, eſchevins, and counſellors. Here are ſeveral canals; in particular one which the ſtates of Flanders cauſed to be begun in 1613, which leads to Bruges; and another, which was begun in 1554, and finiſhed in 1561, which leads to Sas-Van-Ghent, and from thence to the ſea.

The inhabitants of this city are exceedingly fond of chimes, or carillons, as are, indeed, the people of the Low Countries in general. Of theſe carillons, an ingenious writer, eminent for his muſical talents, gives us the following deſcription, in the account of his travels:

"I determined to inform myſelf, in a particular manner, concerning the *carillon* ſcience. For this purpoſe I mounted the town belfrey, from whence I had a full view not only of the city of Ghent, which is reckoned one of the largeſt in Europe, but could examine the mechaniſm of the chimes, as far as they are played by clock-work, and likewiſe ſee the carilloneur perform with a kind of keys communicating with bells, as thoſe of the harpſicord organ do with ſtrings and pipes.

"I ſoon found that the chimes in theſe countries had a greater number of bells than thoſe of the largeſt peal in England; but, when I mounted the belfrey, I was aſtoniſhed at the great quantity of bells I ſaw. In ſhort, there is a complete ſeries or ſcale of ſtones and ſemiſtones, like thoſe on the harpſichord, or organ. The carilloneur was literally *at work*, and hard work, indeed, it muſt be: he was in his ſhirt with the collar unbuttoned, and in a violent ſweat. There are pedals communicating with the great bells, upon which, with his feet, he played the baſs to ſeveral ſprightly, and rather difficult airs, performed with two hands upon the upper ſpecies of keys. Theſe keys are projecting ſticks, wide enough aſunder to be ſtruck with violence and velocity by either of the two hands edgeways, without the danger of hitting the neighbouring keys. The player has a thick leather covering for the little finger of each hand, otherwiſe it would be impoſſible for him to ſupport the pain which the violence of the ſtroke neceſſary to be given to each key, in order to its being diſtinctly heard throughout a very large town, requires.

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"The *carillons* are said to be originally of Aloſt, in this country, and are ſtill here, and in Holland, in their greateſt perfection. It is certainly a Gothic invention, and perhaps a barbarous taſte, which neither the French, the Engliſh, or the Italians, have imitated or encouraged. The carilloneur, at my requeſt, played ſeveral pieces very dexterouſly, in three parts, the firſt and ſecond treble with the two hands on the upper ſet of keys, and the baſs with the feet on the pedals.

"The carilloneur plays four times a week, viz. Sunday, Monday, Wedneſday, and Friday, from half an hour paſt eleven till twelve o'clock. It is conſtant employment for a watch or clock-maker to attend the works of the common chimes: he has an apartment under the belfrey, and it is by him that the carilloneur is played. This place and Antwerp are, according to the inhabitants, the moſt celebrated cities in the Netherlands, and perhaps in the world, for carillons and chimes.

"The great convenience of this kind of muſic is, that it entertains the inhabitants of a whole town, without giving them the trouble of going to any particular ſpot to hear it; but the want of ſomething to ſtop the vibration of each bell, at the pleaſure of the player, like the valves of an organ, and the red cloth in the jacks of a harpſichord, is an intolerable defect to a cultivated ear: for by the notes of one paſſage perpetually running into another, every thing is rendered ſo inarticulate and confuſed, as to occaſion a very diſagreeable jargon. As to the clock-work chimes, or thoſe worked by a barrel, nothing, in my opinion, can be more tireſome; for, night and day, to hear the ſame tune played every hour, during ſix months, in ſuch a ſtiff and unalterable manner, requires that kind of patience which nothing but a total abſence of taſte can produce."

Aloſt is the capital of what is called Imperial Flanders, becauſe it was formerly a free and Imperial city; for which reaſon the earls of Flanders ſtiled themſelves, anciently, princes of the holy empire. This country, which is the moſt eaſtward of Flanders, lies between the Dender, the Scheld, and the province of Hainault. It was formerly of a larger extent, ſince it contained the beſt part of what is now called Dutch Flanders.

Here are ſeveral convents of friars and nuns, and a college where they teach polite literature. The greateſt curioſity is the tomb of Thierry, or Theory Martin, who brought the art of printing hither from Germany: it ſtands in the church of the convent of the Gulielmite monks. He was an intimate friend of Eraſmus, who wrote his epitaph, which is engraved on his tomb.

Oudenarde, or Audenarde, a town, interſected and ſurrounded by the Scheld, is famous for the fine tapeſtries wove in it. It contains many convents, and will ever be memorable in hiſtory for the celebrated battle fought near it by the allies, commanded by the duke of Marlborough and prince Eugene, and the French, commanded by the duke of Burgundy and the duke of Vendome, in which the former obtained a compleat victory.

Ruplemonde, at the conflux of the Ruple with the Scheld, is famous for having given birth to Gerard Mercator, a celebrated mathematician.

Courtray, a ſmall city, ſituated on the Lys, was diſmantled by the French in 1744. The manufactures are of woollen cloths and table-linen. Thielt has a linen manufactory; and Menin was a barrier town, ceded to the Dutch in 1715; but, in 1744, the French ſeized and diſmantled it.

In Bornhem are an ancient priory of Benedictine monks, and a convent of Engliſh Dominican friars. The latter was founded in 1670, by the reverend father Thomas Howard, duke of Norfolk, who was of that ſame order, and afterwards created a cardinal.

Dendermonde, ſo called from its ſituation on the mouth of the river Dender, and from Monde, which, in the Flemiſh language, ſignifies Mouth, is ſtrong both by art and nature. On the conflux of the Dender and the Scheld ſtands a little fort, built about the year 1585, by the prince of Parma, governor of the Netherlands. The ſituation is pleaſant, being ſurrounded with beautiful meadows, watered by thoſe two rivers, which render the whole country round about very fruitful, and contribute, at the ſame time, to the ſtrength of the city, which is very well fortified; for by means of ſluices all the neighbouring country can be laid under water. It has 4 gates, 26 bridges, 16 of which are of ſtone, and the others of timber, and 6 large market-places, or public ſquares. The houſes are large, beautiful, and convenient; moſt of them having a canal before, and fine gardens behind. The town drives a pretty good trade, and the merchants and tradeſmen enjoy great privileges.

There are here two parochial churches, three abbies of maidens, and ſeveral other religious houſes, with an hoſpital.

Dendermonde, and its territory, which contains ſixteen fine villages, are now governed by an high bailiff.

In the year 1607 a countryman found a treaſure between Dendermonde and Aloſt, near the village of Meſpelaer. Digging one morning in his garden, his ſpade hit againſt a little pot, high, but narrow, in which he found 1600 gold pieces, all very old and black, and each of them about the value of a guinea. They were ancient medals, amongſt which were ſome of Antoninus Pius, Marcus Aurelius, and Lucius Verus, which he ſold to the curious; and, amongſt others, to the archduke Albert, who bought a great many of them to enrich his cabinet.

Bruges, 24 miles from Ghent, and 46 from Antwerp, takes its appellation from a chapel, which anciently ſtood here near a bridge. Here are ſeveral fine canals: the waters, however, are ſtagnant, but may always be put in motion by the ſluices of the city; yet they are not fit to drink, or to be uſed for culinary purpoſes. The only waters here proper for domeſtic uſes are ſuch as are brought by pipes from the Lys and Scheld, for which every houſe pays a proportionate tax.

Bruges was anciently an opulent and important city, and hath ſtill the remains of 17 palaces, where formerly ſo many conſuls from different nations reſided, each of which had diſtinct houſes magnificently built with warehouſes, for the merchandizes they exported or imported. The citizens were ſo powerful, indeed, that they impriſoned their ſovereign the archduke Maximilian. This city, however, hath been for many years upon the decline; yet ſeveral rich merchants ſtill reſide here, who meet daily in the great market-place, which ſerves them in lieu of an exchange. It is the ſee of a biſhop, ſuffragan to the archbiſhop of Mechlin; and the dioceſe contains ſix cities, viz. Bruges, Sluys, Oſtend, Damme, Middleburg, and Oudenberch, and 133 boroughs, villages, and hamlets. The cathedral was erected in 865, and is a fine Gothic building. The church, dedicated to the Virgin Mary, is an elegant ſtructure, and has a ſteeple of ſuch an height, that it is ſeen at ſea off Oſtend. It contains two remarkable monuments of gilt copper, the one of Charles the Hardy, duke of Burgundy, and the other of Mary his daughter. Among the numerous curioſities in the treaſury of this church are the rich veſtments of Thomas-a-Becket, archbiſhop of Canterbury: they are finely adorned with diamonds, and other precious ſtones; and were purchaſed and preſented to this church at the time of the Reformation, by Mary, ſiſter to the emperor Charles V. Bruges contains four abbies, and a great number of nunneries, convents, &c. In the Dominicans convent is a very curious pulpit; the wood which ſupports the top is cut in the manner of ropes, and uſed as ſuch. The Carthuſian monaſtery is a mile in circuit; and in the church belonging to the Carmelites is a beautiful monument to the memory of Henry Jermyn, earl of Dover. But the moſt noble monaſtery in the city is the Dunes, of the order of St. Bernard. It conſiſts of two cloiſters, as large as thoſe of Hampton-Court, with great gardens behind. The abbot's apartment is very magnificent, and thoſe of the monks,

monks, in the cloiſters, very neat: they keep a ſumptuous table; and have country ſeats depending on the abbey, where they go to amuſe themſelves.

Of the many nunneries here are two Engliſh; one of Auguſtines, who are all Engliſh ladies of quality, whoſe ſuperior, in 1724, was lady Lucy Herbert, ſiſter to the duke of Powis. The nuns entertain ſtrangers at the grate with ſweetmeats and wine. The other Engliſh nunnery, called the Pelicans, is of a ſtricter order, and coarſer dreſs.

There are few cities where the poor and orphans are ſo well taken care of as in this; for here are ſeveral hoſpitals, and other houſes, for their maintenance. Amongſt theſe there is one called the ſchool of the Boogaards, (i. e. of the Orchards,) founded, in the year 1411, in which 130 orphan boys are educated, and brought up either to learning or to ſome trade, according to their genius or inclination. They are dreſſed in cloth coats, half of which is brown, and the other half red; and they wear flat caps. This ſchool has produced ſeveral biſhops, abbots, and other learned clergymen, who have taken a pride in ſhewing their gratitude, by ſending their pictures to adorn that ſchool.

The ſtreets of Bruges are large and ſtrait, and there are ſeveral fine ſquares, one of which is called the Friday's market-place, where ſix great ſtreets begin that lead in a ſtrait line to the ſix principal gates of the city. At one end of this ſquare ſtands a fine ſteeple, 533 ſteps high, with a curious chime of bells. The ſquare is adorned with ſeveral rows of trees, which afford pleaſant walks to the inhabitants. The ſquare called the Burg, from the caſtle of that name, is ſurrounded with many fine buildings. Several courts of juſtice are here held, as that of the magiſtrates for the city, that of the liberty of Bruges, that of the proveſtſhip and chapter, and the feodal court. The manufactures are woollen and cotton ſtuffs, ſilk, tapeſtries, linen, and lace. In January, 1430, Philip the Good inſtituted the order of the Golden Fleece.

Upres, on the Iperlee, is a barrier town, ſituated in a fruitful country, handſomely built, and the ſee of a biſhop, ſuffragan to the archbiſhop of Mechlin. The convents, churches, and hoſpitals are numerous, and the manufactures are of ſilk and wool.

Newport, a ſtrong ſea-port town on the Iperlee, is one mile from the ſea, and nine from Oſtend. Its harbour is tolerably good, and its ſtrength conſiſts in its ſluices, by which all the country round may be laid under water. It contains ſeveral convents and monaſteries, particularly one of Engliſh Carthuſian friars. In the neighbourhood a famous battle was fought in 1600, between the army of the ſtates-general and the Spaniards, in which the latter were defeated. The chief buſineſs of the inhabitants is rope-making, net-making, and fiſhing.

Oſtend, or Ooſtende, a ſea-port town in the liberty of Bruges, is well fortified, and ſituated in a marſhy ſoil, by the canals through which ſhips of conſiderable burden may approach the city. Many ſtrongs forts ſurround the city; and the harbour is of that nature that it can never be entirely blocked up. This city held out againſt the Spaniards from July 5, 1601, to September 22, 1604, during which time they loſt 80,000 men; and in the city 50,000 periſhed; and 300,000 cannon balls, of 30 lb. wt. each, were fired againſt it. The greateſt inconvenience attending this town is not having freſh water, that neceſſary article being brought in boats from Bruges.

Tournay is a large trading place, and famous for ſeveral manufactories, particularly for admirable ſtockings. The cathedral church, and the abbey of St. Martin, are very magnificent ſtructures. Tournay was taken by the allies in 1709, but ceded to the Houſe of Auſtria by the treaty of Utrecht; though the Dutch put in a garriſon as being one of the barrier towns; but, in 1745, the French demoliſhed the fortifications.

AUSTRIAN HAINAULT, or HENNEGAU, has Flanders to the north, Champagne and Picardy to the ſouth, Brabant to the eaſt, and Namur and Liege to the weſt. It is 48 miles long, 45 broad, fruitful in paſturage and corn, breeds abundance of black cattle and ſheep, is well watered with many rivers and lakes, and abounds with timber, coals, iron, lead, marble, ſlate, &c. In ſpirituals it is ſubject to the archbiſhop of Cambray, and the biſhops of Liege and Arras. The ſtates conſiſt of the clergy, nobility, and commons. The arms are Four Lions in a Field, Or. The principal places are,

Mons, the capital, which ſtands on the river Trouille, and is large and well fortified. The public ſtructures are noble, the buildings in general handſome, and the ſtreets ſpacious. This place has ſome trade, particularly in woollen ſtuffs, of which here are manufactories. Polite literature is taught in two colleges; beſides which here are ſeveral convents and nunneries, and an abbey. St. Waudrau, ſiſter to the celebrated St. Aldegonide, founded a chapter of canonneſſes here. They are 13 in number, muſt prove their nobility by 16 deſcents, and are in the nomination of the ſovereign. In the morning they muſt attend divine ſervice in their canonicals, but during the reſt of the day they are allowed to dreſs as they pleaſe, and amuſe themſelves as they think proper.

Malplaquet is a village about eight miles from this city, where, in 1709, the French army, commanded by the marſhals Villars and Boufflers, were attacked in their triple intrenchments, and entirely defeated with great ſlaughter.

Rœux ſtands in a fruitful ſoil, is well fortified, has ſeveral villages within its juriſdiction, and beſtows on the houſe of Croi the title of earl.

Near Soignies, a ſmall city, ſituated on the river Sonnegue, is the little wood called the Wood of Soignies, which muſt not be miſtaken for the wood of Sogne, which is much larger, and ſtands in Brabant, near Bruſſels and Hall. There are in this city a convent, a nunnery, an hoſpital, and an houſe of the fathers of the oratory, eſtabliſhed in 1629, in which they began to teach polite literature in 1709.

St. Ghiſlain, or St. Guiſlain, is pretty ſtrong by its ſituation on the banks of the river Haine, and by the marſhes that ſurround it. The king of Spain cauſed ſeveral fortifications to be raiſed about it. The French, having made themſelves maſters of it in 1678, reſtored it to the Spaniards, by the treaty of Nimeguen, on condition that it ſhould be diſmantled; and its fortifications were demoliſhed accordingly. The French ſeized it again, after the death of Charles II. king of Spain; and towards the latter end of the year 1708 the governor of Ath, on the part of the allies, took it with a detachment from his garriſon; but the French re-took it a few days after. September the 10th, 1709, the allies took it again, ſince which time the houſe of Auſtria has continued uninterruptedly in poſſeſſion of it.

This city is famous for an abbey of Benedictine monks, founded here in the year 651, by St. Guiſlain, a native of Greece, who is ſaid to have been a biſhop. The emperor Charles the Great enlarged the revenue of this abbey, and cauſed a magnificent church to be built there: he gave at the ſame time the ſpiritual and temporal lordſhip of the city to the abbot, who is alſo ſtiled primate of Hainault.

Leſſines ſtands in a beautiful plain, on the little river Dender, near the borders of Flanders. There are in this city one pariſh church, an hoſpital, a convent of Dominican friars, and a nunnery. It is famous for its manufactory of linen.

Chievres, a ſmall city, about nine miles diſtant from Mons, being an open place, has ſuffered very much during the wars.

Hall, or Halle, on the Senne, ſeven miles from Bruſſels, is famous for an image of the Virgin Mary, enſhrined in gold, with a crown of the ſame on the head,

head. In one hand is an image of Our Saviour, in the other a roſe gilt.

Binch, ſituated on the river Haine, is an ancient and pleaſant city, built in a fruitful country, which abounds in all ſorts of game, and the air is very wholeſome. The French became maſters of this city in 1668, by the ſecond article of the treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle; after which they repaired it, and added ſome new fortifications; but it was ruined again in the ſubſequent wars, and the fortifications demoliſhed. It was reſtored to the Spaniards by the peace of Nimeguen, ſince which time it has continued in the poſſeſſion of the houſe of Auſtria.

At a mile and a half diſtance from Binch ſtands the abbey of Bonne Eſperance, or Good Hope: it is inhabited by monks of the order of Præmonſtratenſes: and in this neighbourhood there is alſo an abbey of Ciſtertian nuns, called the abbey of de l'Olve, or, of the Olive.

Brain-le-Comte, ſo called to diſtinguiſh it from Braine-Laleu, and Wauter-Braine, two boroughs in Brabant, is ſituated on the paved road which was made in 1705, and is 12 miles diſtant from Mons to the north-eaſt, and 16 from Bruſſels to the ſouth-weſt. In 1652 the king of Spain gave this city to the houſe of Aremberg, in exchange for the manor of Sevenbergen; ſo that the duke of Aremberg is now lord of it, and of the caſtle ward, which contains 11 villages.

Anguien, or Enghein, which ſtands in a valley, 14 miles diſtant from Mons, with its territory, or bailiwick, was formerly the firſt barony in the county of Hainault; it came to the houſe of Bourbon, with ſeveral other lordſhips, by means of Mary of Luxemburg, counteſs of St. Paul, and lady of Anguien. The title of count of Anguien a long time belonged to a branch of the houſe of Bourbon, and was at laſt raiſed to that of a duke, and annexed to the city of Nogent-le-Rotrou, in the province of Perche in France. It was afterwards transferred to the barony of Iſſoudun, in Berry. The eldeſt ſon of the prince of Condé is now always ſtiled duke of Anguien.

Braine-le-Chateau is a village which, in 1681, was raiſed to a principality, under the name of Tour and Taxis; and Ligne is a conſiderable village, which gives name to a principality.

Fontenoy is a village on the Scheld, where the French, under marſhal Saxe, gained a victory over the allies in 1745.

Between Anguien and Hall ſtands the village of Steenkirk, or Steenkerken, famous for the battle fought here Auguſt 3, 1692, between the army of the allies, commanded by king William, and by Maximilian Emanuel, elector of Bavaria, governor of the Netherlands, and the French, under the command of the duke of Luxemburg.

NAMUR is ſurrounded on all ſides by Brabant and Liege, except towards the weſt, where it is partly bounded by Hainault. It is 30 miles long, 28 broad, well watered, and very fertile. The ſtates conſiſt of the clergy, nobles, and deputies of the town; but an appeal lies from the council of the province to the grand council of Mechlin. The arms are a Lion Sable, in a Field Or, with a dexter Feſſe drawn over the whole Shield. The principal places are as follow:

Namur, the capital, at the conflux of the Maes and Sambre, over which there is a bridge, is ſituated 30 miles from Bruſſels. It is one of the ſtrongeſt towns in Europe, defended by a formidable caſtle, more than a dozen forts, and other important fortifications. It is the ſee of a biſhop, ſuffragan to the archbiſhop of Mechlin. The dioceſe contains 8 cities, 300 villages, and innumerable abbies, churches, religious houſes, &c. Beſides the provincial council and town magiſtracy, a feudal court, called Bailiage, is held here, from which an appeal lies to the grand council at Mechlin.

Charleroy, a ſmall but ſtrong city and fortreſs, ſtands on a hill, near the conflux of the Sambre and the little river Pieton. It was yielded to the French in 1668, by the treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle, and reſtored to the Spaniards by the peace of Nimeguen, in 1678. In 1692 the French bombarded this place; and the next year they ſat down before it with a numerous army, the marquis de Villeroy carrying on the ſiege, whilſt the marſhal of Luxemburg covered it; ſo that king William, and the elector of Bavaria, not being ſtrong enough to attack them, they carried the town by ſurrender, after a gallant defence by the marquis de Caſtillio, governor of the place, who held out againſt them 27 days open trenches, and capitulated, on honourable terms, October 1. It was reſtored to the Spaniards, by the treaty of Ryſwick, in 1697; but after the death of king Charles II. the French ſeized it again, and kept it till the peace of Utrecht, when they were obliged to evacuate it to the emperor. It is a place of very great importance, being ſituated near the borders of Hainault.

In the neighbourhood of this city ſtands the abbey of Soleilmont, conſiſting of nuns of the Ciſtertian order, founded in the year 1088, by Philip, count of Namur.

Charlemont ſtands on the top of a mountain, at the foot of which runs the river Maes. The ground on which it is built belonged formerly to the country of Liege; but the biſhop granted it to the emperor Charles V. who built there a caſtle with a ſmall city, which he annexed to the earldom of Namur in 1555.

Bouvines is a ſmall city on the left bank of the river Maes. The mayor has a right to ſit in the aſſembly of the ſtates of the province. In the year 1554 the French took it by aſſault, and ſacked it. It was defended only by the inhabitants of whom the French made a prodigious ſlaughter. Part of them were drowned in the river, and thoſe who were taken were hanged; becauſe, though they were not in a condition to defend the town, they were ſo obſtinate as not to ſurrender till a breach was made in the walls. This place is conſiderable only for being a paſs between the provinces of Namur and Luxemburg.

Near Bouvines are to be ſeen the ruins of an ancient city called Chevremont, which was very ſtrong, the inhabitants of which were notorious for their robberies. They defended themſelves very courageouſly againſt king Charles the Simple in 922 againſt king Otho in 939, and againſt the archbiſhop of Cologne in 990, but at laſt their city was taken, and levelled with the ground, in 992, by Norger, biſhop of Liege.

Fleur, about ſix miles diſtant from Charleroy, is famous for two battles fought in its neighbourhood. The firſt happened Auguſt 30, 1622, between Don Gonzales de Cordoua, general of the Spaniſh army, and Erneſt, count of Mansfeld, and Chriſtian duke of Brunſwic, biſhop of Halberſtadt. The latter were beaten and loſt their cannon and all their baggage. The duke of Saxe-Weimar was killed in the battle, and the duke of Brunſwic had an arm cut off. However, the count of Mansfeld, after a retreat, which proved more glorious to him than a victory would have been, marched through Brabant with 4000 horſe, and 3000 foot, and joined the prince of Orange, who, by that means, was able to force the marquis of Spinalo to raiſe the ſiege of Bergen-op-Zoom. The ſecond battle was fought July 1, 1690, between the confederate army, commanded by prince Waldeck, and the French, under the command of Marſhal de Luxemburg. The confederates were routed, had 5000 killed, 4000 taken priſoners, and loſt 49 great guns, &c. but the French ſuffered alſo very much, ſince, notwithſtanding the great advantage they had gained, they were not able to undertake any thing during the remainder of the campaign.

CONCISE HISTORY OF THE NETHERLANDS IN GENERAL.

THE Seventeen Provinces, and that part of Germany which lies to the weſt of the Rhine, was called Belgica Gallia by the Romans. Upon the decline

cline of that empire, the Goths, and other northern people, poſſeſſed themſelves of theſe provinces, and afterwards erected themſelves into ſmall governments, the heads of which were deſpotic within their own dominions. At length they came into the ſole poſſeſſion of the houſe of Burgundy in the year 1433. The emperor Charles V. the heir of that family, transferred them, in the year 1477, to the houſe of Auſtria, and ranked them as part of the empire, under the title of the Circle of Burgundy. The tyranny of his ſon Philip, who ſucceeded to the throne of Spain, made the inhabitants attempt to throw off his yoke, which occaſioned a general inſurrection. The counts Hoorn and Egmont, and the prince of Orange, appearing at the head of it, and Luther's reformation at the ſame time gaining ground in the Netherlands, his diſciples were forced by perſecution to join the malecontents. Upon this king Philip introduced a kind of inquiſition, in order to ſuppreſs them, and many thouſands were put to death by that court, beſides thoſe that periſhed by the ſword. The counts of Hoorn and Egmont were taken and beheaded; but the prince of Orange, whom they elected to be their ſtadtholder, retiring into Holland, that and the adjacent provinces entered into a treaty for their mutual defence at Utrecht, in the year 1579. Their perſeverance and courage were ſuch under the prince of Orange, that, together with the aſſiſtance afforded them by queen Elizabeth, both in troops and money, they forced the crown of Spain to declare them a free people in the year 1609, and afterwards they were acknowledged by all Europe to be an independent ſtate, under the title of the United Provinces.

After the independency of the Seven United Provinces was acknowledged, the Spaniards remained poſſeſſed of the other ten provinces, or, as they were termed, the Low Countries, until the duke of Marlborough, general of the allies, gained the memorable victory of Ramilies, in the year 1706; after which, Bruſſels, the capital, and great part of theſe provinces, acknowledged Charles VI. afterwards emperor of Germany, for their ſovereign; and his daughter, the late empreſs queen, remained poſſeſſed of them until the war of 1741, when the French reduced them, except part of the province of Luxemburg, and would ſtill have poſſeſſed them, but for the exertion of the Dutch, and chiefly of the Engliſh, in favour of the houſe of Auſtria. The places in the poſſeſſion of France, diſtinguiſhed by the appellation of French Flanders, will be enumerated and deſcribed after our deſcription of France in the following chapter.

CHAP. XIII.

FRANCE.

IN giving a geographical deſcription of this country, we hardly know what ſyſtem to lay down on which to purſue our hiſtory. At the time of the publication of the firſt Edition of this Work, France was a kingdom, under an abſolute monarch, who had in himſelf the power of making laws, of impoſing taxes, impriſonment, and even of life. A revolution however has taken place, ſo wonderful and extenſive in its effects, that not a veſtige of monarchy remains; the feodal ſyſtem is totally extirpated; nobility and all hereditary diſtinctions are aboliſhed; the treaſures and revenues of the churches, abbeys, and monaſteries, have been appropriated to the ſervice of the ſtate; and in civil ſociety they have declared all men to be equal. A deputation of perſons from all parts of the republic, elected by general ſuffrage, forms now the ſupreme power of the land, under the name of "the Convention." To obtain as equal a repreſentation as poſſible, the geographical diviſions of the country are changed; and France is now divided into 84 departments, each department including a diſtrict of about 18 leagues ſquare. The preſent unſettled ſtate of this country, ſubject as it is to various new arrangements, as the governing power ſees expedient, inclines us however for the preſent to continue the old diviſion of the country, introducing only the following table of the departments, accompanied with a reference to the province or provinces in which the department lies. The departments in ſome inſtances include more than one of the former provinces, and in others one province forms ſeveral departments.

TABLE OF DEPARTMENTS.

departments	formerly the province	diſtricts	chief cities
1. Paris	Iſle of France	3	Paris
2. Seine and Oiſe	Iſle of France	9	Verſailles
3. Seine and Marne	Iſle of France	5	Melun
4. Aube	Champagne	6	Troyes
5. Yonne	Burgundy	6	Auxerre
6. Loiret	Orleanois	7	Orleans
7. Eure and Loire	Bauce	6	Chartres
8. Orne	Normandy and Perche	6	Alençon
9. La Manche	Normandy	7	Coutances
10. Calvados	Normandy	6	Caen
11. Eure	Normandy	6	Evreux
12. Lower Seine	Normandy	7	Rouen
13. L'Oiſe	Iſles of France	9	Beauvais
14. Somme	Picardi	5	Amiens
15. Pas de Calais	Artois and Boulonnois	8	Arras
16. Du Nord	French Flanders and Hannault	8	Douay
17. Aiſne	Soiſſonnois and Vermandois	6	Laon
18. Ardennes	Champagne	6	Mezieres
19. Marne	Champagne	6	Chalons
20. Meuſe	Barrois	8	Bar-le-Duc
21. Moſelle	Lorraine	9	Metz
22. Meurte	Lorraine	9	Nancy
23. Voſges	Lorraine	9	Epinal
24. Lower Rhine	Alſace	4	Straſburg
25. Upper Rhine	Alſace	3	Colmar
26. Upper Soane	Franche Compté	6	Veſoul
27. Doubs	Franche Compté	6	Beſançon
28. Dura	Franche Compté	6	Dole
29. Cote d'Or	Bourgogne	7	Dijon
30. Upper Marne	Champagne	6	Chaumont
31. Nievre	Nivernois	9	Nevers
32. Cher	Berry	7	Bourges
33. Allier	Bourbonnois	7	Moulins
34. Creuſe	Marche	7	Guerat
35. Indre	Berry	6	Chateauroux
36. Vienne	Poitou	6	Poitiers
37. Indre and Loire	Touraine	7	Tours
38. Loire and Cher	Blaſois	6	Blois
39. Sarte	Maine	9	Le Mans
40. Mayenne	Maine	7	Laval
41. Iſle and Vilaine	Bretagne	9	Rheims
42. Cote du Nord	Bretagne	9	St. Brieux
43. Finiſtere	Bretagne	9	Quimper
44. Morbihan	Bretagne	9	Vannes
45. Lower Loire	Bretagne	9	Nantes
46. Maine and Loire	Anjou	8	Angers
47. Vendée	Poitou	6	Fontenay le Compte
48. The two Sevres	Poitou	6	Niort
49. Charente	Angoumois	6	Angouleme
50. Lower Charente	Aunis and Saintonge	7	Saintes
51. Gironde	Guienne	7	Bourdeaux
52. Landes	Marſan and Chaloſſe	4	Mont-de-Marſan
53. Lot and Garonne	Guienne	9	Agen
54. Dordogne	Perrigord	9	Perigueux
55. Upper Vienne	Limoſin	6	Limoges
56. Correze	Limoſin	4	Tulles
57. Cantal	Auvergne	4	Saint Flour
58. Puy-de-Dome	Auvergne	8	Clermont
59. Upper Loire	Velay	3	Le Puy
60. Ardeche	Dauphiny	3	Privas
61. Rhone and Loire	Lyonois	6	Lyon
62. Saone and Loire	Bourgogne	7	Macon
63. Ain	Breſſe	9	Bourg
64. Iſere	Dauphiny	4	Grenoble
65. Drome	Dauphiny	6	Valence
66. Upper Alps	Dauphiny	4	Embrun
67. Lower Alps	Provence	5	Digne

departments	formerly the province	districts	chief cities
68. Var	Provence	9	Toulon
69. Bouches du Rhone	Provence	6	Aix
70. Vaucluſe	Comtat, Venaiſcin, and Carpentras	3	Avignon
71. Gar	Languedoc	8	Nimes
72. Herrault	Languedoc	4	Montpellier
73. Lozere	Gevaudan	7	Mende
74. Aveiron	Rouvergue	9	Rhodez
75. Tarn	Languedoc	5	Caſtres
76. Lot	Querci	6	Cahors
77. Upper Garonne	Languedoc	8	Toulouſe
78. Gers	Gaſcogne	6	Auch
79. Lower Pyrenees	Baſquefet Bearn	6	Pau
80. Upper Pyrenees	Bigorre	5	Tarbes
81. Arriege	Couferon and Foix	3	Taraſcon
82. Eaſtern Pyrenees	Rouſſilon	3	Perpignan
83. Aude	Languedoc	6	Carcaſſonne
84. Corſica (iſland)			Baſtia

*** Corſica has ſince been conquered by Great Britain.

SECTION I.

Name, Extent, Boundaries, Climate, Soil, Rivers, Mountains, Minerals, Vegetable and Animal Productions, &c.

FRANCE derived its name from the Francs, or Freemen, a German nation, reſtleſs and enterprizing, who conquered the Gauls, the ancient inhabitants; and the Roman force not being able to repreſs them, they were permitted to ſettle in the country by treaty.

This extenſive and populous country is 600 miles in length, and 500 in breadth; being bounded on the weſt by the bay of Biſcay; on the eaſt by Germany, Switzerland, and Italy; on the north by the Engliſh Channel and the Netherlands; and on the ſouth by the Mediterranean and Pyrenean Mountains, which divide it from Spain.

The air of this country is, in moſt parts, mild, temperate, and wholeſome, but not ſo particularly ſalubrious as has been aſſerted. It muſt be acknowledged, indeed, that the French have been but too ſucceſsful in giving the inhabitants of Great Britain falſe prepoſſeſſions in favour of their own country. It muſt alſo be confeſſed that the weather is more equal than in England, but at the ſame time the winters, particularly in the northern provinces, are much colder; and what is worſe, the inhabitants are not ſo well ſupplied with fuel.

The ſoil, in many places, is admirable, and produces not only the conveniencies, but moſt of the luxuries of life. In general the fruits are much finer, and higher flavoured, than thoſe of England; but the paſturage and tillage are not equal to ours. In ſeveral diſtricts the ſoil is burnt by the heat; and the people hitherto have not attended to cultivation as they do in England. The French however have endeavoured to ſtimulate the peaſants to greater induſtry, by inſtituting academies of agriculture, and propoſing premiums for its improvement, as in England.

The ſprings and running ſtreams of this country produce excellent water, which, by means of engines, and a variety of hydraulic inventions, are rendered ſubſervient to all the purpoſes of domeſtic and public utility.

The principal rivers are the following:

The Loire, which takes its courſe north and north-weſt, extending, in all its windings, 500 miles, till it diſcharges itſelf into the ſea at Nantes.

The Garonne, which riſes in the Pyrenean Mountains, takes its courſe at firſt north-eaſt, and has a communication with the Mediterranean Sea, by means of a canal, the work of Louis XIV.

The Seine runs north-weſtward, waters in its courſe Troyes, Paris, and Rouen, and then diſcharges itſelf into the Britiſh Channel at Havre de Grace.

The Soane falls into the Rhone at Lyons. The Charante diſcharges itſelf into the Bay of Biſcay at Rochfort. The Rhine riſes in Switzerland, is the eaſtern boundary between France and Germany, and receives the Moſelle and Sette in its paſſage. The Somme runs north-weſt through Picardy, and falls into the Engliſh Channel through Abbeville. The Varre riſes in the Alps, runs ſouth, divides France from Italy, and falls into the Mediterranean weſt of Nice. The Adour runs from eaſt to weſt through Gaſcoigne, and falls into the Bay of Biſcay through Bayonne; and the Rhone, which riſes in Switzerland, flows on ſouth-weſt to Lyons, and then runs on due ſouth till it falls into the Mediterranean below Arles.

In the Rhone grows the *Valliſneria*, a plant conſiſting of a ſmall root, with a few long leaves riſing from it, and, in the midſt of them, a ſtalk of two or three feet in length, but ſo weak, that it is not able to ſupport itſelf erect. On the top of each ſtalk is one ſingle flower, in ſome degree reſembling a ſingle flower from a bunch of jeſſamine. It appears to be abſolutely neceſſary to the well-being of the plant, that every part of it ſhould be immerſed in water, except juſt the flower at the top of each ſtalk. And the heat of the ſun is requiſite to opening the ſeeds contained in the cup of the baſe of them: now the Rhone, wherein this plant grows in great abundance, is a river of uncertain depth, and that in places very near one another. The Rhone is alſo, of all rivers, the moſt apt to be ſwelled by ſudden floods. In this caſe how is the plant, that was juſt flowering in its proper manner, at four feet depth, to be kept in the neceſſary ſtate of having that flower above water when the depth is increaſed to ſix? Or how is it to be kept from falling on the ſurface of the water, and rotting, when the depth decreaſes, and leaves a foot or two of a naked ſtalk, which is unable to ſupport itſelf? All this is provided for by the great Author of Nature; for the ſtalks are not ſtrait, but twiſted in a ſpiral form, in the manner of a cork-ſcrew, or rather in the manner of thoſe ſprings of wire, which we ſee made by wrapping the wire round a ſmall ſtick. By this formation the ſtalks of this plant have a power of extending and contracting themſelves in length, and this ſo ſuddenly, that let the riſe or fall of the water be ever ſo quick, the lengthening or ſhortening of the ſtalks accompany it, and the flower of the *Valliſneria* is kept juſt at the ſurface of the water: by this means the ſun has power to ripen the flower till the ſeeds are ſcattered on the ſurface of the water in perfect ripeneſs, where they float a little while, but, when thoroughly wetted, ſink, and take root at the bottom. To prove to ocular demonſtration what is ſaid of this plant, ſeveral of them have been put into veſſels of water, ſome of them with ſtalks ſo long, that one half of them was above the ſurface of the water; others with them ſo ſhort, that they were immerſed ſeveral inches under it; but in a few hours they had each adapted the length of their ſtalks to the depth, and the flower of every one was floating juſt on the ſurface.

The great advantages which France derives from her rivers are much augmented by artificial canals. Here are but few lakes: one at the top of a hill near Alegre is ſuppoſed to be bottomleſs; and another at La Baſſe cauſes a noiſe like thunder when a ſtone is thrown into it. The chief mountains in France, or its borders, are the Alps, which divide France from Italy; the Pyrenees, which divide France from Spain; Vaugue, which ſeparates Lorraine from Burgundy and Alſace; Mount Jura, which divides Franche Compte from Switzerland; the Cevannes in the province of Languedoc, and Mount Dor in the province of Auvergne.

The waters of Bareges, which lie near the borders of Spain, under the Pyrenean Mountains, are admirable in their effects. The Sulteybach waters, in Alſace, cure the ſtone, palſy, and weak nerves. At Bagneres, not far from Bareges, are ſome excellent mineral ſprings and baths. The waters of St. Amaud are efficacious in the gravel and obſtructions: and at Aigne, in Auvergne, is a ſpring which boils up violently, and is of ſo poiſonous a quality that birds and beaſts who drink of it die almoſt inſtantly.

France abounds in marble and free-ſtone. In Languedoc, there are veins of gold and ſilver, as well as turquoiſes,

turquoiſes, the only gem this kingdom produces; Alſace contains ſilver and copper; Brittany has mines of iron, tin, lead, and copper; and in other parts are found alabaſter, jaſper, coal, chalk, oker, &c.

The roots, herbs, and other vegetable productions of France, are much finer than thoſe of England, and conſequently their ſoups, ſallads, &c. are ſuperior to ours. The principal objects of cultivation among the French are their vines, and the excellency of the wines they produce is univerſally acknowledged; in particular, the wines of Champagne, Burgundy, Bourdeaux, Gaſcony, and thoſe called Hermitage, Frontiniac, and Pontacke, are much admired, not only for their pleaſant taſte, but ſalubrious qualities.

Elm, aſh, and oak, are produced in France, but the latter is not ſo good as that which grows in England. At Rhee, Rochfort, and their vicinity, great quantities of ſalt are made. The herb called kali, which grows in Languedoc, furniſhes abundance of pot-aſhes; and prunes and capers are produced near Bourdeaux and Toulon.

The horſes, black cattle, and ſheep of France, are far inferior to thoſe of England; and the wool is not ſo fine; but the hair and ſkin of the ſhamon, or mountain goat, are ſuperior to ours. There are few other animals, either wild or tame, in France, but what are common to England, wolves excepted. Theſe ferocious creatures do much miſchief, and are greatly dreaded by thoſe perſons who reſide near woods or foreſts. The wolf is the largeſt and fierceſt animal of the dog ſpecies, and partakes ſomewhat of the nature of a dog. He has a wild look, ſhining eyes, ſharp teeth, ſhort neck, and a blackiſh colour. He bears hunger long, has a howling voice, oblong blunt muzzle, ſhort ears, and a thick tail.

SECTION II.

Particular Deſcription of the ſeveral Provinces or Governments into which France was divided before the Revolution.

IN the government of PARIS there are ſeveral very conſpicuous places, of which we ſhall treat in their order, beginning with the capital.

Paris, the metropolis of France, is ſituated on the river Seine in the Iſle of France, being one of the largeſt and fineſt cities in Europe. It derives its name from the ancient Pariſin, and had formerly, as it is imagined, the Latin name of *Lutetia*, from the word *lutum*, which implies *mud*, as it was originally founded on a marſhy ſoil. Paris has been the reſidence of the French monarchs for upwards of 800 years, that is, ever ſince the reign of Hugh Caput. The form is circular, and, with the ſuburbs included, it is about 16 miles in circumference. The computed number of inhabitants is about 500,000; and it contains, excluſive of public ſtructures, upwards of 20,000 houſes, and 912 ſtreets. The greateſt inconvenience of Paris is the almoſt general want of good water, that of the Seine being deteſtable. The only water proper to drink is conveyed to Paris from the neighbouring village of Arcueil. Many of the ſtreets are tolerably well paved and lighted. The whole that goes under the denomination of Paris contains a prodigious aſſemblage of palaces, caſtles, ſuperb hotels, academies, libraries, gates, bridges, market places, fountains, hoſpitals, convents, churches, the univerſity, &c.

But to deſcend to particulars: that part of Paris called La Cité contains three iſlands, which are formed by the branching of the Seine, and are thus named, L'Iſle de Palais, L'Iſle de Notre Dame, and L'Iſle Louviers. This diviſion is the principal part of Paris, and contains the following ſtructures. Several bridges, ſome being of wood, and others of ſtone; but moſt of them have a row of houſes on each ſide. The principal of theſe are Pont-Neuf, Pont-Royal, ſince the revolution called Pont de la Nation, and Pont de la Liberté. Pont-Neuf conſiſts of 12 arches, and has a carriage way in the middle 30 feet broad, and foot walks on each ſide raiſed two feet high. In the center was formerly a braſs ſtatue of Henry IV. on horſeback, but in the time of the revolution it was thrown down and a guard-houſe is erected on the ſpot. A building, called La Samaritaine, is likewiſe erected on this bridge. It is ſo named from a group of figures upon it, repreſenting Our Saviour and the Samaritan woman ſtanding near Jacob's well. Here is a pump to raiſe the water, which, by means of pipes, ſupplies the quarter of the Louvre, and ſome other parts of the town.

Pont-Royal, or Pont de la Nation, croſſing the Seine to the Thuilleries, was built of ſtone by order of king Lewis XIV. in the room of a wooden bridge that was carried away by the violence of the current, February 20, 1684. The foundations of this bridge were laid October 25, 1685, and it was finiſhed in a little time, at a moderate expence, though it is one of the ſtrongeſt in the country. A Dominican friar, named Romain, had the direction of it.

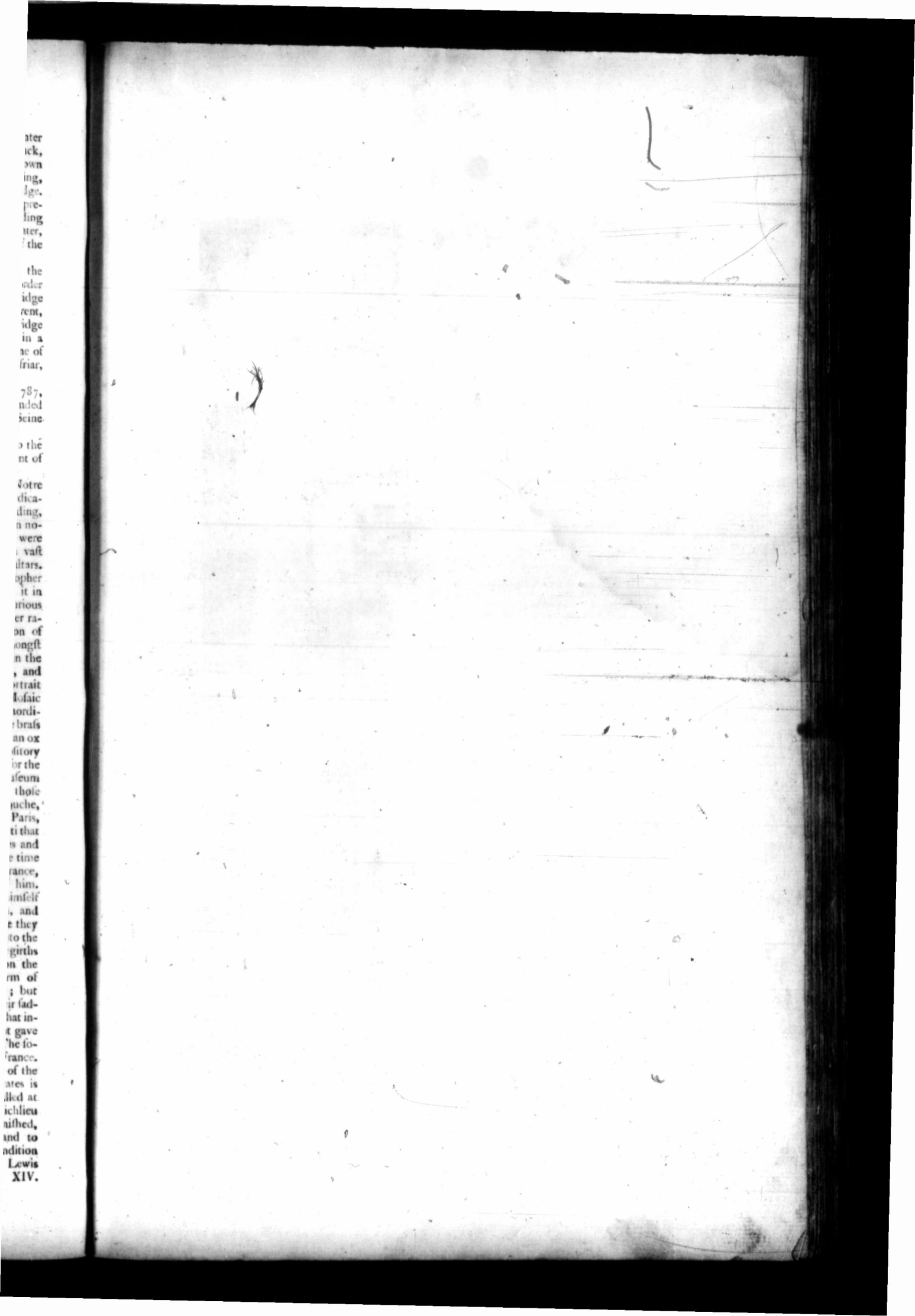
The Pont de la Liberte was begun in the year 1787, under the reign of Lewis XVI. and was then intended to be named Pont de Louis Seize. It croſſes the Seine at the foot of the Palais Bourbon.

Paris is an archbiſhop's ſee; and, according to the new conſtitution, is the capital of the department of the ſame name.

The cathedral church, ſtiled L'Egliſe de Notre Dame, i. e. Our Lady's Church, becauſe it is dedicated to the Holy Virgin, is an ancient Gothic building, compleated at ſeveral times, but more ſtrong than noble. In this church, before the revolution, there were a great many fine paintings, rich tapeſtry, and a vaſt quantity of ſilver and gold plate for the uſe of their altars.

In the church of St. Genevieve the great philoſopher Des Cartes has a tomb, with inſcriptions upon it in Latin and French. Here is a library, with a curious collection of coins, medals, antiquities, and other rarities belonging to this convent. The collection of minerals and foſſils is very conſiderable. Amongſt the rarities there is the ſkeleton of a man dried in the ſands of Africa, with all the muſcles complete, and exactly preſerved: there is likewiſe a good portrait picture of ſtone in exceeding ſmall teſſeræ of Moſaic work. In a cabinet of coins there are ſome extraordinary relics of antiquity; a Roman aſſis, and a ſquare braſs plate of the weight of four aſſis, with the figure of an ox upon it. In ſome of the diviſions of this repoſitory are a multitude of dies of ſteel, made at Padua, for the ſtriking of counterfeit Roman coins. In the muſeum of St. Genevieve are many curioſities beſides thoſe already mentioned, particularly the head of Cartouche, the highwayman, exactly taken in plaiſter of Paris, the moſt politic and adventrous captain of banditti that ever the world produced; but all his adventures and eſcapes at length ended upon the wheel. At one time this famous robber was concealed at an inn in France, to which a party of dragoons came in queſt of him. He put on the dreſs of a prieſt, introduced himſelf into their company, dined and drank with them, and talked upon the affair of Cartouche; but before they roſe from table, he took an opportunity to ſlip into the ſtables, and throw off his habit; then cutting the girths of all the other horſes, he mounted himſelf upon the beſt of them, and as he rode off gave an alarm of Cartouche. The dragoons ran out to take horſe; but when they had put their feet into the ſtirrups their ſaddles turned round; and the delay and confuſion that interfered before they could enter upon the purſuit gave him an opportunity of eſcaping for that time. The ſociety of St. Genevieve is one of the richeſt in France.

Near the church of Notre Dame is the palace of the archbiſhop, in which the library of the advocates is kept. Le Palais Royal, or the royal palace, was called at firſt Le Palais Cardinal, becauſe cardinal de Richlieu built it, in the year 1636. As ſoon as it was finiſhed, he made a preſent of it to king Lewis XIII. and to his ſucceſſors being kings of France, on condition that it ſhould never be alienated. However, Lewis XIV.



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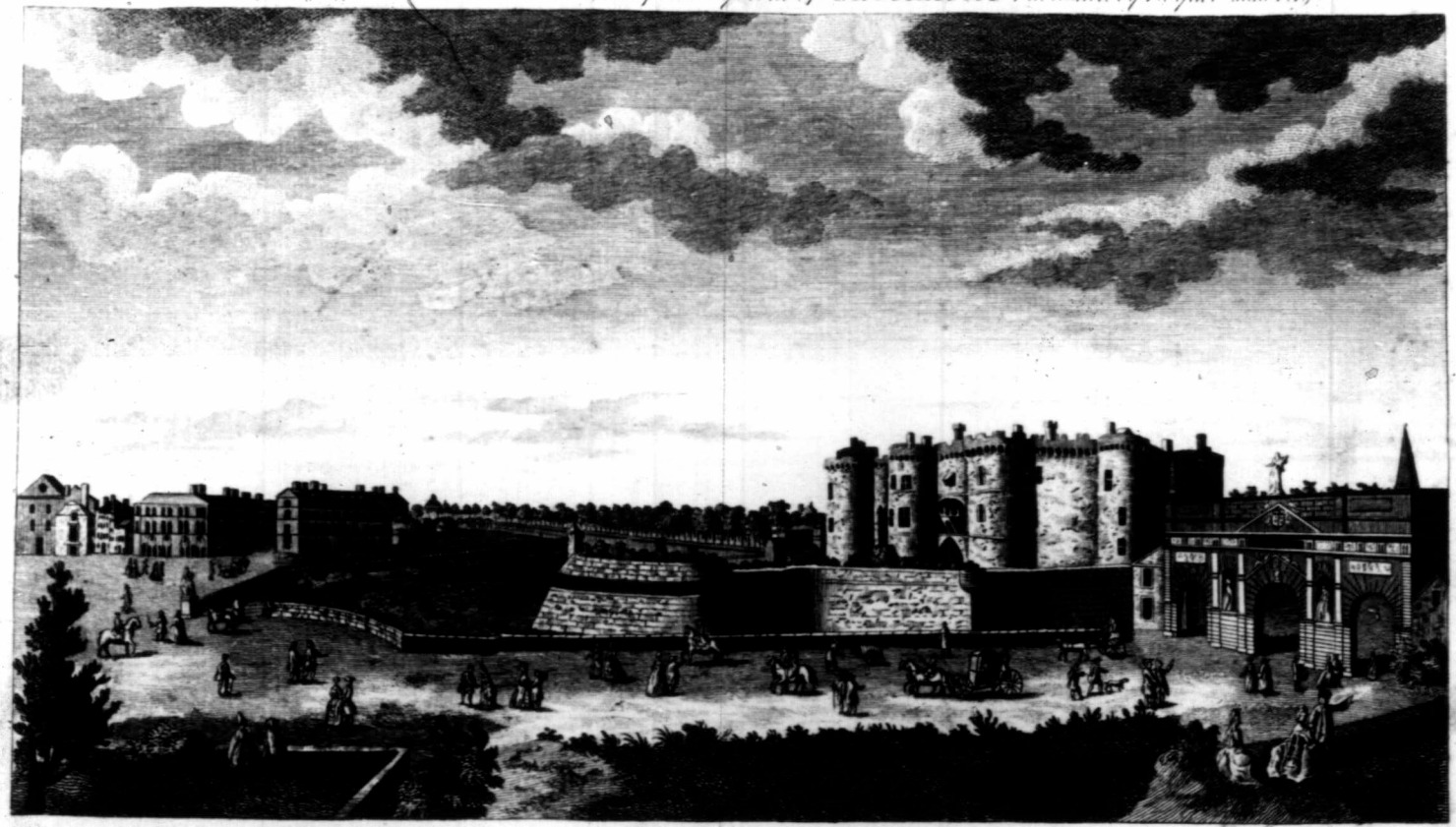

View of the BASTILE St Anthony's Gate and part of the Fauxbourg of PARIS.

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XIV. gave firſt the uſe, and afterwards the property, of it to his only brother Philip, duke of Orleans. It conſiſts of ſeveral ſets of buildings ſeparated by large courts, and is adorned with fine gardens. Several new apartments have been added to it ſince the cardinal's time. The whole court was lodged in it during the regency of queen Anne of Auſtria, mother to Lewis XIV. whence it had the name of the Royal Palace. Since the revolution le Palais Royal has been named le Jardin de la Revolution.

The palace, where the parliament of Paris uſed to meet, was anciently the reſidence of the kings, but was given to the officers of juſtice by Philip the Fair, who fixed the parliament at Paris. The great hall was built according to the plan of another very ancient one that was here, round which ſtood the ſtatues of the kings. This was the place where theſe princes gave audience to the ambaſſadors. The grand chamber is contiguous to the great hall. It was built in the reign of St. Lewis, who uſed to give audience there publicly, and labour himſelf to make up the differences and diſputes which aroſe among his ſubjects. Lewis XII. repaired this chamber, as it is at preſent; but the other chambers are much finer than this, the roofs of ſome being gilt and painted very beautifully. The court of aids had a juriſdiction diſtinct from that of the parliament, and held its meetings in three particular chambers adorned with fine ceilings.[a] The chancery was kept in that part of this palace called the gallery of the priſoners; for in this palace was the royal priſon or goal belonging to the parliament, called, la Conciergerie.

The Hotel Dieu is the moſt capacious as well as the moſt ancient hoſpital in Paris; and here 8000 ſick and infirm people are taken care of, and properly attended by the nuns of the order of St. Auguſtine.

The obſervatory is a building compoſed of ſtones exactly ſquare, and uncommonly maſſy. By the flatneſs of the roof, which is paved with bricks, the wet has penetrated, and, by waſhing the mortar from the joints of the ſtone, has hurt the whole ſtructure. From the northern window there is a delightful proſpect of the city of Paris. The domes that ariſe in different quarters, the palaces, monaſteries, churches, and public buildings, every where diſtributed, and the rural verdure of gardens and public walks, intermixing itſelf with the whole, form as rich a view as can well be preſented to the eye; and the perfect clearneſs of the air, in which no ſmoke is viſible, permits the ſpectator to take in every part of it without interruption. Through the center of the whole building of the obſervatory there is a circular well, which is continued as far under the ground as the building itſelf is raiſed above it, and at this depth, which you deſcend by a winding ſtair-caſe of ſtone of 170 ſteps, there are ſubterraneous paſſages or narrow alleys, with ſtone walls on each ſide, which ſeem more extenſive than the building itſelf, and branch out into many directions. They conduct you to a cave or grotto, from the roof of which the water, having penetrated all the way from the top of the obſervatory, diſtils conſtantly to the floor, and there forms a petrefied cruſt. This edifice was erected in the reign of Lewis XIV. when all the arts and ſciences as the French uſed to expreſs themſelves, ran at his command. On the floor of the upper ſtory is a line of braſs upon the pavement which is the meridian that was afterwards continued to the ſouth of France, by a ſucceſſion of trigonometrical operations, and even into Spain itſelf.

The Louvre is reckoned the chief ornament of the city of Paris; and was built or repaired under the reign of Philip Auguſtus, in the year 1214. It was a caſtle that ſtood without the city. Near it, on the banks of the river Seine, they built a large tower, called the Tower of the Louvre. It defended the river, together with another tower, that ſtood over againſt it, named the Tower of Neſle. In this tower were ſometimes kept the treaſures of the French kings. It was pulled down when the foundations of what is called the Old Louvre were laid, under Francis I. His ſon Henry II. employed the moſt eminent and celebrated architects of his time to render this building as regular and magnificent as could be. What is called the Old Louvre conſiſts of two ſets of buildings, that form an interior angle, the fronts of which are adorned with very fine pieces of architecture. The whole building is three ſtories high. The firſt is of the Corinthian order, the ſecond of the Compoſite, and the third of the Attic. The fore or outward courts are adorned with chamfered columns, and the other with pilaſters of the ſame order with thoſe columns. What is chiefly admired is the proportion of the windows of the ſecond ſtory, the caſes of which are adorned with a pediment alternately triangular and circular. The third ſtory, of the Attic order, has alſo its particular ornaments, conſiſting in trophies of arms, in baſſo-relievo fixed to the window caſes, with other ornaments in the entablatures. In the hall of the hundred Switzers is a kind of gallery ſupported by four gigantic figures. This hall was formerly uſed for great entertainments; and queen Catharine de Medicis cauſed plays and interludes to be acted here for the diverſion of the court. Henry IV. built a gallery along the river ſide, quite to the Thuilleries, which is very long, and eſteemed the fineſt in Europe: under it is the printing-houſe, and the lodgings of many curious artiſts in painting. Lewis XIII. finiſhed the front to the weſt, and built a large pavilion, in the form of a dome, in the middle, over the gate, which is ſupported by two rows of very large pillars of the Ionic order, and alſo adorned the architrave of the front to the court with fine ſculptures. Lewis XIV. beſtowed great coſts upon the eaſt front, in the middle whereof is the eaſt gate of the palace: here are forty columns of the Corinthian order, which ſupport a large terrace, that is railed with a ſtately baluſtrade. The court, which is in the middle of that large building, is very near twenty-three perches ſquare; the four ſides of it are compoſed of eight pavillions, and eight ſets of buildings, which ſurround that great court: there are yet but about three parts of it built. The architecture, after the manner it is begun, is to conſiſt of three orders of columns, with their pedeſtals; the firſt of the Corinthian, and the two others of the Compoſite order.

Lewis XIV. who declared himſelf the protector of the French academy, gave that illuſtrious body an apartment in the Louvre to hold their aſſemblies in; as alſo to the academy of medals and inſcriptions, and to the academy of ſciences. The academy of architecture and painting meet in the old Louvre. In the gallery of the Louvre is the printing houſe, eſtabliſhed by cardinal de Richlieu.

In the wardrobe of this palace is a prodigious quantity of rich tapeſtry-hangings, both ancient and modern, the fineſt of which were made in the reign of Francis I. Amongſt them are the battles of Scipio, and the triumphs of the ſame general; the hiſtory of Joſhua, made after the deſigns of the famous Raphael; the hiſtory of Pſyche; the acts of the apoſtles; the hiſtory of St. Paul, &c. Lewis XIV. cauſed ſeveral tapeſtries with gold and ſilver to be made, after the deſigns of Le Brun. There were alſo here, in ſeveral rooms, a large quantity of ancient arms; amongſt which were thoſe which Francis I. wore at the famous battle of Pavia; and on his cuiraſs there were the marks of the blows he received before he ſurrendered to the Spaniards.

In the hoſpital dedicated to St. Catherine poor women and maidens are allowed to ſojourn, and are entertained three days, being attended by the nuns of St. Auguſtine. In the grand chatelet the ſeſſions were held by the inferior courts of juſtice. Fort L'Eveque contained a mint and a priſon, and is cloſe to the ſpot where Henry IV. was ſtabbed by Ravillac. St. German l'Auxerrais was termed the pariſh church royal, becauſe the Louvre and Thuilleries are ſituated in its pariſh.

The Thuilleries is joined to the Louvre by a gallery which

which contained 180 models of fortreſſes that are executed with great accuracy.

The Thuilleries, or Tuleries, ſtands in a place where formerly they made tiles, called Tuiles in French, from whence that palace has its name. It is one range of building, with a pavilion at each end, and a dome in the middle: before it is an handſome large ſpace divided into three courts; the whole adorned with columns, pilaſters, and other ornaments. Behind this palace are gardens, adorned with fine walks, planted with ever-greens, and other trees, and fine parterres; where were to be ſeen, the year round, all the flowers that are in ſeaſon. It has alſo three fine fountains, with their baſons, and a large octagonal canal. Towards the river is a fine terrace planted with three rows of trees. From this terrace is a moſt beautiful proſpect over part of the city, and over the adjacent country. A beautiful walk opens on the banks of the river beyond the Thuilleries, which is compoſed of four rows of fine elms, that form three avenues, being together 120 feet broad. In the centre is a ring with trees planted round it in a circular manner, and at each end are iron gates. The National Convention meet here.

The Baſtille, which was deſtroyed at the beginning of the revolution, was a kind of fortreſs, conſiſting of eight large round towers, joined together by other ſtrong buildings. In the year 1634 it was ſurrounded with ditches and baſtions. It was a priſon for ſtate criminals, and for ſuch as were taken up by lettres-de-cachet, that is to ſay, by warrants ſigned by the king, and ſealed. In it the king kept a governor, a lieutenant, and an independent company of ſoldiers.

The National Library, under the reign of Lewis XIV. was a ſtately palace, built by cardinal Mazarine, the inſide of which has been altered, and conſiſts now of ſeveral large and lofty rooms, in which the numerous books are ranged in very good order. Here is the ſhield of Scipio Africanus, which was found in the Rhone about 600 years ſince. In the library are a pair of globes 20 feet in diameter.

La Place des Victories, or Victory Place, is a kind of circus, in which ſtood a noble ſtatue of Lewis XIV. erected to his honour by the duke de Fuillade. The king's ſtatue was of maſſy braſs, 30 feet high, clad in his robes, with a Victory behind him, of the ſame bulk and metal, putting a crown on his head, and poiſed with her foot on a globe. Under her feet was a three headed Cerberus, to repreſent Lewis XIV. triumphing over the triple alliance, and this inſcription under it, *Viro immortali*, "To the immortal man." The whole mould was caſt at once, and weighed above 30,000 pounds. The pedeſtal was 22 feet high, which, with the maſſy piece of mold the ſtatue ſtands upon, made the whole near 40 feet high. Upon the pedeſtal were four ſlaves of braſs, with baſſo relievos of the king's battles and conqueſts. Under the pedeſtal was a pavement of marble encloſed within ſtately iron grates. There were ſeveral inſcriptions upon the pedeſtal alluding to the king's great actions. This ſtatue was thrown down at the revolution.

In the church of St. Roche the celebrated poet Corneille is interred; Moliere is buried in the church-yard of St. Joſeph; and the famous ſtateſman Colbert has a fine monument in the church of St. Euſtace. The gates of St. Denis and St. Martin were both erected in the form of triumphal arches, in compliment to Lewis XIV.

La Greve is an open place, appropriated at once to joy and tribulation; for malefactors are ſometimes executed here, and at other times public rejoicings are celebrated on the ſame ſpot. The Hotel de Ville is a large but whimſical building, as the main part is of Gothic architecture, and the columns are of the Corinthian order. The arſenal contains many ſpacious buildings, particularly a foundery and ſalt-petre houſe. Here is likewiſe a muſquetoon of two barrels, the balls of which will pierce a thick board at the diſtance of ſix miles; and for diſcerning an object at that diſtance, there is a teleſcope fixed to the barrel. The Temple, till the time of the revolution, was a commandery of the knights of Malta. Here Lewis XVI. and his family were confined after monarchy was aboliſhed. Its precinct was a privileged place for debtors. In the church belonging to the houſe, which was formerly called La Maiſon Profeſſe des Jeſuites, the hearts of Lewis XIII. and Lewis XIV. were preſerved in caſkets of gold, and ſupported each by two angels of maſſy ſilver as large as the life, repreſented as hovering with expanded wings.

Of the public ſpectacles the Comedie Françoiſe is the chief. This theatre is ſpacious, and, when filled, has a ſplendid appearance.

The theatre of the Comedie Italienne is built on the ſame plan as that of Comedie Françoiſe. It ſometimes conſiſts of a farrago of French and Italian, and of comedy, farce, and pantomime.

The opera is the moſt ſuperb ſpectacle of Paris, and excellent in its decorations, ſcenery, and dancing. The houſe is ſpacious, and, in general, well filled.

Amongſt the diverſions of the metropolis of France, a Britiſh traveller gives the following account of that of bull baiting. "The place appointed for this diverſion is a ſmall amphitheatre built of wood. Around the arena, in the ancient manner, are the caves and dens for the beaſts of combat; and over theſe are the boxes and galleries for the ſpectators. It began with various combats of wolves, bears, and wild boars, with maſtiffs; but the bull was reſerved as a finiſhing ſtroke to ſatiate the cruelty of the ſpectators. It was not long before my curioſity was ſufficiently gratified. The bull, in ſpringing to the firſt dog that entered, broke off his horn, cloſe to his head, againſt the wall. He was then defenceleſs; but they continued to ſend in maſtiffs to the number of 14, that were ſuffered to hang about him till he fell to the ground. This I did not ſee, for I could not ſtay the concluſion; but I heard from my ſervant, whom I left there, he was devouring alive for more than two hours, and that his noſe, tongue, eyes, and throat, were eaten, before he expired. Join with me here in retorting back on the French the appellation they beſtow on us of *peuple barbare*."

The palace of Luxemburg was built by Mary de Medicis on the ruins of the old Hotel or houſe of Luxemburg, which name it kept. It was finiſhed in five or ſix years time, under the direction of James de Broſſe; and is one of the moſt perfect and regular pieces of architecture in France. In this palace is a gallery of painting, done by the famous Rubens, who ſpent two whole years on that work. The whole hiſtory of Mary de Medicis's life is here repreſented allegorically, in 24 large pictures, nine feet broad, and ten feet high, placed in the piers between the windows.

The quarter called the Univerſity ſtands in the ſouth of the iſlands of the palace, and of our lady. It was formerly encloſed by a wall, and ſurrounded with ditches; but under the reign of Lewis XIV. the wall was pulled down, and the ditches filled, to make it contiguous to the neighbouring ſuburbs. That of St. Germain is the moſt conſiderable, and is alone larger than the whole quarter called the Univerſity; but it is not ſo populous, becauſe of the great number of hoſpitals, large houſes or hotels, and gardens that take up a great part of it. Adjoining to this ſuburb are that of St. Michael, which is but ſmall; that of St. James, which is pretty large; and that of St. Marceau, which is larger ſtill: the laſt of all, which is the neareſt to the river on the eaſt, is that of St. Victor, which is very large, but not built all over.

The univerſity was founded by Charles the Great, and is appropriated to the cultivation of the arts, ſciences, &c. in general, and phyſic, law, and divinity in particular. It contains above 40 colleges, the principal of which are, the colleges of Sorbonne, Navarre, the Four Nations, and Phyſicians.

Public

Public lectures are read only in the four principal. The rector, who is the head of the univerſity, is choſen every three months; the profeſſors have ſettled ſalaries.

The Gobelins is a houſe ſo called from one Gobelin, an eminent dyer, who removed from Rheims to Paris, under the reign of Francis I. and bought that houſe. He found out the ſecret of dying in that beautiful ſcarlet colour called, from his name, the ſcarlet of the Gobelins. Lewis XIV. bought that and ſome others, where he eſtabliſhed a manufactory of the fineſt tapeſtries; and ſettled a number of gold and ſilver ſmiths, embroiderers, painters, carvers, and other artificers in every branch that relates to ſplendor and magnificence. Here are many things of moſt curious workmanſhip.

The general hoſpital is a very humane and noble foundation for the poor of the female ſex, great numbers of whom are here provided for: thoſe who are well are compelled to work, but the ſick are tenderly nurſed, and carefully ſupplied with every neceſſary. Different wards are reſpectively aſſigned for foundlings, ſempſtreſſes, idiots, proſtitutes, &c. As this general hoſpital is appropriated to females only, the caſtle of Bicetre is a kind of counterpart, and appointed for the relief of ſimilar neceſſities in the male ſex; and likewiſe for another purpoſe, viz. the puniſhment of children who lead diſſolute lives, or are undutiful to their parents.

The phyſic garden was firſt founded in the year 1626, by order of Lewis XIII. and finiſhed in 1634. There were at firſt four profeſſors of botany, in the room of whom the king eſtabliſhed, in 1671, two demonſtrators of the plants, one of whom is obliged to make the analyſis, or chemical demonſtration of them. There is alſo a laboratory where they read lectures of chemiſtry, and a particular hall for anatomical demonſtrations; and in the year 1712 there was another demonſtrator added, whoſe office is to read lectures upon the Materia Medica.

St. Victor's abbey contained an excellent library of curious manuſcripts, as well as printed books, and many admirable maps, prints, &c. To the college of phyſicians belong five profeſſors. The academy of ſurgery was inſtituted in 1731. The convent of Franciſcans was the richeſt in France. The convent of Carthuſians contained many fine paintings; and, in the ſame quarter, are ſome remains of the palace of Julian the apoſtate. In the hotel des Ambaſſadeurs ambaſſadors extraordinary are entertained for the ſpace of three days, and thoſe from remote countries during their reſidence at Paris.

The abbey of St. Germain de Prez contained a cabinet of curioſities, a valuable library of printed books, and a great number of manuſcript volumes. The hotel des Invalides, for diſabled ſoldiers, was erected by Lewis XIV. for the maintenance of lame and ſuperannuated officers and ſoldiers; the buildings being ſo enormouſly extenſive as to cover 17 acres of ground, and the chapel is magnificent. Near the hoſpital of invalids is a military academy for the inſtruction of 500 young gentlemen in every thing relative to the art of war.

The ſeveral academies in Paris that deſerve to be particularly mentioned are the following.

1. The Academie Françoiſe, or French Academy, founded by cardinal Richlieu for the improvement of the French language, in ſuch a degree as to reduce it to a determinate ſtandard. It conſiſts of forty members, who meet at ſtated times to ſuperintend the inſtitution, and promote the ſame by every probable means.

2. The Academy of Inſcriptions and Belles Lettres, inſtituted for the advancement of polite literature. In this academy ancient monuments are explained, and public tranſactions perpetuated by medals, inſcriptions, &c.

3. The Academy of Sciences, inſtituted in 1666, has its honorary members, penſioners, aſſociates, and ſtudents. Theſe apply themſelves to the different branches of the mathematics and natural philoſophy.

4. The Academy of Painting and Sculpture, founded in 1643. The maſter-pieces of the painters and ſculptors admitted into this academy are diſpoſed in different halls, and marked with the names of the ſeveral artiſts.

5. The Academy of Architecture was founded in 1671, but not authorized by letters patent before the year 1717. It is divided into two claſſes; the firſt is compoſed of 10 architects, a profeſſor, and a ſecretary, and the ſecond of 12 other architects. The profeſſor, whoſe poſt, as well as the ſecretary's, is for life, is obliged to read public lectures on ſtated days.

All theſe eſtabliſhments relate to arts and ſciences. There are others deſigned for the improvement of virtue, and promoting religion. Before the revolution there were 10 of theſe ſeminaries at Paris, among which was one for Engliſh, and another for Iriſh prieſts; and moſt of the biſhops had ſuch ſeminaries in their dioceſes.

Compariſons have been and are frequently drawn between this metropolis and that of England. The natives of the reſpective nations have, doubtleſs, been influenced by that patriotic attachment almoſt inſeparable from human nature, and miſrepreſentations have been the unavoidable conſequence. We ſhall not therefore pronounce deciſively on the matter; but having thus given the moſt accurate account of the metropolis we could procure, ſubmit it to the candid and intelligent reader; though we frankly confeſs a bias of opinion in favour of London, and we preſume we ſhall be juſtified therein by impartial travellers.

The neighbourhood of Paris is very pleaſant, and contains a great number of towns, villages, &c. and ſome fine ſeats. Among the laſt in this government are the palace of Meudon; another at St. Maur des Boſſex; the palace called Conflans, near the conflux of the Seine and Marne; one at Iſſy, which belonged to the prince of Conde; another at Rambouillet; and thoſe called Maiſons and Colaguy.

In the government of the Iſle of FRANCE is included a part alſo of Perche, Picardy, Brie, Gatinois, Beauce, and all Le Vexin François. It is fruitful in grain, fruits, and wine, and contains the following remarkable places:

St. Denis, commonly called St. Denis en France, which lies about two leagues from Paris to the north. Here is an abbey of great antiquity, dedicated to St. Denis, the patron, or tutelar ſaint of France. It has an elegant garden, and before the revolution contained a rich treaſure, in which were alſo kept the crown jewels. In its church are the ſepulchres of the French kings, the princes and princeſſes of the blood, and other great perſonages, particularly that of marſhal Turenne. The convent, which was of the benedictine order, and, with its precincts, was immediately ſubject to the pope, had a conſiderable income, together with the lordſhip of the town. This town is noted for its fairs.

Vincennes, a palace hard by Paris, ſtanding in a fine park, or wood, called Le Bois de Vincennes, which appertained to the king, together with the palace. The park is very large. The caſtle was uſed as a ſtate priſon, and the avenue leading to it is planted with four beautiful rows of elms.

Montmorency, an ancient but ſmall town, contained a convent of monks. The ancient dukes of Montmorency took their title from this town, and in the church their tombs are yet to be ſeen.

Corbel, ſituated at the conflux of the Eſſorne and Seine, had ſeveral convents, churches, two bridges, and an hoſpital, and the chief trade is in ſkins.

Charenton, on the Maine, was formerly celebrated for the reſort of Hugonots; but the revocation of the edict of Nantz drove them from thence:

For perſecution no excuſe admits:
Men muſt believe whate'er the bigot fits.

Creſpy, 11 miles from Paris to the north-eaſt, contained

tained one convent and two churches, and belongs to the Orleans family.

Senlis, on the Nenette, is upwards of 20 miles north of Paris. The air is remarkably good, on which account many of the royal children of France have been nurfed in the caftle. It was a bifhop's fee till the time of the revolution.

Chantilly is a fmall town. It has a fine feat, which was the property of the princes of Condé, and its fituation is uncommonly pleafant. Here is a cabinet filled up in the palace for the reception of a choice collection of foffils. Almoft every beauty of the mineral kingdom is here difplayed in great abundance, with all its exquifite diverfity of colour, fpars, and precious ftones, ftudded by chance in lumps of rich ore, fo as to have as fine an effect as the hand of art is capable of giving.

Compeigne, on the Oife, 13 leagues north-weft of Paris, is the place where the Maid of Orleans was taken prifoner by the Engliih in 1430. Here is a palace, which was repaired by Lewis XIV. and the gardens finely laid out; with a Benedictine abbey dedicated to St. Cornelius. The trade of this place principally confifts of corn, wood, and wool.

At Villers Corteretz, a little town five leagues from Compeigne to the fouth eaft, at the fide of the foreft of Retz, is a fine palace belonging to the family of Orleans, and an abbey. To this place the late duke was banifhed by Lewis XVI. for proteiting againft the proceedings of the king in regiftering an edict in parliament.

Soiffons, a bifhop's fee. It is an ancient city, and is fituated feven leagues from Paris to the north-eaft, in a pleafant valley on the banks of the river Aifne, over which there is a ftone bridge. The town is pretty large and well built. The bifhop had the right to anoint the French kings during the vacancy of the archiepifcopal fee of Rheims, or in the archbifhop's abfence. It drives a great trade in corn. Here is an old caftle, and an academy, whofe object is the fame as that of the French academy at Paris.

Noyon, on the Vorfe, is a place of antiquity, capacious, and handfomely built on the declivity of a hill. It contains feveral churches, fountains, 2 hofpitals, and the fame number of public gardens. It has great trade in wheat and oats, many manufactories, gives name to a territory called Le Nayonnois, and was the place of nativity of the celebrated John Calvin. It was the fee of a bifhop till the revolution.

Laon, 22 leagues north-eaft of Paris, is a handfome town, which enjoys a very fine air. It contains feveral churches, has a caftle, cathedral, and college, and was the fee of a bifhop till the revolution.

Gerbori is a fmall town, about five leagues from Beauvais, near which, in 1435, the Engliih, under the command of the earl of Arundel, were totally defeated.

Beauvais, the capital of the province of Beauvaifis, is 14 leagues north weft of Paris. A bifhop's fee. This city contains, befides feveral churches, convents, and courts of juftice, manufactories of woollen, linen, ferge, tapeftry, &c. In the new divifion of France, Beauvais is the capital of the department of Oife.

Pontoife, on the Oife, the capital of Vexin-Françoife, is five leagues north-weft of Paris, and contained two converts and feveral courts. Over the river it has a good bridge, from which it receives its name. The parliament of Paris was banifhed hither in 1720 and 1753.

Dreux, a very ancient town, fituated on the little river Blaife, about 13 or 14 leagues from Paris to the weft, is fuppofed either to have given name to the Druids, or to have borrowed its name from them. Here is a woollen manufactory. A great battle was fought near this town in 1562, between the Roman Catholics and the Hugonots, in which the latter were defeated.

St. Cloud is fituated on the Seine, two leagues below Paris. The family of Orleans has a palace here, with very fine gardens.

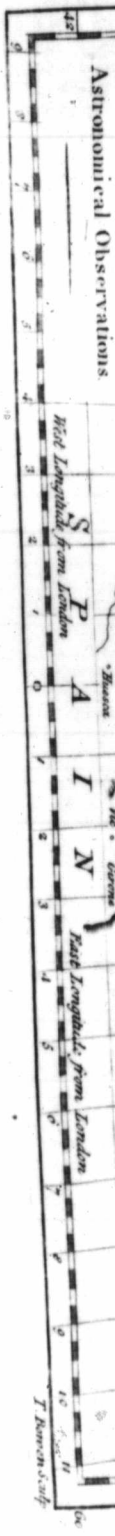
Verfailles is a bifhop's fee, and is fituated four leagues from Paris. Lewis XIV. built a moft magnificent palace here, and adorned it with noble gardens: it ftands on a rifing ground in the middle of a valley furrounded with hills, having, on the fide towards Paris, a fine avenue leading to it through the town, which it divides into the Old and New. Prior to the depofition of Louis XVI. the apartments of the palace abounded with innumerable paintings, ftatues, antiques, &c. all of which have been removed, and the palace is now uninhabited. The chapel, built in 1699, is a moft finifhed piece of architecture, fculpture, and painting. Verfailles, under the new conftitution, is the capital of the department of Seine and Oife.

Every room in this noble palace had a particular name, taken from the chief fubject painted on the ceiling. As for inftance, the hall or chamber of plenty, La Sale d'Abondance, becaufe plenty and liberality were painted on the ceiling. Here were feveral pictures, as, the Holy Virgin on a column of jafper, holding the infant Jefus in her arms, and furrounded below with feveral pilgrims, done by Pouffin; the Virgin Mary and St. Joleph flying into Egypt, by Guido; the woman cured of a bloody-flux by Our Saviour, done by Paul Veroneie, &c. The hall of Venus has that goddefs painted on the ceiling, fitting in a chariot drawn by doves, the gods and heroes, celebrated by the ancients, adorning her triumph. Here were the pictures of Nebuchadnezzar, ordering the forming of the gardens of Babylon; of Auguftus exhibiting a race of chariots in the Circus; of Alexander marrying Roxana; and of Cyrus reviewing his army.

As the hall of war was dedicated to Bellona, the frize is adorned with trophies, bucklers, and thunderbolts. Over the doors were trophies of gilt metal, under which were repreiented the four feafons, by proper figures and feftoons, fignifying that Lewis XIV. was a conqueror in all the feafons of the year. The ceiling of this hall is adorned with five pictures: the largeft, in the middle, repreienting France holding a thunderbolt in one hand, and a buckler in the other; the four others are in the fides. In the firft is Bellona in a violent paffion. The fecond repreients Germany doing her beft but fruitlefs endeavours to defend the Imperial crown. In the third Spain feems to threaten France; but her foldiers are put to flight. The fourth fhews Holland thrown back upon her lion. This room was alfo adorned with fix heads of porphyry, repreienting as many Roman emperors; they were in buits, with a drapery of gilt bra's, and fupported on pedeftals of oriental alabafter.

The room formerly called the king's bed-chamber was the moft fumptuous of all. The carvings were all gilt, on a white ground. The bed was placed in a kind of alcove, where were two figures of Fame, repreiented fitting: on the cupola, over the bolfter, was France fitting, and feeming to watch for the prefervation of the king. There were feveral other pictures in this chamber, and particularly one of Hagar in the defert, with her fon, and an angel. The furniture of the bed was of crimfon velvet, embroidered with gold, and otherwife beautifully ornamented.

The gardens were not lefs magnificent than the palace. In defcending from the terrace you meet with two bafons, where there are feveral water-fpouts; and in the middle of each a collection of fpouts in the form of a wheat-fheaf, which rifes 29 feet high. The borders of thefe bafons were adorned each with 8 groups of brazen figures, repreienting rivers and nymphs; and four others of the fame metal, repreienting cupids, little nymphs, and genii. In two angles of the parterre are two other bafons of marble. The water-fpouts that come from them form two fheets of water exceedingly fine; and on the border of each of thefe bafons were two groups of figures of animals, made of brafs. From this parterre you fee, in a kind of half-moon that is below it, the bafon of Latona, round which were repreiented, in a group of three figures, Latona, Apollo, and Diana. Latona feemed to complain to Jupiter of the cruelty



A NEW and ACCURATE MAP OF FRANCE,
from the latest IMPROVEMENTS and Regulated by Astronomical Observations
ATLANTIC OCEAN
BAY OF BISCAY
ENGLISH CHANNEL
MEDITERRANEAN SEA
PYRENEES
ALPS
BRITTANY
NORMANDY
PICARDY
CHAMPAGNE
LORRAINE
GUIENNE
GASCONY
LANGUEDOC
DAUPHINE
PROVENCE
AUVERGNE
MARCHE
BERRY
ORLEANOIS
TOURAIN
POICTOU
ANJOU
MAINE
FRANCHE COMTE
SWITZERLAND
ITALY
SPAIN
CATALONIA
GULF OF LYONS
GULF OF GENOA
ENGLAND
Bristol
Antwerp
Cologne
Paris
Lyons
Marseilles
Toulouse
Bordeaux
Nantes
Rouen
Dijon
Geneva
Turin
Milan
Barcelona
Scilly I.
West Longitude from London
East Longitude from London
British Statute Miles
Engraved for RAVENS's New complete System of GEOGRAPHY Published by Robt. Sayer

cruelty of the peaſants of Lycia, who were here repreſented metamorphoſed into frogs, which threw a vaſt quantity of water upon the group.

There are ſeveral other baſons, with water-ſpouts, and other curious water-works, all of which, before the revolution, were adorned with groups of ſeveral kinds, which it would be too long to give a particular deſcription of; we ſhall therefore confine ourſelves to the famous canal. At one end of it is a baſon of an octagonal figure, and 420 feet diameter; four of its ſides are circular, three in ſtrait lines, and the other joins with the canal; in two of the angles of this baſon are two ſea-horſes, each of which carries a Triton on his back. The great canal is 32 fathoms broad, and 800 long, including the baſons at each end. In the middle it is croſſed by another canal, about 520 fathoms long. At the other end of the large canal is alſo a baſon 200 fathoms long, and 100 broad. Upon this canal the court ſometimes diverted themſelves in yachts and gallies.

The orangery, or green-houſe, was a maſter-piece in its kind. It is expoſed to the ſouth, and contains firſt a large gallery, which is innermoſt, 408 feet long, and 32 feet broad, with 12 arched windows in the front; on each ſide of this gallery are two others, each 360 feet long. Theſe galleries are adorned without with fine rows of columns; the innermoſt gallery has eight double columns of the Tuſcan order, the two others have four columns each of four feet diameter. At the gate of the porch are two other columns of the ſame order, but much thinner. Before this green-houſe is a beautiful parterre, with a fine baſon in the middle, where the water ſpouts out 40 feet high. It is adorned with four rows of columns, of the Tuſcan order, groups of ſtone figures beautifully carved, vaſes, ſtatues of white marble, &c. In the ſummer time this parterre ſeemed to be a foreſt of orange and lemon trees, myrtles, laurels, &c.

The labyrinth or maze is a fine grove, the ſeveral walks of which are ſo interwoven with each other, that it is a difficult matter to find the way out of it. At the entrance you meet with two ſtatues, the one of Æſop, and the other of Cupid, holding a clue of thread in his hand. At every turning of the avenues you meet with a beautiful fountain, adorned with a baſon of fine ſhell-work, where they have repreſented, in the moſt natural manner, one of Æſop's fables; the ſubject of which is expreſſed in four lines, engraved in gold letters on a thin braſs plate with a black ground. In the garden are ſtatues, canals, groves, grottos, fountains, and every thing that can render it delightful and elegant. The cabinet contained many fine medals, coins, paintings, &c. In the park ſtands the beautiful palace of Trianon, the outſide of which conſiſts wholly of variegated marble, of exquiſite workmanſhip. The gardens are large, and abound in ſtatues and water-works.

In a park contiguous to Verſailles is a once royal ſeat called Marly, with beautiful gardens. The engine here for raiſing water from the Seine, to ſupply the reſervoirs and water-works, is equally grand and ingenious, and, with the other water works, coſt immenſe ſums; the water being conveyed over ſeveral hills to the great reſervoir here, and from thence to Verſailles.

St. Germain en Laye, a town in the foreſt of Laye, is chiefly remarkable for two caſtles, or palaces. The foreſt and park, contiguous to the caſtles, are very beautiful.

The convent of St. Cyr, for nuns of the order of St. Auguſtine, was founded, in 1686, by M. Maintenon, miſtreſs of Lewis XIV. is a very ſpacious and ſplendid ſtructure, and before the revolution it contained fifty ladies of quality, and two hundred and fifty pupils or young ladies; for inſtructing of whom, in every branch of education becoming their rank and ſex, there were thirty-ſix lay-ſiſters. The young ladies continued until they were twenty, when they either took the veil, married, or returned to their relations. If they married they had a portion of four hundred piſtoles.

Meudon, two leagues from Paris, contains a fine palace, which was the favourite habitation of Lewis XIV.

Fontainbleau is ſituated in the middle of a foreſt of the ſame name, eleven leagues ſouth of Paris, and about one from the Seine. Its ſpacious caſtle or palace hath chiefly contributed to its fame. Here are neat gardens, laid out with a very good taſte; and beſides the great fountain are many others, which greatly adorn this charming ſeat. All the halls or rooms of this palace are adorned with very fine paintings and carvings. The greateſt room of all is that where plays were acted when the court was here. There is in that room a fine chimney, built by Henry IV. in 1599; it is twenty-three feet high, and twenty wide, and is adorned with four large Corinthian columns of ſpotted marble, with baſes and chapiters of white marble.

The room where the kings dined in public is adorned with a very fine ceiling, and noble paintings, repreſenting fortitude, temperance, juſtice, and prudence, with ſeveral other ſubjects.

In the gallery of Diana is the picture of Henry the Great in a hunter's dreſs; and the different kinds of hunting he delighted in are drawn in ſeven pictures, each twelve feet high, and twenty feet broad.

The gardens are anſwerable to the magnificence of the palace, and are all adorned with ſtatues and fountains.

The town of Fontainbleau was conſiderably increaſed under the reigns of Henry IV. and Lewis XIII. The latter built the parochial church, which is adorned with fine paintings: on each ſide of the great altar is a Corinthian column twenty feet high, and over it is a picture of Our Saviour curing the man ſick of the palſy, exquiſitely done by Varin.

Nemours, a little town, ſituated between the foreſts of Fontainbleau and Montargis. Its trade conſiſts in corn, wine, flour, and cheeſe, which they ſell in the adjacent villages, or ſend to Paris by the Seine.

Courtnay is a ſmall town, ſituated ſixteen leagues from Paris to the ſouth, and gave name to the illuſtrious houſe of Courtnay, a branch of which came into England with William the Conqueror, and founded the family of that name, which ſtill ſubſiſts here.

Eſtampes, a town on the river Jume, contains ſeveral churches, with a granary for ſalt.

The diſtricts which form the Government of ARTOIS and PICARDY produce wine, grain, fruits, paſturage, and turf. Picardy, the name of which is thought to be derived from Picard, ſignifying a paſſionate wrangler, is bounded on the eaſt by Champagne; on the ſouth by the Iſle of France; on the north by the Pas de Calais, Artois, and Hainault; and on the weſt by Normandy and the channel. Its rivers are the Somme, which riſes in the Vermandois, and falls into the channel; the Oiſe, in Latin Iſara, which riſes in Picardy, and at Conflans falls into the Seine; and the Canche, which riſes in Artois, and falls into the ſea at Staples. The other ſmaller rivers are the Lauthie, the La Lis, the Aa, the Scarpe, and the Deule. This province, in conſequence of its flouriſhing manufactures, its ſituation upon the ſea, and its fiſheries, is the ſeat of a very extenſive trade. Like moſt of the other provinces, it had formerly its petty princes, dependent, however, on the crown of France.

Guiſe, the capital of the diſtrict of Thierache, has a ſtrong caſtle, and gave name to a duchy and peerage belonging to the houſe of Bourbon-Condé. The town, being ſituated on the frontiers of the Low Countries, is regarded as one of the bulwarks of France, and conſequently ſtrongly fortified.

La Fere, a little town near the conflux of the Saar and Oiſe, contains a powder mill, arſenal, ſalt office, foundery, and caſtle; two churches, and ſeveral glaſs-houſes.

St. Quinten, or St. Quentin, on the Somme, is famous for a lawn manufactory. The collegiate church, which is one of the fineſt in France, takes its name from

from St. Quentin. In the year 1557 a battle was fought here betwixt the French and Spaniards, called the battle of St. Quentin, in which the French were totally defeated.

Peronne, on the Somme, is the capital of a diſtrict called Santerre, and famous for a linen manufactory. On account of its having been often beſieged, but never taken, the French term it la Pucelle, or the Maiden.

Amiens, the capital of Picardy, was anciently called Somarobriva, or Briga, that is, the Bridge over the Somme. It is ſituated two leagues from Paris to the north, and was the capital of the diſtrict called Amienois. It is a place of great antiquity, well fortified, and the ſee of a biſhop. Here are three bridges over as many channels of the Somme, many churches, beſides the cathedral, ſeveral hoſpitals and manufactories, with an academy of the arts and ſciences. Voiture, Rohault, and many other eminent men, were natives of this town. The ramparts make a fine walk, being planted with a double row of trees. In the new diviſion of France, Amiens is the chief city of the department of Somme.

Conti is a ſmall town about five leagues from Amiens, which gave the title of prince to a branch of the houſe of Bourbon.

Abbeville, the capital of the diſtrict of Ponthieu, is ſituated about five leagues from the Britiſh Channel, 13 from Boulogne, and 7 from Amiens, on the Somme, in which the tide riſes here to the height of ſix feet. There are a great many churches in the town, and it has a very flouriſhing trade, and a variety of manufactories. The proſpect of this town, at the diſtance of a quarter of a mile, is remarkably beautiful.

Creſſy, a ſmall place on the river Authie, is noted for the battle betwixt the Engliſh and French, anno 1346, in which the latter were totally defeated, and the king of Bohemia taken priſoner; whoſe motto, *ich dien*, was afterwards put in the prince's arms.

Montreuil, on the Couche, 3 leagues on the Britiſh Channel, contains about 5000 inhabitants, and has a pretty briſk trade.

The peaſants round this ſpot are very poor. It is remarked by travellers, that no ſooner does a chaiſe ſtop, than the cottages pour forth ſwarms to crave charity: young and old all join in the chorus, *Charité pour l'amour de Dieu.*

St. Valery, or Galerici, is a ſea-port town, ſituated at the mouth of the Somme, four leagues below Abbeville. The entrance into the Somme is very dangerous, becauſe of the ſhelves and quick-ſands which move from place to place with the wind and tide, ſo that no ſhips dare venture to enter it without the aſſiſtance of the beſt pilots of the country; however, there is great trade here, becauſe all ſorts of merchandizes are eaſily conveyed from hence to Amiens, and thence into Artois, Champagne, and to Paris. Here they import ſpices from Holland, as alſo pot-aſhes for making of ſoap; cod fiſh, herrings, cheeſe, and many other commodities from ſeveral countries; they alſo export into Spain and Portugal the manufactures of Picardy.

Agincourt, or Azincourt, near the river Breſle, is famous in hiſtory for a glorious victory which the Engliſh, commanded by Henry V. gained here over the French, the 25th of October, 1415. The Engliſh loſt but 1600 men, and the French 6000. Among the ſlain were the count of Nevers, and Anthony, duke of Brabant, brothers to the duke of Burgundy, the duke of Alençon, the conſtable of Albret, the duke of Bar, the marſhal of Boucicaut, admiral Dampietre, the archbiſhop of Sens, the viſcount of Laonnois, and many others of the nobility. The dukes of Orleans and Bourbon, the counts of Vendoſme and Richemont, and a great number of principal officers were taken priſoners.

Boulogne, on the mouth of the Lane, is only eight leagues from the neareſt coaſt of England. It was the capital of a diſtrict called the Boulonois, which enjoyed peculiar privileges of exemption from ſeveral taxes; and had a governor independent of the governor-general of Picardy. The harbour cannot be entered but at high water, and is defended by a fort. The town is divided into Upper and Lower. Near the citadel is a mineral ſpring, called La Fontaine de Fer, that is, the Iron Spring. It was the ſee of a biſhop till the revolution.

Ambleteuſe, a ſmall town on the channel, two leagues from Boulogne, is well fortified, and has a good harbour. Here king James II. landed, when he fled to France, after his abdication.

Near Andres, a fortified town, three leagues from Calais to the ſouth, Francis I. and Henry VIII. of England, had an interview: their retinue was ſo richly dreſſed, that the place where they met has ever ſince been called Le Champ de drap d'Or. "The Field of the Cloth of Gold."

Arras is the capital of the diſtrict named Artois, which is one of the moſt fertile diſtricts in all France. It is 24 leagues long, and 12 broad, being bounded on the eaſt by Hainault, on the north by Flanders, and on the weſt and ſouth by Picardy. A conſiderable trade is carried on in the province in grain, flax, hops, wool, linen, &c.

Arras, ſituated on the river Scarpe, 10 leagues from Amiens to the north, is a very ancient and large city, and is divided into two parts: the one, called the City, is the ancient; and the other, named the Town, is the new. They are each ſurrounded with old walls, where there remain ſtill ſeveral round towers, built after the ancient manner, and a gate, over which was this inſcription: *Quand les François prendront* Arras, *les ſouris mangerent les chats*; i. e. "When the French ſhall take Arras, the mice ſhall eat the cats." In the new diviſion of France, Arras is the chief town in the department of the Pas de Calais.

Marſhal de Vauban repaired thoſe old walls, and added ſeveral baſtions, and many new works to them in the ditch, which is large and very deep. There are to be obſerved in it, among other things, lunettes, built after Vauban's manner: they are the firſt works of that kind, which were invented by that excellent engineer. They conſiſt of a triangular half-moon, covered with two half envelopes, ſeparated from each other by a ditch.

The citadel is ſomewhat higher towards the country. It is not very large, but deemed one of the ſtrongeſt in France. The ditch is dry towards the country. The greateſt part of the ground about this city is low, and proper to be laid under water. This town is inhabited by wealthy traders and artificers, who make ſails and tapeſtry-hangings, eſpecially the latter, which art was invented here; therefore thoſe tapeſtries take their name from that of the city.

Aire is a fortified town, ſituated on the river Lis, 22 miles from Arras to the north-weſt, and contains two hoſpitals. At a little diſtance from the town ſtands fort St. Francis.

St. Venant is a little but well fortified town, ſituated on the bank of the river Lis, ſix leagues from Aire to the eaſt, taking its name from the martyr St. Venant. The country about it may be laid under water.

Calais, a town ſituated on the narroweſt part of the channel oppoſite to Dover, from which it is diſtant about ſeven leagues, was the capital of the Pais Reconquis, or Recovered Country. It is pretty large, and well fortified, but the harbour is of very difficult and dangerous acceſs. Here are a fine arſenal, and a citadel, which commands the town, the harbour, and all the adjacent country. All the country about the town may be laid under water in 24 hours. By the canal of Calais the inhabitants have an eaſy communication with Dunkirk, St. Omer, Graveline, Ypres, &c. and in time of peace a packet-boat paſſes regularly twice a week between England and Calais. There are two inconveniences which they who paſs from Dover to Calais would always wiſh to avoid: the firſt is that of loſing the tide, and being

being obliged to take a French boat to get into the harbour; the other is that of landing ſo late as to be ſhut out of the town, and compelled to lodge in one of the houſes that ſtand without it. The town of Calais makes a much handſomer appearance from the water than the town of Dover; its towers begin to become viſible on reaching the middle of the ſtraits. It has two piers of great length, which run parallel, and are both of timber. One of them affords a very agreeable walk over a boarded floor, which, at ſeveral times of the day, but eſpecially in a ſummer evening, is frequented by many genteel people of the place. On this pier a troop of ſervants, from the ſeveral houſes of accommodation, ſtand ready to receive the paſſengers at their landing, and conduct them, together with their baggage, according to their ſeveral deſtinations.

The only remaining place worthy of notice in this diſtrict is St. Omer, on the river Aa. This city is defended not only by a caſtle, but alſo by large baſtions. There are in this city ſeveral fine ſtreets, and a large ſquare, built round with noble houſes, among which is the Town-Houſe or Guild-hall. The cathedral church, dedicated to St. Omer, is a noble building remarkable chiefly for its chapels, enriched with fine marble, and beautiful paintings. Beſides the cathedral, there are here ſix parochial churches, and an abbey, which, before the revolution, was extremely rich, and belonged to the order of St. Benedict. There are alſo two hoſpitals for maidens, a general one for the ſick, an orphan-houſe for boys, and another for girls, an houſe for twelve poor men, in memory of the twelve apoſtles, and ſeveral foundations; the yearly income of which is employed in maintaining a certain number of boys at ſchool, in giving a ſum of money in marriage to ſome poor girls, and in clothing ſome others. Here is alſo an Engliſh ſeminary. The people have ſome trade, ſeveral ſmall veſſels coming up here from the ſea through Gravelines, by the river Aa. For the government of the city there is a mayor, who is changed every year, 12 aldermen or eſchevins, and ſeveral other officers. The ſuburb called Haut-Pont, or High-Bridge, contains many houſes inhabited by Flemiſh families, who have ſettled here many years ago: they have kept their ancient language, which has not undergone the ſame alterations with the common Flemiſh. They adhere moſt ſcrupulouſly to the ancient ſimplicity of their nation; and that they may not alter or corrupt it, they never marry but among themſelves. St. Omer is the ſee of a biſhop.

On the eaſt of this ſuburb, which is ſituated along the banks of the river Aa, and on the north-eaſt of St. Omer, there is a marſh, or a kind of lake, in which are the famous floating-iſlands. They do not reſt on the bottom of the lake, but go backwards and forwards, according to the motion that is given them. They are made to move like boats, by means either of poles or ropes. There is always graſs growing on theſe iſlands; and people draw them near the ſhore, to drive their cattle on them. There are alſo ſome trees, but they take care to keep them very low, for fear the wind ſhould have too much hold of them, and make the iſlands move with violence.

The Government of CHAMPAGNE has Hainault and Liege on the north, Burgundy on the ſouth, Luxemburg and Lorrain on the eaſt, and the Iſle of France and Picardy on the weſt. It is 160 miles long, in ſome places exceeds 140 in breadth, and is watered by the Seine, Maine, Aube, Aiſne, and Maes. The air is pure, and the ſoil fertile. The few hills abound with mines, the vallies with mineral waters, and the foreſts with game. The province itſelf receives its name from its extenſive plains. The trade conſiſts in corn, wine, and iron.

Troyes, the capital of the province, is ſeated on the river Seine, 26 leagues from Paris to the ſouth-eaſt. It is pretty large, but far from being ſo populous and flouriſhing as formerly. Its trade is conſiderable, and ſeveral manufactures are carried on in it. The neighbouring country is pleaſant, and fruitful in wine, grain, and paſture. It is a biſhop's ſee, and, in the new diviſion of France, Troyes is the chief city in the department of Aube.

Pont-ſur-Seine, a town, as the name ſhews, ſituated on the Seine, has a magnificent ſeat, with fine gardens belonging to it.

Eſpernay is a ſmall town on the Maine. The country about it produces excellent wine.

Chalons, or Chalon-ſur-Maine, a large city, ſituated on the Maine. Chalons has a flouriſhing manufactory of ſhalloons, which take their name from the town, and of other woollen ſtuffs.

Clermont, before the revolution, was the capital of an earldom, belonging to the prince of Condé; St. Diſier, on the Maine, is famous for its iron forges; and Vaſſy, on the Blaiſe, is remarkable for being the ſcene of a horrid maſſacre of the Proteſtants in 1562.

Joinville, on the Maine, was, before the revolution, the capital of a principality belonging to the family of Orleans.

Langres is a fortified town, and has a manufactory of tools and knives. It was a biſhop's ſee till the revolution.

Chaumont is well fortified, and, in the new diviſion of France, is the chief town in the department of Upper Marne.

Clervaux is a town on the Aube, near which is an abbey. In it is the famous caſk of St. Bernard, which holds 800 tons.

Dom Remi, ſurnamed la Pucelle, is the birth-place of the celebrated Joan d'Arc, or the Maid of Orleans.

Sens is the capital of the diſtrict called from it Senonos. It is large, and the ſee of a biſhop. The principal church is a fine monument of Gothic architecture. The inhabitants trade to Paris, by means of the Yonne, in wine, wood, coals, oats, hay, &c. In the new diviſion of France, Sens is the capital of the department of Yonne.

Vitry le François is ſmall, but well built, ſtrongly fortified, populous, and rich.

Rheims is one of the moſt ancient, celebrated, and largeſt cities of France. It is the ſee of an archbiſhop. The cathedral is a fine Gothic ſtructure, and has a ſtately and ſuperb gate and portico. The univerſity was founded in the 16th century, by Charles, archbiſhop of Rheims, and cardinal of Lorrain. In the new diviſion of France, Rheims is the chief town in the department of Marne.

In this city are ſeveral remains of antiquity. Three of its gates retain the names of heathen deities, viz. of the Sun, of Mars, and of Ceres. There is a triumphal arch, which was covered with earth, and is compoſed of three arches of the Corinthian order, with columns, and baſſo-relievos in the vaults. In the middle arch is the figure of a woman in freſco, holding two cornucopias in her arms, which ſeem to denote the fruitfulneſs of the country: four children, that are near her, expreſs the four ſeaſons of the year; and the 12 months are repreſented by 12 proper figures. The two other arches are each 30 feet high, and 8 broad. That on the right hand has the figures of Romulus and Remus ſucking a ſhe-wolf: on their ſides are the ſhepherd Fauſtulus, and the ſhepherdeſs Acca Laurentia. In the third arch are to be ſeen a Leda embracing Jupiter transformed into a ſwan, with a Cupid who lights them with his flambeau. There are the remains of another triumphal arch in this city, and alſo of ſeveral roads made by the Romans in the neighbourhood of Rheims. The chief trade here is that of wine. Several kinds of thin woollen ſtuffs, mixed with ſilk, are manufactured in this city.

The principal places of Brie, belonging to this government, are

Meaux, on the Maine, a very ancient city, and the ſee of a biſhop. Here is a ſalt granary. The trade

conſiſts chiefly in grain, wool, and cheeſe. In the new diviſion of France, Meaux is in the department of Seine and Marne.

Provins, a town on the little river Vouſie, ſends conſiderable quantities of corn to Paris by the Seine, from which it is only three leagues diſtant.

Sedan, near the borders of Luxemburg, being one of the keys of France, is ſtrongly fortified. In the new diviſion of France, it is the ſee of a biſhop, and in the department of Ardennes. Here is a fine caſtle, and a manufactory of cloth and ſerge.

The Government of BURGUNDY has Champagne on the north, Lyonnois on the ſouth, Franche Comté on the eaſt, and Nivernois and Bourbonnois on the weſt. Its length, from north to ſouth, is about 45 leagues; and its breadth, from eaſt to weſt, about 30. It is very fertile in corn, wine, fruit, and tobacco; being watered by the Seine, the Dehume, which falls into the Soane, the Brebince, or Bourbince, the Armançon, the Ouche, and the Tille. There are ſome noted mineral ſprings in it, with ſubterraneous lakes, and plenty of ochre. For a long time it had dukes of its own, ſubordinate to the crown of France; but Lewis XI. at laſt, upon the failure of heirs male, ſeized upon it, and annexed it to his crown. The principal places in the ſeveral parts of Burgundy are the following:

Dijon, the capital, is a large fortified town. It is the ſee of a biſhop, and, in the new diviſion of France, the capital of the department of Cote d'Or. Contains an academy of ſciences, a college of law, a ſtately caſtle, and ſeveral hoſpitals. Fontaine de Dijon, a village near it, was the birth-place of St. Bernard.

Avalon, on the Couſin, has an hoſpital. Samur, on the Armançon, has two fine bridges, a granary of ſalt, a caſtle, and a cloth-manufactory.

Chatillon-ſur-Seine, contains two hoſpitals, in one of which poor travellers are maintained for three days.

Auxerre, on the Yonne, is the capital of the diſtrict called Auxerrois, and, in the new diviſion of France, is the chief town in the department of Yonne. Was formerly a biſhop's ſee, contains ſeveral hoſpitals, and a grand palace.

Aulim, on the Aroux, the capital of Autunois, and is defended by a citadel.

Maçon, on the Soane, in the new diviſion of France, is the capital of the department of Soane and Loire, and was formerly a biſhop's ſee. In a council held here in 585, it was enacted that if a layman on horſeback ſhould meet a prieſt on foot, the former ſhould deſcend to do reverence to the prieſt.

Chalon, on the Soane, was a biſhop's ſee till the revolution. It is defended by a citadel.

Bourbon L'Ancy is celebrated for its warm ſprings, and contains ſome remains of the ancient Roman baths.

Bourg, the capital of the diſtrict called La Breſſe, ſtands on the Reſouſſe, almoſt in the centre of the country. The fairs here are chiefly for horſes, cattle, and ſkins.

Belley, the capital of the country called Le Bugey. In the new diviſion of France, Belley is the ſee of a biſhop, in the department of Ain.

Gex, at the foot of mount St. Claude, near the lake of Geneva, gives name to a diſtrict, extending from fort d'Eclufe to the village of Croſſay. It belonged to the prince of Condé.

The principality of Dombes, which lies contiguous to the government of Burgundy, but is independent of it, extends nine leagues in length, almoſt as many in breadth, and is a very pleaſant fruitful country.

Trevoux, lying on the Soane, is the capital of the principality of Dombes.

The Government of DAUPHINE is bounded on the ſouth by Provence, on the north by Breſſe and the Rhone, on the eaſt by the Alps and Savoy, and on the weſt by the Rhone, which ſeparates it from the Lyonnois and Languedoc. It had long princes of its own, who were ſtiled dauphins du Viennois. At laſt Dauphin Humbert, having no children, made it over to Philip VI. of France, on condition that the inhabitants ſhould ſtill retain their privileges, that the province ſhould be for ever incorporated with the crown of France, and that the king's eldeſt ſon ſhould enjoy it, with the arms and title of Dauphin. In the year 1349 this agreement was fully executed. Near two thirds of the province are very barren and mountainous; but the mountains contain a variety of minerals, and, in ſome places, are covered with larch trees, which are very valuable, as they not only yield a very durable wood, but alſo manna, benzoin, and agaric, the laſt of which is uſed in phyſic and dying ſcarlet. The more level and fruitful part of the province is called Lower Dauphiné. On the mountains are alſo found ſeveral ſorts of wild animals, as bears, marmots, chamois-goats, and other ſpecies of goats, called, by the French, bouquettons, or chevrels, together with white hares, partridges, eagles, hawks, &c.

Dauphiné had a governor and parliament, and contains the following principal places:

Grenoble, ſituated on the conflux of the Iſere and Drac, in a plain at the foot of the mountains. It received its name from the emperor Gratian, ſon of Valentinian I. from whence it is called, in Latin, Gratianapolis. It is, however, much more ancient; was before called Cularo, and belonged to the Allobroges. It has been a biſhop's ſee ever ſince the fourth century. The Delphinal council, eſtabliſhed here in 1340, by Humbert II. Dauphin of Viennois, was erected into a parliament in 1453, by king Lewis XI. This city is well peopled, and commanded by a fort called la Baſtille. The Iſere divides the city into two unequal parts. Here are no fine buildings, except the biſhop's palace, which owes its beauty to cardinal le Camus, biſhop of Grenoble; and is adorned by excellent paintings, repreſenting Our Saviour's life and paſſion, and by the picture of the biſhop. The town was fortified by the chevalier de Ville. The ſkins and gloves of Grenoble are very much eſteemed; but the woollen ſtuffs are but coarſe. There was not, even before the revolution, one abbey of men in this whole dioceſe, and but one of maidens, viz. that of Hayes, of the Ciſtertian order. In the new diviſion of France, Grenoble is the chief town in the department of Iſere.

Near this town was the famous monaſtery and hermitage of the Carthuſian monks, called in French, la Grande Chartreuſe, or the Great Charter-houſe, becauſe it was the firſt of that order, founded by St. Bruno. It is ſituated on high mountains, covered with thick woods; but the place is very pleaſant. Each monk had a garden annexed to his cell, which he cultivated with his own hands. About three leagues from Grenoble is a piece of ground that emits ſmoke, and ſometimes ſmall flame; and at the diſtance of one league are the caves of Saſſage, and a grotto, in which is a water-fall.

Here alſo, among the gravel in the ſprings, are found a ſort of precious ſtones, ſome white, ſome of a dark grey colour, very ſmooth, and of a fine luſtre. Thoſe of the ſize and ſhape of a lin-ſeed are not only the beſt, but being dropt into the eye, they expel all impurities, without injuring it in the leaſt. About five leagues from Grenoble is the mineral ſpring of la Mothe, the waters of which are pretty hot, and highly eſteemed, being a certain remedy for all diſorders of the ſtomach, fluxes, and even lameneſs.

St. Bonnet, a ſmall place, but the capital of the country of Champſaur, belonged formerly to the family of Villeroi.

Briançon, at the conflux of the Dure and Ancea, is the capital of the diſtrict, called from it Briançonnois; and has a caſtle ſituated on a ſteep rock. On the leaves of the larch trees hereabouts is gathered a manna, which falls in the night, and melts as ſoon as the ſun ſhines upon it. The hotter the ſeaſon the more plentiful it is.

Monetier

Monetier is a town in the diſtrict of Briançon, where is a ſpring that ſpouts out water, now and then ſix feet high, and ſometimes more.

Ambrum, or Embrum, the capital of the maritime Alps, and the territory called, from the town, Ambrunois, ſtands on a ſteep rock, at the foot of which runs the Durance. It was, before the revolution, the ſee of an archbiſhop, who ſtiled himſelf prince and count of Ambrum.

Gap is the capital of the territory, called from it Gapençois, and was the ſee of a biſhop. At St. Peter D'Argenſon is a mineral water; and in the lake of Pelhotiers is a floating meadow conſiſting of graſs and ruſhes.

Vienne, on the Rhone, 13 leagues from Grenoble, was once a Roman colony, and afterwards the kingdom of Burgundy. It is large, and contains ſeveral remains of Roman buildings, a manufactory of hardware, and another of paper. Some mineral ſprings are found in its diſtrict, which is called Viennois.

Tain is famous for its hermitage wine. St. Anthoine contained the abbey of St. Anthony, which was the only one of that order.

Valence, the capital of the Valentinois, a place of antiquity, ſtands on the Rhone, contains an univerſity, and is large, well fortified, and the ſee of a biſhop. In the new diviſion of France, Valence is the chief town in the department of Drome.

Die, on the Dromme, over which it has a bridge, is the capital of a diſtrict, famous for its mineral ſprings, and for a ſteep rock in the neighbourhood, called the Innacceſſible Mountain, and, till the revolution, was the ſee of a biſhop.

The principality of Orange is about four French leagues in length, and two in breadth, and had formerly counts and princes of its own; but, in the year 1531, it came to the houſe of Naſſau, in which it continued till the death of William Henry, prince of Orange, ſtadtholder of Holland, and king of Great Britain. In the year 1713 Frederick William, king of Pruſſia, and one of king William's heirs, ceded it to France; and, in 1722, Lewis XV. gave it to the prince of Conti. Afterwards it was annexed to the government of Dauphiné. The only place in it worth mentioning is that from which it takes its name, viz.

Orange, in Latin Arauſio, ſituated on the little river Maine, in a beautiful plain about a league from the Rhone, and five from Avignon. It was, until the revolution, the ſee of a biſhop. Here are ſeveral remains of Roman magnificence, particularly a fine triumphal arch, and an amphitheatre.

The Government of PROVENCE derives its name from the Latin Provincia; and is bounded to the ſouth by the Mediterranean; to the north by Dauphiné; to the weſt by the Rhone, which ſeparates it from Languedoc; and to the eaſt by the Alps and the Var, which ſeparate it from the dominions of the king of Sardinia. It is divided into the Upper and Lower, its length being about 42 French leagues, and its breadth about 30. The air and ſoil differ widely in the two diviſions; for in the former the air is temperate, but in the latter extremely hot. The former yields good corn, apples, and pears, and abounds in cattle, but has little wine. On the contrary, the latter has plenty of wine, with orange, lemon, pomegranate, fig, palm, cypreſs, olive, maſtic, medlar, and ſea-cherry trees; but does not produce half the quantity of corn neceſſary for the inhabitants. This province yields alſo a kind of box, the fruit of which proceeds from the middle of the leaf, and continues all the year round. Of their wines, the Muſcadel is the beſt. In the road and harbour of Toulon is caught a fiſh, encloſed in a ſtone, which muſt be broke before the fiſh can be come at, and called a date from its reſemblance to that fruit. The taſte of it is very agreeable: but, in general, the fiſh of the Mediterranean are inferior to thoſe of the Ocean. There is alſo a ſmall bird in this province, called becca-figo, that feeds only upon grapes and figs, and is delicate eating. Iron, black agate, copper, and lead, are found here. There are no conſiderable rivers in the province: the chief are the Durance, the Sourge, the Largens, (ſo called from the tranſparency of its water,) the Lare, the Verdon, and the Var; the laſt of which divides France from Italy. The woods are numerous, and afford a great deal of timber for ſhipbuilding, and other uſes. Almoſt the whole trade from France to Italy, the Levant, and the greater part of Spain, is carried on from this province.

Aix, the capital, ſo called from its baths, is ſix leagues from Marſeilles, the ſee of an archbiſhop, has a ſtately cathedral, a public library, an univerſity, two colleges, an academy of fine arts, fountains, a moſt beautiful walk called Le Conor de Orbiteſle, a town-houſe, and fine palace. It is ſituated in a fertile valley, particularly famous for its olives, which yield excellent oil. In the new diviſion of France, Aix is the chief town in the department of Bouches du Rhone.

Bugs and beetles are ſo plentiful here as to be of the greateſt annoyance to the inhabitants. The inconvenience ariſing from theſe vermin is thus repreſented by a late traveller. "I think (ſays he) we are now in the region of flies, bugs, and beetles; as every place ſwarms with theſe diſagreeable, troubleſome vermin. Not a night has there been, ſince we left Paris, that one or both of us have not ſlept on the floor, for fear of being attacked by thoſe legions that lie in ambuſh amidſt the crevices of the beds, and only wait for our ſleep to make their attack. Our cuſtom is to draw off the upper mattraſs with the ſheet and bolſter on it, into the middle of the room; and by this means we often eſcape the annoyance, except it be from a ſtraggler who has rambled from the main body. It is a ſtrange cuſtom which they have in theſe parts, where the heat is often very troubleſome, to hang their rooms with a kind of dark rug, or as they may call it, tapeſtry; for it has a dirty look, and only ſerves to increaſe the warmth of them, and to furniſh hives and nurſeries for thoſe deteſtable vermin that have put us in ſuch terrors.

Salon is ſix leagues weſt of Aix. Here the famous pretended prophet Noſtrodamus died in 1566.

St. Remy is a conſiderable town, and formerly belonged to the prince of Monaco. It is ſituated near the lake of Glaciere. Le Bauſe, in the bailiwick of Arles, likewiſe belonged to the prince of Monaco.

Arles, on the Rhone, formerly a Roman colony, contains many antique curioſities, ſuch as Roman tombs, ſtatues, an amphitheatre, an obeliſk, &c.

This city was formerly the capital of the kingdom of Burgundy, and, until the revolution, was dignified with a metropolitan ſee, and an academy, known by the name of The Royal Academy of Sciences and Languages. It was raiſed in 1668, by the king's letters patent; by which it was ordered, that the number of members ſhould not exceed 20, who were all to be noble by birth. There were afterwards 10 other members added to it by new letters patent.

Taraſcon is a large ancient town on the Rhone, having a handſome caſtle. The inhabitants of this place have a very peculiar method of threſhing their corn, which, with ſome other particulars, we ſhall relate as given by a celebrated writer, in a letter to his friend. "The corn (ſays he) is threſhed out almoſt as ſoon as cut; and for this purpoſe they make a temporary threſhing-floor on ſome part of the field where they reap. This threſhing floor is prepared by moiſtening a piece of ground of about 20 or 30 feet ſquare, and afterwards beating it with an inſtrument that takes off all inequalities, and makes it look as if it had been plaiſtered with a maſon's trowel. The ſun ſoon hardens this ſpot; and it is then ſtrewed with ſeveral bundles of corn as high as the knees of a man. The manner of threſhing them when they are thus ſtrewed, is what I never ſaw before. A woman (for I have ſeen

more

more women employed this way than men) ſtands in the midſt, and has around her half a dozen or more horſes, with a bridle or halter to each. She holds all theſe bridles by their extremities in one of her hands, and whips the horſes with the other; ſo that they dance in a circle around, the bridles forming the radii, of which her hand is the centre, and trample the corn out of the ear with their feet. Whether this method anſwers ſo well as that of the flail I cannot pretend to determine: it may be more expeditious, but certainly makes great waſte.

"They ſeem to make little uſe of the ſtraw or reed but in manure, and therefore take but little trouble to bundle it up. In many fields the ears are only plucked off, and it is ſuffered to rot in the ground; whilſt in others it is afterwards mowed.

"Women here are reapers; and it is not uncommon to ſee five females to one man employed in this kind of labour. Scarce any of them have ſhoes or ſtockings, and few a hat, or any other covering for the head, to defend them from the heat of the ſun. Perhaps to this it may be owing that, among the lower claſs of people, handſome women are exceeding rare; all of them having coarſe, ordinary ſun-burnt faces. However, though the country is deficient in this reſpect, it has a juſter claim itſelf to be called beautiful than any other part of France I have yet ſeen. The fields have more the appearance of cultivation, and there are fewer of thoſe barren naked rocks to which the country in general is ſubject. Hedges are not uncommon; and you may ſometimes ſee ſome ſtraggling trees and coppices; but theſe are forlorn, and have not thoſe inhabitants that ſhould enliven them. I know not what makes the little feathered ſongſters forſake theſe parts, excepting it be that they cannot find ſhelter in a country ſo naked of woods; but I am ſure you may travel for days together and not be able to ſee one.

"It is not often that oxen are employed in ploughing: thoſe which I obſerved were yoked by the horns, as being the part where it is imagined they can exert the greateſt ſtrength. In general you ſee a man working with a ſingle horſe or aſs, without a boy or any other to guide it. Their ploughs are lighter than thoſe commonly uſed in England, but nearly of the ſame conſtruction, and ſeem to turn the furrows with great facility and expedition."

Marſeilles is a very ancient, large, rich, and populous city, ſituated on the coaſt of the Mediterranean ſea, where it has a ſafe and ſpacious harbour, above 7 leagues from Aix to the ſouth, and 14 from Arles to the ſouth-eaſt. All the trade which is carried on from the ſouth of France in a manner centers here. It was till the revolution the ſee of a biſhop. Here the gallies of France are laid up. Here alſo is a fine arſenal, a dock for building the gallies, an obſervatory, an academy of the fine arts, and ſeveral churches. The harbour runs up far into the city, and is well ſecured and fortified. The city is divided into the Old and New; the former of which is but meanly built; but the latter is very handſome, and contains a fine walk. Oppoſite to the harbour are three ſmall iſlands. Great quantities of tar and pitch are made in this neighbourhood.

Marſeilles, in beauty, has little to boaſt; but much in reſpect to its ſituation for commerce, and the antiquity of its foundation, which is ſaid to have been laid in the time of Tarquinius Priſcus. As you approach it, the Baſtides, which are behind, have an uncommon appearance, and look like another city built of ſtraggling houſes. Theſe Baſtides are little pleaſure-boxes, which cover the country for ſome miles ſquare. Every citizen, almoſt to the loweſt rank, has a baſtide, where, after the labours of the day, he retires and ſpends the evening with his family. The ſpace that each of theſe little retirements takes up is very confined. A little houſe, with a garden of about 30 yards ſquare, filled with fig-trees, olives and wines, is their common extent. Behind the walls of one garden begins another, which belongs to another citizen; and is continued on, in every plat of the compaſs juſt mentioned; ſo that the Baſtides may be ſaid to be *rus in urbe*, and *urbs in rure*.

The ſtreets here are crowded with people of different nations, a moſt extenſive trade being carried on with the Levant, and with moſt countries of the world. Since the plague, which ſwept away ſuch a multitude of the inhabitants of this town, in the year 1720, the Marſeillois are very cautious of admitting any veſſel from the Levant, without a ſtrict quarantine; and every letter is dipped in, or ſprinkled with, vinegar, before delivered.

The manufactures of this town are various and flouriſhing, of which thoſe of ſoap and wax-candles are the chief: though the others, ſuch as of ſtuffs in imitation of thoſe that come from the Indies, of ſilk ſtockings, porcelain, tapeſtry, hats, &c. are far from being inconſiderable objects of trade. Thoſe employ a prodigious number of workmen: and owe not a little of their ſucceſs to the clearneſs of the atmoſphere around, which permits the expoſition of ſuch things as want drying and bleaching. The deſigns for the tapeſtry, linen, and Indian manufactures, are furniſhed by the artiſts belonging to the academy of painting at Marſeilles, and muſt be conſequently ſuperior to thoſe of other places, where they come from the untutored genius of the workmen themſelves.

The Hotel de Ville is a handſome building, and has ſeveral pictures worthy the attention of an artiſt. Among theſe are two painted by Serre, that repreſent the plague.

The church of St. Victor contains a great number of antiquities. Among its curioſities they number St. Andrew's Croſs, which is almoſt entire, and preſerved with a religious veneration.

The Marſeillois are very fond of pageantry and proceſſions of all kinds, and, before the revolution, had two which were remarkably curious; one was the proceſſion of an Ox at the Fete de Dieu, and the other that of the Voituriers and Coachmen to the church of the Grand Auguſtins. Whether theſe are ſtill continued, we cannot at this period determine; but ſhall quote the deſcription thereof from the former edition of this work. "The ceremony of the ox is performed in this manner. During the three days preceding the feaſt, the company of butchers are employed in driving an ox through all the ſtreets of the town, followed by a great concourſe of people. On the back of this beaſt they place a little boy dreſſed in a ſheep's ſkin, who holds a ſtreamer in his left hand, and keeps the fore-finger of his right hand pointed to the ſky. On the eve of the feaſt the ox is guided to the place where the temple dedicated to Diana once ſtood. There the boy is taken off, and the butchers, after they have ſtripped themſelves of their fantaſtic garments, provoke and drive the beaſt with ſticks out of the city, amidſt the cries and ſhouts of the populace, whoſe minds have interwoven this chace with the duties of religion. On the next, which is the grand day, he is led back, ornamented, after the ancient manner of adorning victims, with ribbons and flowers, accompanied by the butchers dreſſed in pontifical robes, with drums and flutes playing before them. Then follow the prieſts, friars, and the *religieux* of all the orders. They drive the animal out of the gates of the city to ſhow that they joyfully conſent to baniſh Paganiſm from among them. The ox is afterwards killed and given to the poor.

"On the feaſt of St. Eloi all the voituriers, coachmen, poſtilions, &c. aſſemble before the church of the Grand Auguſtins, mounted on their horſes, mules, and aſſes, bearing the flags and colours of their company. As they make their proceſſion before the grand entrance, a prieſt ſprinkles every one of the riders and the beaſts with holy water. After having received this, they proceed in files, and march to the ſound of drums and fifes through moſt of the great ſtreets of the town, the prizes to be run for by the different animals being

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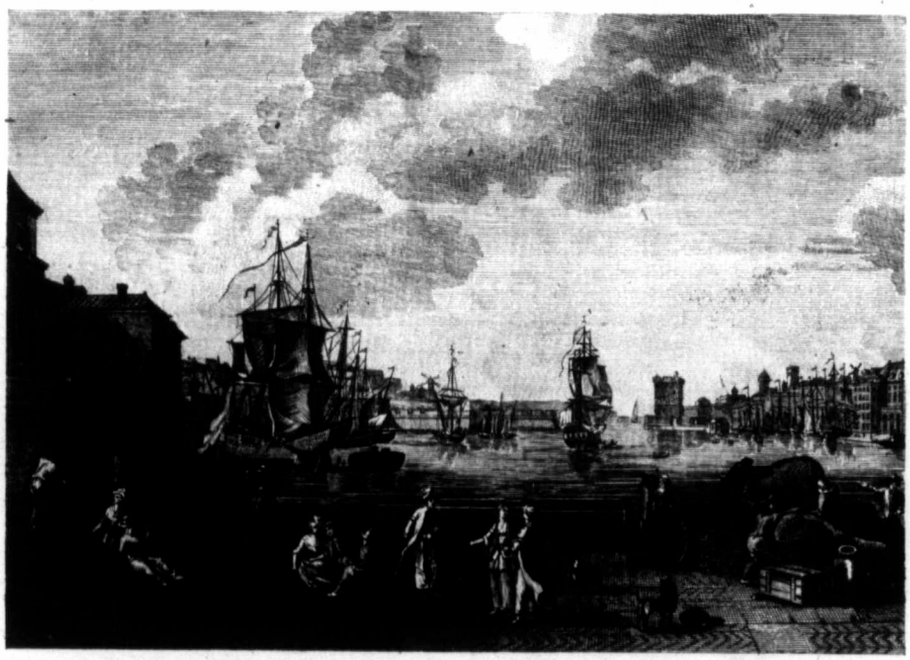
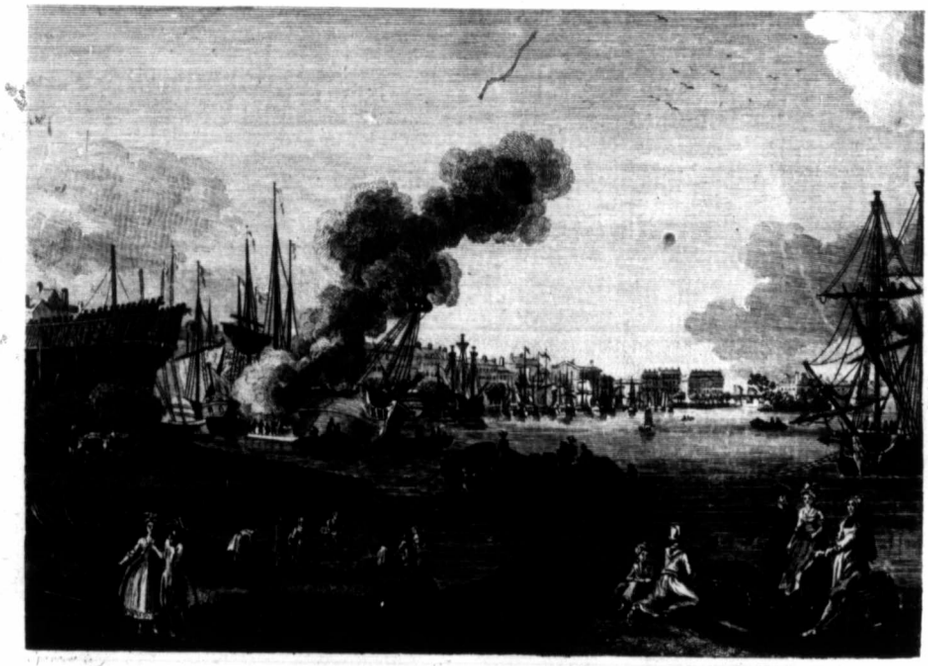


The Port of Marseilles, in the Province of Brittany, in the Kingdom of France.



The Port of Nantz, in the Province of Brittany, in the Kingdom of France.

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being borne before them, fixed to the end of a long pole. Theſe prizes are generally compleat ſets of harneſſes, ornamented in a better manner than thoſe that are commonly purchaſed. In the evening they make three parades on the Promenade de Cours; and then proceed to the plain of St. Michael, which is the place appointed for the races. The horſes enter the liſts firſt, next the mules, and then the aſſes. Such are the races of Marſeilles, which are frequented as much as any in England by people of the higheſt rank in the neighbourhood."

Barjols, or Barjoux, is a handſome town in the bailiwick of Brignoles.

Toulon is a large city, ſituated on the Mediterranean, with a fine port, 10 leagues eaſt from Marſeilles, and about 125 from Paris. Both the town and harbour are ſtrongly fortified. On two ſides of the former are high hills at a very ſmall diſtance, of which that of St. Anne, on the north-eaſt, perfectly commands it. The entrance of the port is ſo narrow that two ſhips cannot go into it a-breaſt. This place contains ſeveral courts, particularly an admiralty office, an arſenal well furniſhed, a foundery, magazine, manufactory of woollen cloth, &c. In the new diviſion of France, Toulon is the chief town in the department of Var.

In the diſtrict of Toulon is Ollioules, a ſmall town: and five leagues eaſt of Toulon is Hieres, famous for the beſt ſalt and the fineſt fruit in France: it contains ſome churches, and gives name to three iſlands in the neighbouring ſea.

Dragingnau, 12 leagues north-eaſt of Hieres, is one of the largeſt towns in the province.

Frejus, on the Argent, 20 leagues eaſt of Aix, and half a league from the ſea, contains many remains of antiquity, particularly an aqueduct and an amphitheatre. The town is well fortified, has a court of admiralty, and is a biſhop's ſee. In the new diviſion of France, Frejus is in the department of Var.

Graſſe ſtands in a fruitful ſoil, and contains ſeveral churches; it was the ſee of a biſhop till the revolution.

At Antibes are a good harbour and caſtle, with ſome Roman antiquities. The fiſh, called ſardines, are well cured here.

Vence, an ancient city, ſituated two leagues from the Var, was the ſee of a biſhop till the revolution, and at that time the civil government of the city, and lordſhip of the manor, were divided between the biſhop and the baron of Vence, of the houſe of Villeneuve. The above places are all in Lower Provence.

Digne, on the Bleone, is celebrated for its hot wells, and is the ſee of a biſhop. In the new diviſion of France, Digne is the chief town in the department of the Lower Alps.

Siſteron, on the Durance, has a good trade, and is defended by a fortreſs. Caſtellan, on the Verden, gives name to a bailiwick, and Riez, nine leagues north weſt of Aix, was a biſhop's ſee till the revolution.

Manoſque is one of the moſt populous cities in the whole province. Here is a caſtle, with ſeveral fountains; and in the neighbourhood a mineral ſpring. The knights of Malta were proprietors of it until the revolution.

Peyruis is a ſmall place in the diſtrict of Forcalquier, where ſome ſay the celebrated Petronius was born; and that it was anciently, on that account, called Vicus Petronii.

Apt is a ſmall city, at the conflux of the Durance and Calavon, eight leagues from Aix to the north. Julius Cæſar enlarged it, and made it a colony; and, to this day, there are ſeveral noble remains of antiquity about it. It was the ſee of a biſhop till the revolution.

The city and diſtrict of Avignon, and the county of Venaiſſin, belonged to the pope at the time of the revolution; but ſome of the leading characters in thoſe diſtricts refuſed ſubmiſſion to his holineſs, and ſolicited a junction with the French nation. By a vote of the aſſembly they were incorporated with France, and now form the department of Vaucluſe.

Avignon, with its diſtrict, anciently belonged to the counts of Thoulouſe and Provence. Afterwards they fell to the dukes of Burgundy. Then they were poſſeſſed by the kings of Sicily, who were alſo counts of Provence, until the year 1348, that Johanna, queen of Sicily, and counteſs of Provence, diſpoſed of the town, and its diſtrict, to pope Clement VI. for 80,000 florins. The diſtrict is very fruitful, and abounds in corn, wine, and ſaffron. As for the county of Venaiſſin, it was held either by the counts of Thoulouſe, its own counts, or the emperors, until the year 1273; ſince which it hath been poſſeſſed by the popes, and governed, under them, by officers called rectores till September, 1791, when it was annexed to France as before mentioned. It is very fruitful. The only place worth mentioning in the diſtrict of Avignon is that which gives name to it, viz.

Avignon, a large and beautiful city, ſituated at the conflux of the Rhone and Sorgue, 7 miles from Arles to the north, and 15 from Aix to the north-weſt. Here is a ſtone bridge over the Rhone; a very handſome college; and an univerſity, founded in the year 1303. No leſs than ſeven popes reſided here ſucceſſively, from the year 1307 to 1377. In the church of the Franciſcans is the tomb of the beautiful and learned Laura, ſo much admired and celebrated by the immortal Petrarch. The grave having been opened in the time of Francis I. a leaden box was found in it, containing a medal, with a copy of verſes written on parchment by Petrarch, in praiſe of his miſtreſs.

In the county of Venaiſſin the principal places are Liſle, on an iſland in the Sorgue, the fineſt town in the county. Carpentras, on the Rouſſe, four miles north-eaſt from Avignon. Vaiſſon, on the Orweſſe, eight leagues from Avignon, is a ſmall town, with a caſtle; and Cavaillon is a mean place, on an iſland in the river Durance.

The Government of LANGUEDOC is bounded to the ſouth by the Mediterranean and Rouſſillon; to the north by Auvergne, Lyonnois, and Guienne; to the eaſt by the Rhone; and to the weſt by Gaſcony. It is 70 leagues in length, and, where wideſt, 32 in breadth.

The principal rivers are the Rhone, Garonne, Aude, Tarne, Allier, and Loire. The royal canal of Languedoc is upwards of 100 miles in length, ſix feet deep every where, and the breadth about 20 fathoms. In ſome places it is carried under mountains, and in others over vallies, having all along ſluices, dams, reſervoirs, water-courſes, and draw-bridges. Several remarkable winds are obſerved in this province. That called the cers blows generally from the weſt along the ſouthern coaſts and is very refreſhing in ſummer: another, called autan, blows generally from the oppoſite quarter, and is hot and unwholeſome: and a third, called biſe, or the black, blows frequently in the valley through which the Rhone runs, very ſtrong and cold. When the wind in this valley blows from the ſouth, unattended with rain, it is no leſs unwholeſome than the autan. From the coaſts of Leucate to the Rhone, in the heat of ſummer, a ſea breeze ſets in, from ten in the forenoon to five in the afternoon, which cools the air, that would be otherwiſe almoſt inſupportable. In a valley, at the foot of the Pyrenees, there is a ſharp weſt or north-weſt wind, called the le vent de pas, which blows only in the night, and generally, in the ſummer, through the openings of the mountains; hence the people of the valley are obliged to winnow their corn in the night.

A very remarkable cuſtom prevails in this province, which is that of treading out their corn by horſes or mules, according to the Eaſtern cuſtom, frequently alluded to in the ſcriptures.

The coaſts of Languedoc are not only dangerous, but deſtitute of ſafe and good harbours. The exports conſiſt chiefly of wine, oil, dried cheſnuts, raiſins, woollen cloth, ſtuffs, ſilk, and corn. The common

diviſion of the province is into Upper and Lower. In the Upper the places of note are the following:

Thouloufe, the capital of the whole province, ſituated on the Garonne, over which it has a ſtately bridge, is one of the largeſt and moſt ancient cities in France; yet, having little trade, it is neither populous or rich. It is the ſee of an archbiſhop. Here alſo are an univerſity, an academy of ſciences and liberal arts, ſeveral monuments of antiquity, and many churches, beſides the cathedral. In that of the Jacobins is the ſhrine of Thomas Aquinas. The manufactures are ſilks, ſtuffs, and carpets. This city gives name to a diſtrict called Thouloufain, which contains a ſmall town on the Garonne, called Caſtle Sarazin. In the new diviſion of France, Thouloufe is the chief town in the department of Upper Garonne.

Alby, near the Tarne, 10 leagues north-eaſt of Thouloufe, is the ſee of a biſhop, contains ſeveral courts, a magnificent cathedral, a beautiful palace, and an agreeable walk, denominated La Lice.

Gaillac, on the Tarne, four leagues from Alby, has a good trade in wine, which is ſent down the Tarne to Bourdeaux; and Rabaſtein maintains a ſimilar commerce by means of the ſame river.

Caſtres was a biſhop's ſee before the revolution. Turquoiſes are found in the neighbourhood of this town.

Mirepoix, a town on the Lez, was the ſee of a biſhop before the revolution.

Carlat de Roguefort is a ſmall village, where the famous Monſ. Bayle was born: and Belleſtat is famous for a mineral ſpring.

In the Lower Languedoc the chief places are the following:

Alet, on the Aude, at the foot of the Pyrenean mountains, is famous for a hot ſpring.

Lurioux, on the Aude, one league from Alet, has ſome iron works, and a clock manufactory.

Carcaſſionne, on the Aude, ſeven miles eaſt of Thouloufe, is the ſee of a biſhop. It is the moſt regular built town in Languedoc, very populous, has a good trade, there being a manufactory of fine cloth carried on in the town, and a quarry of white and fleſh coloured marble in the neighbourhood, and is defended by a caſtle. In the new diviſion of France, Carcaſſionne is the chief town in the department of Aude.

Narbonne is a well fortified city, ſituated 25 leagues from Thouloufe to the eaſt, on a canal, which, by means of the river Aude, and lake Robine, had a communication with the ſea; but ſuch is the ſhallowneſs of the water upon the coaſt, that ſhips cannot get near it. It was the ſee of an archbiſhop before the revolution, in whoſe garden is a beautiful Roman ſepulchre of white marble, in the form of an altar. The city has ſeveral churches beſides the cathedral. Great quantities of ſalt are made in the neighbourhood, which is fruitful in corn and oil, but yields little wine.

St. Pons de Tomieres is a ſmall city on the river Jaur. In the neighbouring mountains are quarries of beautiful marble.

Beziers is an ancient city, ſituated four leagues from Narbonne. It covers all the ſides of a very ſteep and lofty hill, on the higheſt point of which is built the cathedral.

Montpelier, ſituated on an eminence, near the river Lez, is the largeſt city in the province next to Thouloufe, and the ſee of a biſhop. It contains a citadel, univerſity, phyſic garden, and an academy of ſciences: of the 15 ordinary fellows of the latter, three apply themſelves to the mathematics, three to anatomy, three to chemiſtry, three to botany, and three to natural philoſophy. The air of this city is deemed remarkably ſalubrious: the houſes are handſome, but the ſtreets narrow; and here is a good trade in ſilks, woollens, wine, ſtrong waters, verdigreaſe, &c.

Montpelier is pleaſantly ſituated, and commands many beautiful proſpects. On the Pierou there is a fountain, which, for ſimplicity and beauty, excels moſt others. The water is brought from a mountain five miles diſtant. The environs of this city are planted with vines, olive, fig, and mulberry-trees; the latter to nouriſh the ſilk-worms, which form the moſt conſiderable object of trade. Another thing that brings in a conſiderable revenue to this city is the diſtillation of waters of all ſorts, of *liqueurs*, and ſyrups, that are famous all over Europe.

This place is much reſorted to by thoſe of the Engliſh who labour under diſorders of the lungs; whom the reputed clearneſs of its atmoſphere, and fame of its phyſicians, have lured in hopes of a cure.

Montpelier, beſides its univerſity, and ſchools of medicine, boaſts an academy of ſciences, which is compoſed of ſix honorary members, three phyſicians, three aſtronomers, three mathematicians, three chemiſts, and three botaniſts. Rabelais is ſaid to have been of this univerſity; and his gown and cap are ſtill preſerved, with a kind of religious veneration, and uſed in the ceremony of conferring the degree of doctor. In the new diviſion of France, Montpelier is the chief town in the department of Herault.

Balaruc, on the Thau, not far from Montpelier, has ſome warm baths, the waters of which will retain their heat at leaſt eight hours.

Niſmes contains many monuments of antiquity, of which the principal are the amphitheatre, called Les Arenes; the temple of Diana; the quadrangular houſe ſuppoſed to have been erected by Adrian, and uſed formerly as a temple; and the octangular tower. Niſmes is a biſhop's ſee. The delightful walk, called the Eſplanade, is without the city. Here are ſeveral manufactories, a conſiderable trade in cloth and ſilk, an academy of Belles Lettres, and a citadel of four baſtions. A great part of the inhabitants are Proteſtants. The hills in the neighbourhood are covered with vines. In the new diviſion of France, Niſmes is the chief town in the department of Gar.

Beaucaire, a town ſituated on the Rhone, is noted for its fair, in which raw-ſilk, and other goods, are bought and ſold to a conſiderable amount.

Quiſſac is a ſmall place on the Vidourle, betwixt which and Sauxes is a mineral periodical ſpring, which runs ſeven, and intermits five hours. At Le Grand Galargues, not far from hence, a fine blue and red dye is made out of the night-ſhade, called, in French, morelle.

Uzez was the ſee of a biſhop before the revolution. Between Uzez and Niſmes is that noble piece of Roman antiquity called the Pont du Garde, being part of an aqueduct by which water is conveyed from a ſpring at Uzez to Niſmes, near 30 miles. It conſiſts of three ranges of arches acroſs the river Gardon.

In the neighbourhood of Uzez are ſome excellent mineral ſprings, particularly at the village of Youſet.

Alais was the ſee of a biſhop till the revolution. The Proteſtants are numerous hereabouts. This city belonged to the prince of Conti, has a caſtle, and is noted for the culture of ſilk.

Marvejols has ſix yearly fairs, and drives a good trade.

Pui, the capital of the county of Velay, near the Loire, is a pretty large city, and was the ſee of a biſhop before the revolution. Here are ſeveral churches.

The government of Foix is bounded on the weſt by Gaſcoigne, on the eaſt and north by Languedoc, and to the ſouth by Rouſſillon and the Pyrenean Mountains. It is divided into Upper and Lower. The former is mountainous, but abounds in wood, iron, caverns, and mineral waters; and the latter is fruitful in corn, wine, &c. The principal places in Upper Foix are

Foix, the capital, ſituated at the foot of the Pyrenean Mountains. It is defended by a caſtle.

Taraſcon has many iron forges; and Acqs, at the foot of the Pyrenees, receives its denomination from its hot waters.

In

In Lower Foix are

Pamiers, on the Auriege, the ſee of a biſhop. In the new diviſion of France, Pamiers is the chief town in the department of Auriege.

Saverdun is a ſmall town, on the Auriege; Mazeres, formerly was the reſidence of the counts of Foix; the diſtrict of Donnezau, contains the town of Guerizu; and the diſtrict of Andorre, has no place remarkable but the village of Ourdines.

The government of ROUSSILLON is bounded on the north by the Leſſer Pyrenees, on the ſouth by the Greater Pyrences, on the weſt by Cerdagne, and on the eaſt by the Mediterranean Sea. It is 20 leagues long, and 12 broad, and received its name from a Roman colony, called Ruſcino. The heat here, in ſummer, is intenſe; but the ſoil is fruitful in corn, wine, oil, millet, oranges, &c. Sheep, quails, partridges, and pidgeons abound; but cows and oxen are ſcarce. The ground is ploughed by mules; and a great deal of oil, with ſome corn, millet, and wool, are exported from the county. It is watered by the Tet, the Tec, and the Agly, which are, properly ſpeaking, only torrents, produced by the melting of the ſnow on the mountains. It belonged formerly to Spain, but was yielded to France by the treaty of the Pyrenees in 1659. Beſides Rouſſillon, this government includes a part of Cerdagne. The principal places in Rouſſillon are

Perpignan, the capital, ſituated on the river Tet, a league from the Mediterranean, which, though not large, is populous, well built, and ſtrongly fortified. It is the ſee of a biſhop. Here are an univerſity, ſeveral alms-houſes, hoſpitals, and churches, and a noble cannon foundery. The remains of the old town of Rouſſillon lie on the river Tet, not far from hence. In the new diviſion of France, Perpignan is the chief town in the department of the Eaſtern Pyrenees.

St. Nazire, Vernet, and Bains, are three villages in the diſtrict of Perpignan; at the firſt of which ſalt is made of the ſea-water; the two laſt are noted for their warm baths.

Billegarde is a fortreſs, built for the defence of a paſs leading from Catalonia to Rouſſillon; Prades is a handſome little town on the Tet; Mount-Lanis, the principal place in the territory of Cerdagne, is a well fortified town; and Ville Franche, on the Tet, has a ſtrong fort near it.

The boundaries of the Government of NAVARRE and BEARN are Labourd on the weſt, Bigorre on the eaſt, Gaſcoigne on the north, and the Pyrenean Mountains on the ſouth. Navarre, included in this government, is but a ſmall portion of the ancient kingdom of Navarre, which, having been ſeized upon by Ferdinand, king of Arragon and Caſtile, this part alone was reſtored, and became annexed to the crown of France. It is only eight leagues in length, and five in breadth. Navarre is barren and mountainous, and contains only one place worth notice, viz. St. Jean-Piéde-Port, which is ſituated on the Nice, a league from the borders of Spain, and eight from Bayonne. It is well fortified, and has a caſtle, commanding the paſs of the mountains. The French king took the title of king of Navarre from hence.

The principality of Bearn lies at the foot of the Pyrenean Mountains, being about 16 leagues in length, and 12 in breadth. In general it is but a barren country; yet the plains yield conſiderable quantities of flax, and a kind of Indian corn, called mailloc. Theſe mountains are rich in mines of iron, copper, and lead. Some of them alſo are covered with vines, and others with pine-trees; and they give riſe to ſeveral mineral ſprings, and two conſiderable rivers; the one called the Gave of Oleron, and the other the Gave of Bearn. Some wine is exported from this country; and the Spaniards buy up great numbers of horſes and cattle, together with moſt of their linen, of which there is a conſiderable manufactory.

Pau, the place of moſt note in this principality, is a ſmall but well-built town on the Gave of Bearn. Here are two hoſpitals, a manufactory of cloth, an academy of arts and ſciences, and a palace, in which Henry IV. was born. In the new diviſion of France, Pau is the chief town in the department of the Lower Pyrenees.

The Government of GUYENNE and GASCONY, which is the largeſt in France, being 65 leagues in length, from eaſt to weſt, and 56 in breadth, from north to ſouth, is bounded on the ſouth by the Pyrenean Mountains; on the north by Limouſin, Angournois, and Saintonge; on the eaſt by Languedoc and Auvergne; and on the weſt by the Ocean. This government is fruitful in corn, wine, fruits, hemp, tobacco, brandy, prunes, and many other commodities. They have alſo medicinal ſprings, with copper, coal, and other mines, and quarries of marble of all colours. The chief rivers are the Garonne and Adour, both which diſcharge themſelves into the Ocean. Guyenne, properly ſo called, is bounded on the north by Saintonge, on the eaſt by Perigord and Agenois, on the ſouth by Bzadois and Gaſcony, and on the weſt by the Ocean; and contains the following places of note, viz.

Bourdeaux, the capital of the whole government. The neighbouring diſtrict, called Bourdelois, is very fruitful, particularly in vines, cheſnuts, and fig-trees. The city ſtands on the banks of the Garonne, about 20 leagues from its mouth, and is one of the moſt ancient in France. It carries on a great trade with moſt parts of Europe, the tide riſing ſo high in the river, that ſhips of great burden can come up to the quay. The city and harbour are defended by three forts. The fineſt parts of the former are the palace near the harbour, and the ſuburb of Chartron. It is the ſee of an archbiſhop. Here are an univerſity, an academy of ſciences and fine arts, a large Gothic cathedral dedicated to St. Andrew, ſeveral other churches, three ſeminaries, ſeveral public fountains, an exchange, ſome remains of antiquity, and a manufactory of lace. About ſix leagues below the city is a watch-tower, or light-houſe, called La Tour de Cordouan. Foreign Proteſtant merchants, even before the revolution, were indulged here in the private exerciſe of their religion. Richard II. king of England, was born here in 1367. An ingenious writer comments on this city in the following picturesque manner. "The favourable impreſſion which Bourdeaux cannot fail to make on a ſtranger at his arrival is well confirmed by a reſidence in it. Pleaſure ſeems to have as many votaries here as commerce; luxury and induſtry reigning within the ſame walls, and that in the moſt extended degree. Commercial cities are uſually marked by reſerved manners, and the love of gain. Avarice, powerful in its influence over the human heart, ſwallows up and abſorbs the more ſoft and melting paſſions. Here, however, theſe rules are entirely controverted. Diſſipation and debauchery are more openly patronized, and have made a more univerſal and apparent conqueſt than in half the capitals of Europe."

Blaye, on the Garonne, has a citadel, where all ſhips bound to Bourdeaux muſt leave their cannon and arms till they return. Near it, on an iſland, is a fort that commands the river.

Dibourne, at the conflux of the rivers Iſle and Dordogne, drives a conſiderable trade in ſalt.

Perigneux, the capital of the county, called Perigord, which contains ſome mines of iron and mineral waters, ſtands on the river Iſle, has ſome remains of Roman antiquities. It is a biſhop's ſee. In the new diviſion of France, Perigneux is the chief town in the department of Dordogne.

Rodez, the capital of the country of Rouergue, which abounds in cattle, iron, copper, vitriol, and ſulphur, ſtands on the river Aveyron, contains ſeveral churches, and is the ſee of a biſhop. In the new diviſion of France, Rodez is the chief town in the department of Aveyron.

At Milan, or Millhaud, a town on the river Tarne, in Rouergue, before the revolution, there were five convents, and a commandery of the knights of Malta.

Pont de Camerares is celebrated for its mineral waters.

Aiguillon, on the Garonne, has a conſiderable trade in hemp, tobacco, grain, wine, and brandy, and is defended by a caſtle.

Montaubon, on the Tarne, is a handſome well built town, eight leagues from Thouloufe. It was a biſhop's ſee before the revolution. Here are an academy of Belles Lettres, and a manufactory of woollen ſtuffs.

This town ſuſtained conſiderable damage by a dreadful inundation of the river Tarne, which began on the 14th of November, 1766, and laid 1200 houſes in ruins. The particulars of this melancholy diſaſter are thus related. The fall of the houſes began in the ſuburb of Sapiac. The noiſe occaſioned by their tumbling was heard in the neighbouring ſuburb, with the cries of ſeveral perſons who called out for help; but as the water ſurrounded entirely the ſuburb of Sapiac, it was very difficult going to the aſſiſtance of the unhappy inhabitants. The river, which was prodigiouſly ſwoln and rapid, was laden with a number of trees of an enormous ſize, that had been torn up by the roots, and carried down along with it; a circumſtance which joined with the darkneſs of the night, rendered the paſſage of boats very dangerous. Theſe obſtacles, however, did not intimidate a mariner, who, in ſpite of the intreaties and tears of his wife and children, ventured to croſs the river, in order to ſave ſuch as were on the point of periſhing. His courage rouſed ſeveral of his fellow boatmen to imitate him; and by means of their help no one periſhed.

The floods continued to increaſe, and redouble their alarms. The inhabitants of the city, ſeparated from the ſuburb by a bridge, ran to the Ville Bourbonne. At ſeven o'clock of the morning of Tueſday, November 18, the floods began to abate, and their decreaſe continued till noon. Hope immediately began to ſpring up in every boſom, but was ſoon ſtifled by the fill of the greateſt part of the ſuburb of Gaſſeras, adjoining to that of Ville Bourbonne; and it was perceived that all the houſes, even thoſe that were yet at a diſtance from the waters, were tottering, and reſted only on a looſe earth, which the waters had already undermined.

At noon the ſwell began again, and was continually augmenting. The conſternation was then univerſal. Orders were given to move off all the effects. Perſons of all ranks were deſired to aſſiſt in the removal; and all the carriages were engaged to make the removal the more ſpeedy. The tribunals of juſtice opened their halls, the monks their convents and cloiſters: the churches were alſo offered as repoſitories for the effects of the people. The inhabitants of Ville Bourbonne abandoned ſucceſſively their houſes; and the inhabitants of the city, with an earneſtneſs which did honour to humanity, received their unhappy neighbours, and with marks of true tenderneſs, endeavoured to aſſuage a grief which had no bounds.

The inundation increaſed during the whole day, and continued ſtill augmenting till ſeven in the morning of November 19, when the waters were thirty-two feet above the common water level. Such an extraordinary inundation occaſioned ſundry neighbouring villages to be entirely overflowed, and produced the greateſt ravages. In the plains the buildings were overwhelmed, the grain waſhed away, the cattle drowned, and the greateſt part of the inhabitants found their only ſafety in ſudden flight, or in climbing high trees, where the horrors of famine were joined to the dreadful ſpectacle of beholding their dwellings deſtroyed, and their effects carried away by the flood.

Agen is a large and populous city, and the ſee of a biſhop. It is ſituated on the river Garonne; and had the honour to be the native place of that prodigy of learning, Joſeph Scaliger. In the new diviſion of France, Agen is the chief town in the department of Lot and Garonne.

Ville Franche, in Latin Francopolis, is the capital of the Lower Marché of Rouergue, on the river Avevron. Here are a chapter, a college, and a manufactory of hempen cloth.

Cranfac, a little place in the Lower Marché of Rouergue, is noted for its excellent ſulphurous mineral waters and coal-pits.

Gaſcoigne, which conſtitutes the ſouth part of this government, is ſeparated from Guyenne, on the north, by the Garonne. The inhabitants are remarkable for a vicious pronunciation of the French tongue, for being great boaſters, and much given to blundering. Hence the phraſe Gaſconade.

The principal places are the following: Baſas, on the Lavaſanne, ten leagues ſouth of Bourdeaux.

Condorn, on the Baiſe, contains ſeveral convents, gives name to a fertile diſtrict called Condomois, and before the revolution was the ſee of a biſhop.

Aire, on the Adour, is the capital of the diſtrict of Turſan, and before the revolution was the ſee of a biſhop. The kings of the Vitigoths formerly kept their court here; and the ruins of the palace of Alaric are ſtill to be ſeen on the banks of the river.

Acqs, on the ſame river, had its name from its hot baths, which were celebrated in the Roman times. It was a biſhop's ſee before the revolution, and has a good trade.

Bayonne, the capital of the diſtrict of Labourd, which produces ſome fruits, is a pretty large city near the ſea, five leagues on the borders of Spain to the north, and 120 from Paris. Being one of the keys of the kingdom on the Spaniſh ſide, it is ſtrongly fortified.

Here are a citadel, with two forts, and other works. It was, before the revolution, the ſee of a biſhop, and had a revenue of 19,000 livres, out of which his taxation to Rome was only 100 florins. Bayonne is moſt agreeably ſituated at the conflux of two rivers, the Adour and the Nive. The firſt is ſcarce leſs conſiderable than the Thames oppoſite Lambeth: and acroſs it is a wooden bridge, which joins the place to a ſuburb, called Le Fauxburg du St. Eſprit. The Nive, which is ſmall, and riſes in the Pyrenees, interſects the centre of the city, and reſembles one of the canals in Holland. The entrance into the Adour, which is about four miles below the town, is rendered both difficult and hazardous, from the ſands, which have collected and form a bar towards the mouth. It is, notwithſtanding, a very agreeable place of reſidence, and furniſhes, in profuſion, all the requiſites of life. Bayonets for guns were invented here, and from hence is derived the name.

St. Jean de Luz is a ſmall town, ſituated three leagues from Bayonne, over which is a bridge, joining it to the village of Sibour, with a harbour for fiſhing-boats, belonging to both theſe places. The peace of the Pyrenees, as it was called, was concluded in 1659, in an iſle near this town, formed by the river Bidaſſoa, which is the boundary betwixt France and Spain, and called the Iſle of Pheaſants.

Mauleon, the capital of the county of Soule, which lies betwixt Lower Navarre and Bearn, at the foot of the Pyrenean Mountains, contains about 70 pariſhes, and abounds with woods; but is without any navigable river for tranſporting its timber to the ſea. The town ſtands on the Gave, ten leagues from Pau to the weſt, and has a caſtle.

Auch, the capital not only of the county of Armagnac, but of all Gaſcoigny, ſtands on the river Gees. Here is a magnificent cathedral, the city being the ſee of a biſhop. In the new diviſion of France, Auch is the chief town in the department of Gers.

St. Bertrand, a ſmall city, but the capital of the county of Comminges, and the ſee of a biſhop before the revolution. It was built by St. Bertrand, and therefore called by his name.

St. Beat is a ſtrong town on the Garonne, two leagues from St. Bertrand to the ſouth. The houſes are all

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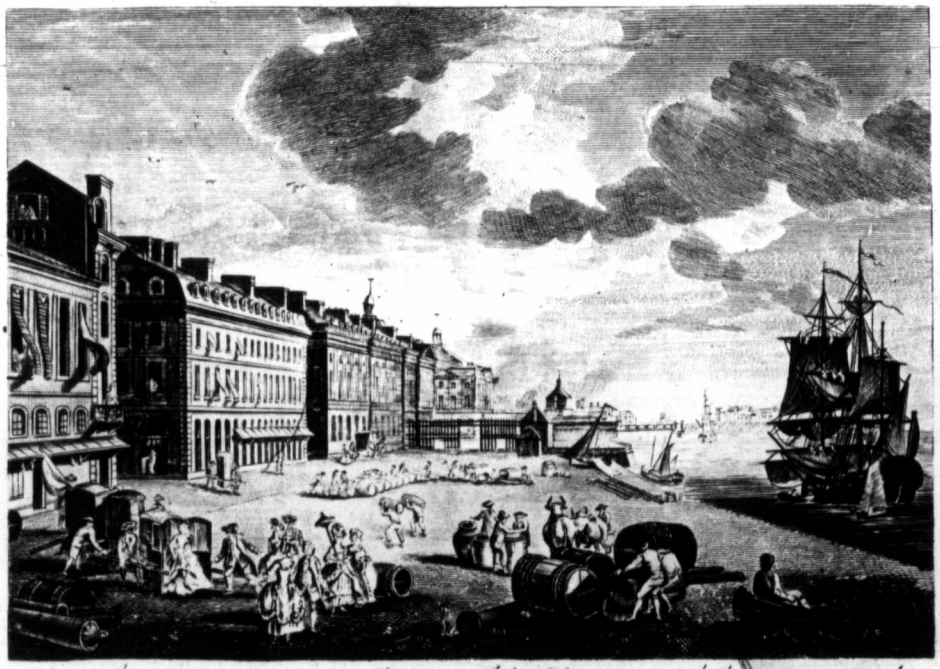
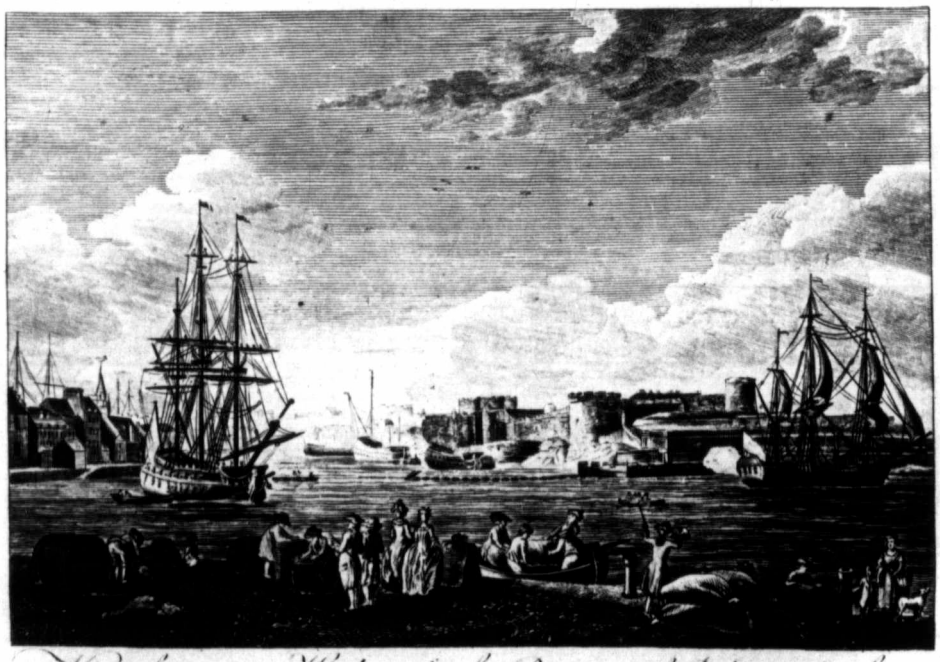


Port of BOURDEAUX *Capital of the Province of Guienne, in the Kingdom of France.*



View of BREST *Harbour in the Province of Brittany, in the Kingdom of France.*

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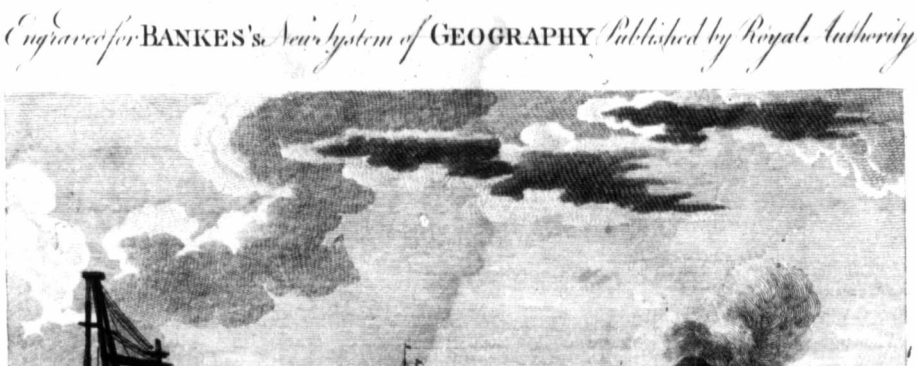

View of the Port & Magazine of ROCHEFORT, *in the Province of Aunis, in the Kingdom of France.*

Tinney sculp.

The Town & Harbour of ROCHELLE, *Capital of the Province of Aunis, in the Kingdom of France.*

all of marble, which is here more common than free ſtone.

Tarbe, a ſmall city, but the capital of Bigorre, and the ſee of a biſhop, ſtands on the banks of the Adour. In the new diviſion of France, Tarbe is the capital of the department of Upper Pyrenees.

Bagneres, a town on the ſame river, is famous for its mineral waters and warm baths.

At Baredge, a village ſituated at the foot of the Pyrenees, are four baths of different degrees of heat, which are deemed efficacious in the rheumatiſm, and other diſtempers.

The Government of SAINTONGE and AGOUMOIS, or AUGUMOIS, is 25 leagues long, 12 broad, and bounded on the eaſt by Agoumois and Perigord, on the weſt by the Ocean, on the north by Poitou and Aunis, and on the ſouth by the Garronne and Burdelois. The rivers are the Charente and Butonne; and the country abounds in grain, wine, ſaffron, fruit, ſalt, and mineral ſprings. The principal places are the following:

Saintes, the capital, ſituated on the Charente, is the ſee of a biſhop. Some remains of Roman works are ſtill to be ſeen in it, and the bridge is ſaid to have been built by the emperor Julian. In the new diviſion of France, Saintes is the chief town in the department of Lower Charente.

Pons is a handſome town on the Little Seine, over which there are ſeveral bridges, whence the town had its name. Here alſo is a mineral ſpring, with churches, and alms-houſes.

St. Jean de Angeli, a town on the river Butonne, is noted for its brandy, and woollen ſtuffs.

Angoumois was a duchy, and is watered by the rivers Charente and Touvres, and yields grain, wine, ſaffron, all ſorts of fruits, and iron. The places of moſt note in it are

Angulême, the capital of the province, in the center of which it ſtands, near the Charente, is the ſee of a biſhop, and contains a manufactory of paper, a general hoſpital, ſeveral churches, &c. In the new diviſion of France, Angulême is the capital of the department of Charente.

Cognac, on the Charente, is ſituated in a moſt delightful country, and celebrated for the admirable brandy made here, as alſo for an old caſtle, in which Francis I. was born.

Rochefaucault is a little town, which gave title to a duke eminent in the literary world.

The Government of AUNOIS is bounded on the ſouth and eaſt by Saintonge, on the north by Poitou, and on the weſt by the Ocean. It is only 10 leagues long, and about as many broad, being the ſmalleſt province in France; but is fertile in grain, paſturage, vines, &c. It has a good harbour, and great quantities of ſalt. The principal places which it contains are as follow:

Rochefort is a handſome maritime town, on the Charente, five leagues from its mouth, and about ſeven from Rochelle. It was erected by order of Lewis XIV. in a very ſtrong manner; and furniſhed with abundance of neceſſary ſtore-houſes, ſtores, magazines, a capacious and excellent dock, a victualling office, an hoſpital for ſick and wounded ſeamen, a manufactory of ſail cloth, a foundery, &c. The river is broad, deep, and well guarded by forts to its mouth. The harbour is convenient and large; and the marine academy contains 300 young men, who are inſtructed in every thing requiſite to qualify them for naval ſervice.

As the moſt minute particulars which concern the ſea-ports of France are of great importance to be known to the ſubjects of Great Britain, we ſhall ſubjoin the following pertinent remarks.

The diſtance, from La Rochelle to Rocheſhes fort is ſeven leagues. The firſt four are exceeding pleaſant, the road lying along the ſea-ſhore, and in view of the iſlands Oleron and Aix, which appear at a ſmall diſtance. The city is built in the midſt of marſhes, which were drained for that purpoſe. Colbert, who was then prime miniſter, uſed to call it La Ville D'Or, (Gold-Town,) from the prodigious ſums his maſter had expended in its erection. Time has, however, given the ſanction of utility to the project, and rendered this port as neceſſary and important to France as either Breſt or Toulon. It is ſituate on the Charente, about five leagues from its mouth. Every thing appears to be under an admirable regulation; and the ſeveral branches of naval equipment are carried on with vigour and diſpatch. The armoury, the rope-walks, and ſtore houſes of every kind, are all in the beſt order, and kept with prodigious neatneſs. Lewis XIV. fortified the city at the time he erected it; but its ſituation, at ſo conſiderable a diſtance from the ſea, renders it ſufficiently ſecure from any attack. It is laid out with beauty and elegance. The ſtreets are broad and ſtrait, traverſing the whole place from ſide to ſide; but the buildings do not correſpond with them in this reſpect, as they are moſtly low and irregular.

Rochelle, or La Rochelle, the capital of this government, ſituated on the ſea-coaſt, two leagues from the iſle of Rhé, and four from Oleron, is a handſome town, with a fine port of a circular form, and ſtrong fortifications. Here alſo are an academy of Belles Lettres, a ſugar refinery, and a medical, botanical, and anatomical ſchool. Before the revolution, it was the ſee of a biſhop, ſuffragan to Bourdeaux. The ſalt marſhes affect the air of this place greatly.

This city, being the chief ſeat of the reformed in France, ſuffered very much during the civil wars, and was often valiantly defended, and long poſſeſſed by that party, till at length Lewis XIII. after a long and famous ſiege, made himſelf maſter of it in the year 1628, chiefly by the means of an admirable rampart, or bank of earth, which cardinal de Richlieu cauſed to be raiſed againſt it on the ſide of the Ocean. After it was taken the king cauſed the walls and fortifications to be demoliſhed, except only two towers, which defend the port: but Lewis XIV. cauſed new and ſtrong fortifications to be raiſed about it.

There are two iſlands on the coaſt belonging to this province and government, Oleron and Rhé, the former of which is five leagues long, two broad, and about three from the main land, having a town, caſtle, and a light-houſe on it. The inhabitants were anciently famed for their ſkill in navigation, and are ſtill good ſeamen. The other iſle is about four miles in length, two broad, and betwixt two and three from the continent. It is populous, abounds in wine and ſalt, and has ſeveral forts on it, with a little fortified town, called St. Martin.

The Government of POITOU is bounded on the north by Touraine and Anjou; on the ſouth by Aunois, Saintonge, and Angoumois; on the eaſt by La Marche and part of Berry; and on the weſt by the Ocean. It is 48 leagues long, and 22 broad. It belonged formerly to the kings of England; but being loſt by Henry VI. was re-united to France. The rivers are the Sevre-Niortoiſe, Vienne, and Clain. The produce and commodities are corn, cattle, and woollen ſtuffs.

Poitiers, the capital of the whole province, ſituated on the river Clain, is large, and contains many churches, ſome remains of Roman antiquities, an univerſity, and manufactories of woollen caps, ſtockings, gloves, and combs. It is the ſee of a biſhop. The country round is noted for vipers, which are in ſuch great numbers that vaſt quantities of them are tranſported to Venice to make treacle. In the year 1356 the French were defeated by the Engliſh, under Edward the Black Prince, near this town, and John, their king, taken priſoner, and carried to England, where he continued four years. In the new diviſion of France, Poitiers is the capital of the department of Vienne.

Niort is a conſiderable town, ſituated on the Sevre-Niortoiſe. Here are a caſtle, two pariſh churches, a general hoſpital, with manufactories of ſhamoy leather

and woollen ſtuffs, in which, as well as cattle, the inhabitants carry on a conſiderable trade.

Richlieu, a handſome town, nine leagues from Poitiers, gave the title of duke and peer to the head of the family of Richlieu, having been founded by the cardinal of that name, who was born in this place, then only a village.

Loudun, 10 leagues north of Poitiers, has a caſtle. Les Sables D'Olow has a harbour, and a caſtle. Foutenay-le-Comte, on the Vendec, has a trade in cloth and woollen ſtuff.

St. Maixant is a town on the river Seure, or Sevre, in Upper Poitou. It is the ſee of a biſhop. Here are ſome woollen manufactories, in which, as well as corn and cattle, the inhabitants deal pretty largely.

The Government of BRITTANY is a peninſula, which borders on Normandy, Maine, Anjou, and Poitou, towards the eaſt only, all the other parts being bounded by the ſea. It is 60 leagues long, 45 broad, and had its name from the Britons, who fled hither from the Saxons in the 10th century. It is watered by the Loire and Villaine, and abounds in lead, pit-coal, wood, ſalt, butter, cattle, &c. has many good harbours on the coaſt, and contains abundance of ſeamen, fiſhermen, &c. The air is but indifferent. The people ſpeak a jargon ſomewhat reſembling the Welch.

Rennes, the capital, ſituated at the conflux of the Iſle and the Villaine, about 14 leagues from the ſea, is pretty large and populous. It is the ſee of an archbiſhop. Here are a number of churches beſides the cathedral. Several of the principal ſtreets are handſome, as the conflagration in the year 1720, which almoſt reduced the whole place to aſhes, obliged the inhabitants to rebuild them. In one of the ſquares was a fine ſtatue, in bronze, of Lewis XV. It was erected by the province in 1744, ſoon after his recovery from that dangerous illneſs in Flanders, when he obtained the title of "Bien Aimé." Beneath the prince on one ſide, was Hegeya, the goddeſs of health, with her ſerpent and patera; and on the other the genius of Bretagne kneeling on one knee, and in her countenance exultation and reverence finely marked. At the foot of the pedeſtal was an inſcription in Latin. At the revolution in the zeal of the people againſt monarchy, this ſtatue was thrown down and the metal converted to the ſervice of the ſtate. In the new diviſion of France, Rennes is the chief town in the department of Iſle and Villaine.

Vitrei, a ſmall town on the Villaine, has a manufactory of ſtockings, gloves, thread, and coarſe cloth.

Painbeauf, on the Loire, is a market-town between the ſea and Nantes, where the cargoes of the larger ſhips are put into ſmaller veſſels to be ſent to the latter place.

Nantes is ſituated on the Loire, about 8 leagues from the ſea, and 18 from Rennes to the ſouth. Here are many churches and an univerſity. This town carries on a great trade; though ſhips of burthen cannot come up to it. It is the ſee of a biſhop. It is famous for the edict iſſued here, in 1594, by Henry IV. in favour of the Proteſtants, which was revoked in 1685 by Lewis XIV. An excellent ſort of brandy is exported hence into foreign countries. There is a kind of partnerſhip or league betwixt the merchants of this city and thoſe of Bilboa in Spain. Exactly oppoſite to the ſpot on which ſtands the town, the Loire is divided into ſeveral channels by a number of ſmall iſlands, moſt of which are covered with elegant houſes. The great quay is more than a mile in length, and the buildings are ſuperb. In the new diviſion of France, Nantes is the capital of the department of Lower Loire.

Dol, before the revolution, was the ſee of a biſhop. The dioceſe was the ſmalleſt in Brittany; but the biſhop had the title of count, and was lord of the city.

Dinan, near the Rance, 14 leagues ſouth of St. Malo, is ſtrong both by nature and art, and admits of large veſſels to come up to it. The walls are ſo thick that coaches may run on the top of them. Here are mineral ſprings.

Concale is a port which gives name to a cape noted for fine oyſters.

St. Brieu, nine leagues weſt of St. Malo, is ſituated among mountains. It is the ſee of a biſhop, and contains a college. In the new diviſion of France, St. Brieu, is the chief town in the department of the North Coaſt.

Treguier is a ſea-port. Here is a ſmall harbour, with ſome trade in horſes, corn, hemp, and flax, and a manufactory of paper.

Vannes, the capital of Lower Brittany, is ſituated 20 leagues north-weſt of Nantes, on a bay of the ſea, and takes its name from the ancient Veneti. Here are ſeveral churches, and it is the ſee of a biſhop. In the new diviſion of France, Vannes is the capital of the department of Morbihan.

Port Louis, ſince the revolution called Port de Revolutionnaire, a town at the mouth of the river Blaver. It has a citadel, and an harbour, which is very good and ſafe; yet there is little trade, except in ſardines and eels.

L'Orient, or Port L'Orient, is a town ſituated in the bay of Port Louis, at the mouth of the river Scorf, where the French Eaſt-India company load and unload their ſhips, and have their chief warehouſes and magazines.

Hennebond is a ſmall town on the river Blaver, two leagues from its mouth, having a harbour and good trade.

Belle-Iſle, or Beautiful Iſland, about ſix leagues long, and two broad, lies ſix leagues from the continent, and is almoſt entirely ſurrounded with rocks. The chief place on it is Palais, which is fortified with a caſtle, and has a good road.

In the year 1759 Admiral Hawke, with a ſquadron of Engliſh ſhips, off the ſouth coaſt of this iſland, burnt, ſunk, and deſtroyed moſt of the French fleet from Breſt, under M. Conflans. In April, 1761, this iſland was attacked by an Engliſh fleet, under the command of commodore Keppel, and a body of land forces, under general Hodgſon. No action of greater ſpirit and gallantry had been diſplayed during that whole war. The garriſon at length capitulated, and marched out with the honours of war. The iſland was reſtored to France by the peace of 1763.

Quimper, or Quimper Corentin, a town on the river Oder, is large and populous, has a good trade, barks bringing up goods at high-water to the very town. It is alſo the ſee of a biſhop. In the new diviſion of France, Quimper is the chief town in the department of Finiſtre.

Chuteauſin, a market-town on the river Auſun, has iron and copper mines in its neighbourhood, and a great trade in ſalmon and ſlate.

St. Pol de Leon, or ſimply Leon, is a town on the northern coaſt of Brittany. Here is a ſafe harbour, defended by a fort. Before the revolution it was the ſee of a biſhop.

Morlaix, a well built, populous, walled town, is ſituated on a river of the ſame name, about two leagues from the ſea. The harbour is defended by fort Taureau, which ſtands upon an iſland; and the trade is very conſiderable in flax, canvas, paper, linen cloth, thread, &c.

St. Malo is a ſmall but populous city, ſituated on a little iſland, (which is joined to the continent by a mole or cauſeway, at the head of which is a ſtrong fort,) on the northern coaſt of Brittany. Here are ſeveral fine churches, and a large harbour, but of difficult acceſs. For the defence of the town and harbour there are ſeveral forts, and other works, with a good garriſon. Before the revolution it was the ſee of a biſhop. The trade of the town is very conſiderable; in particular it ſends a number of ſhips to the cod fiſhery; and, in time of war, fits out many privateers. The caſtle was built by the celebrated Anne of Bretagne, who annexed the

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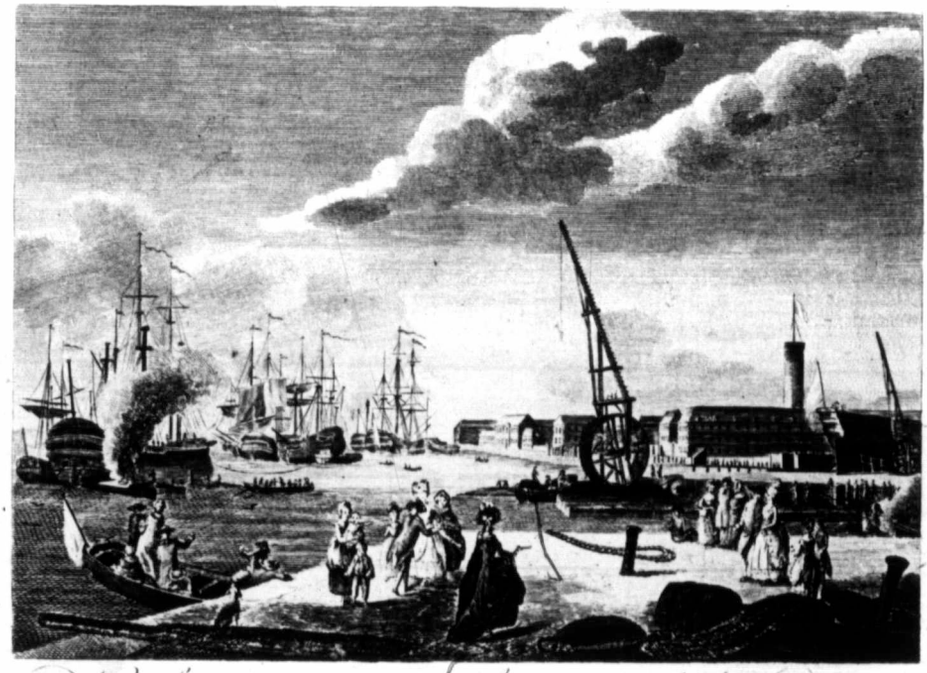
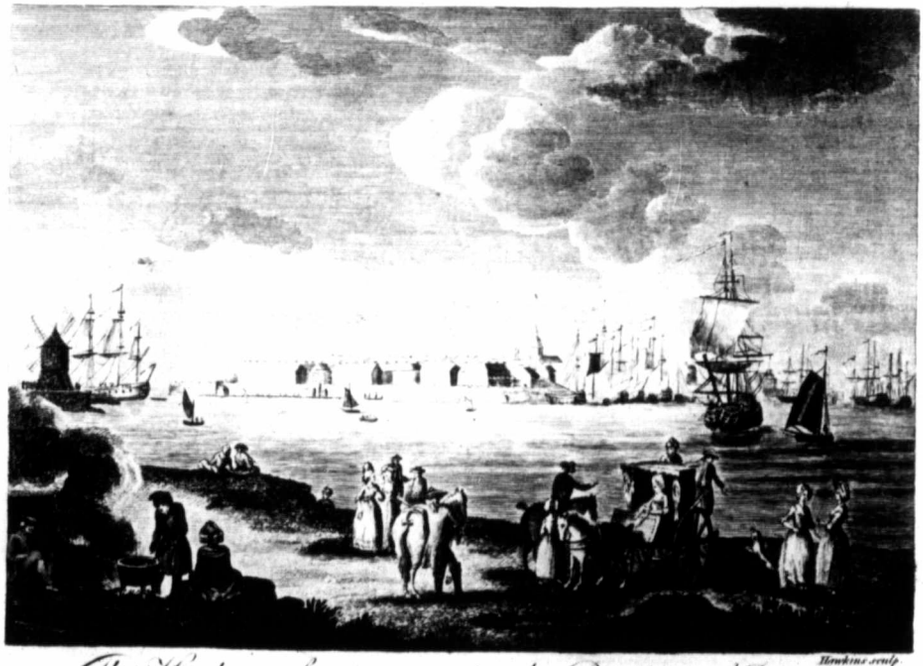


View of PORT L'ORIENT *in the Province of Brittany in the Kingdom of France.*



Hawkins sculp.

The Harbour of ST. MALO *in the Province of Brittany in the Kingdom of France.*

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the duchy to the crown of France, by her marriage with Charles VIII. Being aſked by the engineer, who conſtructed it, what plan ſhe would chooſe as its model, ſhe replied, "My coach." It is ſo in effect. A large ſquare area within conſtitutes the body; two ſmall towers, in the fore part, anſwer to the fore wheels of a carriage; as two others of ſuperior ſize do to the hinder ones; a projection in front forms the pole; and an arched nich behind correſponds to the place where the laquais ſtand. The ſtreets are very narrow, and the houſes high.

Breſt is a famous ſea-port town, ſeated on the north ſide of a large commodious bay or harbour, which opens to the Ocean in the moſt extreme weſtern part of the continent of France. It is 12 leagues diſtant from St. Pol de Leon to the ſouth-weſt, and 5 from the point or promontory of Conquet. The city is ſmall, and the ſtreets narrow. It is defended by a caſtle, which ſtands on a rock, very ſteep towards the ſea, and which, on the land ſide is ſurrounded with a broad ditch, and ſome other fortifications. The harbour lies between the city and the ſuburb called Recouvrance, which is as large as half the city. There is over againſt the caſtle a tower, which defends the entrance into the port on that ſide. The harbour is encompaſſed with very fine quays, on which are built ſeveral warehouſes, filled with all ſorts of naval ſtores. The road is extremely ſpacious; but the entrance of it, called the Goulet, or Gullet by reaſon of its narrowneſs, is exceeding difficult, becauſe of certain rocks, known by the names of Minons, Filets, and Mingant, that lie under water at high-tide. This part, therefore, is the more ſecure retreat for the French ſhips of war, for which it is the only port on this ſide the Mediterranean: ſo that the town is one of the grand magazines of the admiralty of France, Toulon, in the Mediterranean, being the other; and in this harbour the greateſt number of the French navy, as in that the ſhips of the greateſt burden, winter and are fitted out. Naval ſtores and proviſions for ſeventy ſail of men of war are ſometimes laid up at Breſt; and ſhips of 80 and 90 guns are built here, which makes it a populous and rich place. There is always a ſtrong garriſon in the caſtle. Lewis XIV. cauſed an arſenal to be built here, and eſtabliſhed a maritime academy.

The Government of MAINE, PERCHE, and the County of LAVAL, are comprized in one. Maine is bounded by Perche on the eaſt, by Brittany and Anjou towards the weſt, by Touraine and Vendomois towards the ſouth, and by Normandy to the north. It is 30 leagues long, 20 broad, fruitful in corn, wine, wood, paſture, &c. and contains ſome iron works, ſlate, free-ſtone, quarries of marble, mineral waters, &c. Its rivers are the Loire, Sarte, Haine, and Maienne.

Mans, the capital of the whole province, ſituated on the river Sarte, is a very ancient city. There are many churches here, and alſo a college. Before the revolution, Mans was the ſee of a biſhop; and here were ſeveral convents and an inferior court of judicature.

Maienne, a town on a river of the ſame name, was, before the revolution, a duchy and peerage belonging to the duke of Mazarine. It has ſeveral churches, with a granary of ſalt.

La Ferté Bernard, a ſmall town on the Huiſne, contains a caſtle, and belonged to the duke of Richlieu before the revolution.

Chateau de Loire, on the Loire, is famed in hiſtory for holding out againſt Herbert Canute, of Mans, a ſeven years ſiege.

That part of this government called Perche is bounded on the eaſt by Chartrain and Timerais, on the weſt and north by Normandy, and on the ſouth by Maienne, being 15 leagues in length, and 12 in breadth. The country abounds in cattle, ſheep, corn, flax, hay, mineral waters, iron mines, and cyder.

Mortagne, ſituated near the borders of Normandy, at the ſpring of the little river Huiſne, is the largeſt and moſt populous city in this country. There are two parochial churches, and a collegiate one. There is here a granary for ſalt, a manufactory of very coarſe linen cloth, proper only to make ſacks, which they ſend to Paris.

Belleſme, 4 leagues ſouth of Mortagne, is famous for a mineral ſpring in its vicinity; and Nogene-le-Rotrou, on the Heime, 11 leagues north-weſt of Chartres, has ſeveral manufactories, particularly of ſerges, knives, and linen cloths.

At la Trappe was a celebrated abbey of Ciſtertian monks, who were remarkable for the auſterity of their manners. It ſtands between the cities of Séez, Montagne, Verneuil, and Laigle, in a large vale ſurrounded with hills and foreſts, which ſeem deſigned to hide it from the reſt of the world. It was founded in the year 1140 by a count of Perche. But the monks having, in proceſs of time, fallen into a great remiſneſs of manners and diſcipline, a very ſtrict reformation was introduced in this abbey in the year 1662, by Armand John Bouthilier de Rancé, the commandatory abbot. Some particulars of their manner of living, and of the auſterities which they practiſed, are thus poetically deſcribed.

"Here flocks the train to whom indulgent heav'n
The precious gift of penitence has given;
Who, cloyſter'd here, feel heav'ns inſpiring breath,
Nor fear to triumph o'er eternal death.
For this we ſtrive; long e'er morn appears
We riſe, we pray, we bathe the ground with tears;
Then haſte to labour, drain the putrid fen,
Or break th' ungrateful grounds of other men.
The unheeded roots we gather yield us bread,
The ſpring our beverage, and the earth our bed.
When midnight hour to new devotion calls,
We riſe with awe, and bleſs thoſe rev'rend walls,
Where ſaints and martyrs kiſs'd the chaſt'ning rod,
Deſpis'd the world, and reſted on their God.
Let pride unlock ambition's ſanguine ſprings,
And waſted nations curſe deſpotic kings;
No ſtrong alarms this lone retreat infeſts;
We live in peace, and peaceful ſink to reſt.
Here pure religion tolls our only bell;
Here true devotion warms each humble cell;
Here contemplation clears the clouded eye,
Expands the ſoul, and lifts it to the ſky.
Mean while, dear friend, my ſimple ſhroud I ſpread,
And now prepare my laſt and welcome bed.
Here, here, my friend, my plain rough coffin ſtands,
Prepar'd and wrought by theſe laborious hands.
It calms my ſpirits, drives vain thoughts away,
And reconciles me to my kindred clay."

The Government of NORMANDY extends from eaſt to weſt 60 leagues, and from north to ſouth about 30. It is bounded on the ſouth by Maine, Perche, and Beauce; on the north by the Britiſh Channel; on the weſt by Brittany; and on the eaſt by the Iſle of France and Picardy. It is fruitful in corn, flax, hemp, fruit, and paſturage; and abounds in wood, coals, cattle, madder, woad, mineral waters, iron, copper, &c. The rivers are the Seine, Eure, Andelle, Rille, Dive, Lezon, Carentone, Aure, Antes, Arne, Drome, &c. It is divided into Upper and Lower, in which the principal places are as follow:

Rouen, the capital of the province, ſtands on the north bank of the Seine, in a valley, almoſt ſurrounded with hills, 22 leagues from Paris to the north-weſt. Rouen is the ſee of an archbiſhop. The great hall of the palace, the old caſtle, and the principal church are noble buildings. In one of the towers of the latter is a bell of an enormous ſize, called George Amboiſe. The bridge of boats over the Seine is a great curioſity, being paved like a ſtreet, and riſing and falling with the tide. Beſides other tombs of great perſons in the cathedral, is that of John duke of Bedford, who was regent of France under our king Henry VI. The trade of this city is very conſiderable, the tide of flood riſing

ſo high, that veſſels of above 200 tons can come up to it, though it is twelve leagues from the mouth of the river. In the place Aux Veaux is a ſtatue of the Maid of Orleans, kneeling before Charles VII. She was burnt to death here by the Engliſh in 1431. William I. ſurnamed the Conqueror, died here. In one of the ſuburbs are ſeveral mineral ſprings. Here are manufactures of cloth, and oil of vitriol. In the new diviſion of France, Rouen is the capital of the department of Lower Seine.

Caudebec is a ſmall but populous town on the Seine, ſeven leagues below Rouen. Here is a pretty good trade by ſea, and a manufactory of hats.

At St. Valeri, a ſea-port town on the channel, the inhabitants manufacture ſome woollen and linen ſtuffs, trade along the coaſt, and ſend ſhips to the herring and cod fiſheries.

Aumale has a manufactory of ſerges and coarſe woollen ſtuffs.

Dieppe is a noted ſea-port town on the ſhore of the Britiſh Sea, at the diſtance of 10 leagues from Rouen to the north, and 14 from Havre-de-Grace to the north-eaſt. It is ſituated on an even ground between two mountains or rocks, at the mouth of the river Betune, called, at Dieppe, the river of Argues, becauſe it waters the ruins of that city. This river, falling into the ſea, makes the harbour. It is fortified with bulwarks to the ſea, with a fortreſs at the ſuburb called Pollet, and a caſtle, which, together with the craggy mountains that lie on the ſouth, render it a place of ſtrength; and as ſuch it was choſen by king Henry IV. for his head-quarters, when he was oppoſed by the league at his acceſſion to the crown. The town is well built, and inhabited by ſea-faring men; mechanics, that make curious works in ivory; and merchants who drive a conſiderable trade to foreign parts. The haven is narrow, but very long, and can receive ſhips of great burthen; but, by reaſon of its narrowneſs, of difficult acceſs. This town has been often taken and retaken in the wars between the Engliſh and the French. In the year 1694 it was almoſt totally deſtroyed by bombs that were ſhot into it from the Engliſh fleet, commanded by the lord Berkeley; but they have repaired it ſince. The chief trade here conſiſts in herrings, whitings, mackerel, and oyſters, which they ſell in the neighbouring provinces, together with ivory works, and laces made here. There is alſo a manufactory where they make tobacco-rolls. The packet boats from Brighthelmſton ſail to this port.

Forges, near Andelſe, is famous for its mineral waters.

Evreux is an ancient city and has a conſiderable trade in linen, woollen, ſerge, and corn. It is the ſee of a biſhop. Here is the ſuperb caſtle of Navarre. In the new diviſion of France, Evreux is the chief town in the department of Eure.

Elbeuf, a little town, ſituated on the Seine, is noted for a manufactory of fine cloth and carpets.

At Liſieux, a town on the conflux of the Orbec and Gaſſey, are ſeveral manufactories of linen and woollen ſtuffs. Before the revolution it was the ſee of a biſhop, who was ſtiled count of Liſieux.

Honfleur is a populous town at the mouth of the Seine. They make here a great quantity of lace; and ſend ſhips to Newfoundland, and the French colonies in America. The harbour is well defended, and will admit ſhips of three or four hundred tons.

Caen is ſituated at the conflux of the Orne and Odon. Here are a caſtle, an univerſity, an academy of ſciences, and many churches. In the new diviſion of France, Caen is the chief town in the department of Calvados. It is a place of good trade. William the Conqueror was interred in the abbey of St. Stephen in this city, which he had founded.

Bayeux, an ancient city, ſituated on the river Aure, is the ſee of a biſhop, and contains ſeveral churches. It is a neat town of good trade, and has a caſtle.

Coutances, two leagues from the ſea, is the capital of a territory called Le Coutantin, and the ſee of a biſhop. Here is a college, ſome Roman remains, aqueducts, &c. The houſes here bear all the marks of antiquity in their ſtructure and taſte, which is rude to a great degree. On the ſummit of the hill, in the centre of the town, ſtands the cathedral. There is a groteſque appearance ſpread over the whole; and the fantaſtic ornaments of Gothic building are mingled with a wondrous delicacy and elegance in many of its parts. From Cherburg to Volognes is mountainous and heathy; but in general the country is inferior to no part of the north of Europe. Fine acclivities, clothed with wood, and rich vallies, covered with harveſts, form a moſt pleaſing ſcene. In the new diviſion of France, Coutances is the chief town in the department of La Manche.

Cherburg, 14 leagues north of Coutances, has a ſmall commodious harbour, and, by the flowing of the waves, is every tide almoſt ſurrounded by the ſea. This town was taken by the Engliſh in 1758, and the fortifications demoliſhed; and one of the articles at the concluſion of the war ſtipulated that the fortifications ſhould not be carried on. Lewis XVI. however, during the American war, again carried on the fortifications, and was at an immenſe expence in erecting piers, and conſtructing a noble baſon for receiving ſhips of war. Near here is a famous glaſs manufactory.

Mortain is a little town on the river Lances. Stephen, king of England, was firſt earl of Mortain, and afterwards of Boulogne, by marriage.

At Alençon a town on the Sarte, are manufactories of vellums and linen-cloths, with a fair, and a bridge over the Sarte.

Falaiſe is a ſmall town on the Ante, in which, and adjacent villages, are manufactories of linen, laces, and woollen ſtuffs.

In Argentan, a town on the Oron, are ſeveral churches, and manufactories of fine linen and ſtuffs.

Carentan, ſix leagues north-eaſt of Coutances, and three from the ſea, is ſituated on a rivulet, by which ſmall veſſels can come up at high water. The town is ſmall, but the ruins of the caſtle are beautiful. It was celebrated in the civil wars under Charles IX. and in thoſe of the league, which followed in the reigns of Henry III. and IV. The architecture of the great church is elegant, it having been erected in the 15th century, when the Gothic ſtructures had almoſt attained to their higheſt point of beauty and perfection. There is nothing in the inſide which merits attention, except an altar, and a painting dedicated to St. Cecilia. The ſaint appears to be playing on a ſort of harpſicord, her fingers ſinking negligently into the keys. A blue mantle, looſely buckled over her ſhoulder, expoſes part of her neck to view, and her fair hair floats down her back. The pupils of her eyes are thrown up to heaven in a fine phrenzy of muſical enthuſiaſm.

Mont St. Michael is a little town, with a caſtle, built on a rock in the midſt of a ſandy ſhore, which, at high-water, is overflowed. Here is an abbey which was formerly much reſorted to by pilgrims. As this place is of a ſingular nature, we ſhall give the following ample and entertaining deſcription of it, in the words of an ingenious traveller, who wrote prior to the French revolution.

"This extraordinary rock (for it is no more) riſes in the middle of the bay of Avranches. Nature has completely fortified one ſide by its craggy and almoſt perpendicular deſcent, which renders it impracticable for courage or addreſs, however conſummate, to ſcale or mount it. The other parts are ſurrounded by walls; fenced with ſemilunar towers in the Gothic manner; but ſufficiently ſtrong, ſuperadded to the advantages of its ſituation, to deſpiſe all attacks. At the foot of the mountain begins a ſtreet or town, which winds round its baſe to a conſiderable height. Above are chambers where priſoners of ſtate are kept, and other buildings intended for reſidence; and on the ſummit is erected the abbey itſelf, occupying a prodigious ſpace

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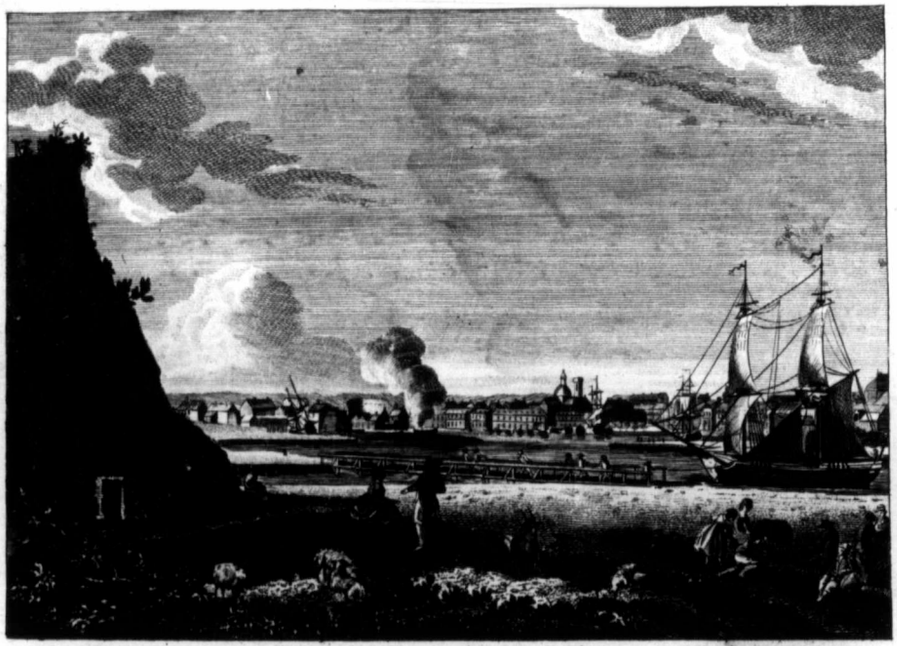
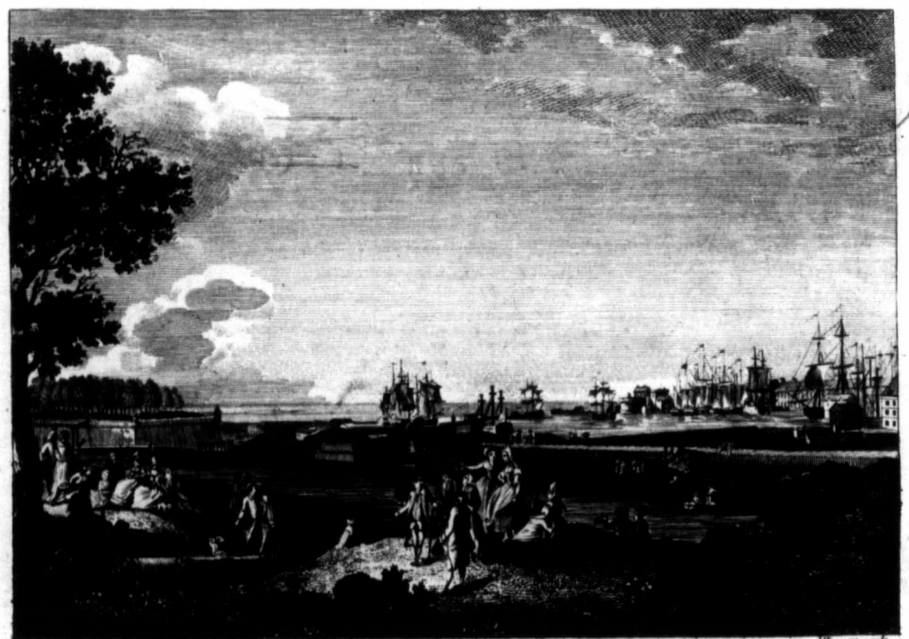


The Port of DIEPPE, *in the Province of Normandy in the Kingdom of France.*



Warren sculp.

The Port of HAVRE-DE-GRACE *in the Province of Normandy in the Kingdom of France.*

Published as the Act directs by C. Cooke N.° 5 Paternoster Row.

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of ground, and of a ſtrength and ſolidity equal to its enormous ſize; ſince it has ſtood all ſtorms, in this elevated and expoſed ſituation, during many centuries. I ſpent the whole afternoon in the different parts of this edifice; and as the Swiſs, who conducted me through them, found he could not gratify my curioſity too minutely, he left no apartment or chamber unſeen.

"The Sale de Chevalerie, or Knights Hall, reminded me of that at Marienbourg, in Poliſh Pruſſia. It is equally ſpacious, but more barbarous and rude, becauſe ſome hundred years prior in its erection. Here the knights of St. Michael uſed to meet in ſolemn convocation on important occaſions. They were the defenders and guardians of the mountain and abbey, as thoſe of the temple, and of St. John of Jeruſalem, were to the holy ſepulchre. At one end is a painting of the archangel, the patron of their order: and in this hall Lewis XI. firſt inſtituted, and inveſted with the inſignia of knighthood, the chevaliers of the croſs of St. Michael.

"We paſſed on through ſeveral leſſer rooms into a long paſſage, on one ſide of which the Swiſs opened a door, and through a narrow entrance, perfectly dark, he led me, by a ſecond door, into an apartment, or dungeon, (for it rather merited the latter than the former appellation,) in the middle of which ſtood a cage. It was compoſed of prodigious wooden bars; and the wicket, which admitted into it, was ten or twelve inches thick. I went into the inſide. The ſpace it compriſed was about twelve or fourteen feet ſquare; and it might be nearly twenty in height. This was the abode of many eminent victims in former ages, whoſe names and miſeries are now obliterated and forgotten.

"There was (ſaid my conductor) towards the latter end of the laſt century, a certain news-writer in Holland, who had preſumed to print ſome very ſevere ſarcaſtic reflections on Madame de Maintenon, and Lewis XIV. Some months after he was induced, by a perſon ſent expreſsly for that purpoſe, to make a tour into French Flanders. The inſtant he had quitted the Dutch territories he was put under arreſt, and immediately, by his majeſty's expreſs command, conducted to this place. They ſhut him up in this cage. Here he lived upwards of 23 years; and here he, at length, expired. During the long nights of winter (continued the man) no candle or fire was allowed him. He was not permitted to have any book. He ſaw no human face except the jailor, who came once every day to preſent him, through a hole in the wicket, his little portion of bread and wine. No inſtrument was given him with which he could deſtroy himſelf; but he found means at length to draw out a nail from the wood, with which he cut or engraved, on the bars of his cage, certain fleurs-de-lis, and armorial bearings, which formed his only employment and recreation. Theſe I ſaw, and they are, indeed, very curiouſly performed with ſo rude a tool.

"It is now fifteen years (ſaid the Swiſs) ſince a gentleman terminated his days in that cage. It was before I came to reſide here. But there is one inſtance within my own memory. Monſieur de F——, a perſon of rank, was conducted here by command of the king. He remained three years ſhut up in it. I fed him myſelf every day; but he was allowed books and candle to alleviate his miſery; and at length the abbot, touched with his deplorable calamities, requeſted and obtained the royal pardon. He was ſet free accordingly.

"The ſubterranean chambers (added he) in this mountain are ſo numerous, that we know them not ourſelves. There are certain dungeons, called Oubliettes, into which they were accuſtomed anciently to let down malefactors guilty of very heinous crimes. They provided them with a loaf of bread and a bottle of wine, and then they were totally forgotten, and left to periſh by hunger in the dark vaults of the rock. This puniſhment has not, however, been inflicted by any king in the laſt or preſent century.

"We continued our progreſs through the abbey. He led me into a chamber, in one corner of which was a kind of window. Between this and the wall of the building was a very deep ſpace, or hollow, of near an hundred feet perpendicular; and at bottom was another window opening to the ſea. It is called the Hole of Montgomeri. The hiſtory of it is this. In the year 1559 Henry II. king of France, was unfortunately killed at a tournament by the count de Montgomeri. It was not intended on that nobleman's part; and he was forced, contrary to his inclination, to puſh the lance againſt his ſovereign, by his expreſs command. He was a Hugonot; and having eſcaped the maſſacre of Paris and Coligno, made head againſt the royal forces in Normandy, ſupported by our Elizabeth with arms and money. Being driven from his fortreſſes in thoſe parts, he retired to a rock, called the Tombelaine. This is another ſimilar to the "Mont St. Michael," only three quarters of a league diſtant from it, and of nearly equal dimenſions. At that time there was a caſtle on it, afterwards demoliſhed, and of which ſcarce any veſtiges now remain. From this faſtneſs, only acceſſible at low tides, he continually made excurſions and annoyed the enemy, who never dared to attack him. He coined money, laid all the adjacent country under contribution, and rendered himſelf univerſally dreaded. Deſirous, however, to ſurprize the "Mont St. Michael," he found means to engage one of the monks reſident in the abbey, who promiſed to give him the ſignal for his enterprize, by diſplaying a handkerchief. The treacherous monk having made the ſignal, betrayed him, and armed all his aſſociates, who waited Montgomeri's arrival. The chieftan came, attended by fifty choſen ſoldiers, deſperate, and capable of any attempt. They croſſed the ſand, and having placed their ſcaling ladders, mounted one by one: as they came to the top, they were diſpatched each in turn, without noiſe. Montgomeri, who followed laſt, at length diſcovered the perfidy, and eſcaped with only two of his men, with whom he regained the "Tombelaine." They preſerve, with great care, the ladders and grappling irons uſed on this occaſion. The count himſelf was at laſt beſieged, and taken priſoner, by the Mareſchal de Matignon, in 1574, at Domfront, in Normandy; and Catherine of Medicis, who deteſted him for his having been, though innocently, the cauſe of her huſband's death, ordered him to be immediately executed.

"The church itſelf detained me a long time, and is matter of high curioſity. It reſts on nine pillars of moſt enormous dimenſions, which ſtand upon the ſolid rock. I did not meaſure them; but as far as the gloomineſs of the place would admit, I apprehend that each of them muſt be five-and-twenty feet in circumference. Beſides theſe there are two others, of much inferior ſize, which ſupport the center of the church, over which is the tower. If the prodigious incumbent weight be conſidered, and the nature of its ſituation, nothing leſs maſſy could ſuſtain the edifice. They ſeem as if deſigned to outlive the ravages of time, and the convulſions of nature. The building was begun in 966, when Richard, the ſecond duke of Normandy, began to erect the abbey. It was compleated about the year 1070, under William the Conqueror; though many other additions were made by ſucceeding abbots.

"The treaſury is crowded with relics innumerable, among which ſome few have a real and intrinſic value. There is a fine head of Charles VI. of France, cut in cryſtal, which drew my attention. They have got (I know not by what means) an arm of Edward the Confeſſor; and they ſhewed me another of "St. Richard, king of England." Who this ſaint and prince was, I confeſs, is beyond my comprehenſion. I am ſure they could not term Richard I. ſo, unleſs his cruelty againſt Saladine wiped out all his ſins, and canonized him. Richard II. has no better pretenſions to ſanctity. I do not mention him who fell at Boſworth: ſo that who this royal ſaint was I muſt leave you to

divine. As to the monks, they know nothing about it; but they were poſitive he was a king of England. An enormous golden cockle-ſhell, weighing many pounds, given to Richard, the ſecond duke of Normandy, when he founded the abbey, is worthy remark.

The refectory, cloiſters, and cells of the monks, have been magnificent and ſpacious; but a vaſt ſum of money is wanted to put the whole in repair, and reinſtate what the lapſe of ages has defaced and deformed."

The Government of HAVRE-DE-GRACE, conſtitutes part of Upper Normandy.

Havre-de-Grace, a ſtrong ſea-port town at the mouth of the Seine, 12 leagues weſt of Rouen, is well built, ſtrongly fortified, has an excellent harbour, and a good trade.

Harfleur, on the Lizard, eight leagues from Havre-de-Grace, has ſome concern in the cod and herring fiſheries, by means of a ſmall harbour; is defended by a caſtle, and contains manufactories of tanned leather, hats, laces, ſerges, linens, woollen cloths, &c.

The Government of ORLEANOIS conſiſts of ſeveral diſtricts, and is bounded on the north by Normandy, on the eaſt by Champagne and Burgundy, on the ſouth by Nivernois and Berry, and on the weſt by Touraine and Maine; including Orleanois Proper, Chartrain, or Beauce Proper, Vendemois, Blaiſois, Solagne, Demois, Perche Gouet, and Gationis Orleanois.

Orleanois Proper abounds in cattle, game, and fiſh; yields grain, wine, fruit, and wood; and contains the following places:

Orleans, the capital, not only of Orleanois Proper, but of the whole government, ſtands on the northern bank of the Loire, 20 leagues ſouth of Paris. Over the river is a fine ſtone bridge, leading into a ſuburb on the ſouth ſide of the river. It is one of the largeſt cities in the republic, and was formerly the capital of France. It contains a univerſity, a public library, a ſtately Gothic cathedral, and a great number of other churches, a public walk, planted with ſeveral rows of trees, ſome ſugar-houſes, a manufactory of ſtockings and ſheep-ſkins, and a ſeminary. It carries on a great trade in brandy, wine, ſpices, and ſeveral manufactures, which, with many other commodities, are conveyed from hence to Paris, and other places, by means of the Loire, and the canal, which takes its name from the city.

The duties paid by veſſels going up and down the canal amounts, in ſome years, to 150,000 livres. It is a biſhop's ſee. On the 8th of May, 1429, Orleans, then cloſely beſieged by the Engliſh, was relieved by Joan of Arc, commonly called the Maid of Orleans; and the anniverſary of that deliverance is ſtill kept here. To perpetuate the memory of it a monument of braſs was erected on the bridge. In the Hotel de Ville is a portrait of the ſame extraordinary woman. It was done in the year 1581, and is the oldeſt extant. The painter ſeems to have drawn a flattering reſemblance, and to have decorated her with imaginary charms. Her face, though long, is of exceeding beauty, heightened by an expreſſion of intelligence and grandeur rarely united. Her hair falls looſely down her back. She wears a ſort of bonnet enriched with pearls, and ſhaded with white plumes, tied under her chin with a fillet. About her neck is a little band; and lower down on her boſom a necklace, compoſed of ſmall links. Her habit fits cloſe to the body, and is cut or ſlaſhed at the arms or elbows. Round her waiſt is an embroidered girdle; and in her right hand ſhe wields the ſword with which ſhe expelled the enemies of her country. In the new diviſion of France, Orleans is the chief town in the department of Loiret.

To the north of this city is a foreſt, the largeſt in all France, which, at the time of the revolution, belonged to the family of Orleans, having been given by Lewis XIV. to his brother Philip. Gangs of robbers infeſted the foreſt in the former periods, who, when taken, were broke upon the wheel. The new code of judicial proceedings, eſtabliſhed by the Convention, have ſet aſide theſe executions. The following account of a remarkable one at Orleans (as related by an ingenious traveller) may ſerve as a ſpecimen of thoſe dreadful ſpectacles in general.

"When we came to Orleans, we learnt that a criminal was to be broke alive at eleven o'clock that evening; and, in our rambles through the ſtreets, ſaw the ſcaffold, wheel, and preparations for the execution. The papers of the condemnation were ſold as laſt dying ſpeeches are about the ſtreets of London. By one of theſe I learnt, that the poor wretch was convicted of belonging to a troop of thieves that infeſted the foreſt of Orleans; and of conveying them proviſions, arms, and neceſſaries. It was in this deputation of providing for his companions that he was ſurprized and taken. He had entered the city diſguiſed as a peaſant, and, after he had executed his commiſſion, might have rejoined them in ſafety, had he not taken it into his head to brave the police by committing a daring robbery, and increaſing the ſtores he meant to convey to them. But his unlucky ſtar was in the zenith; for, after having robbed a houſe, and bound every perſon in it, he was ſeized as he was decamping with his booty. His ſentence was to have the queſtion ordinary and extraordinary, in order to oblige him to diſcover the haunts of his comrades; and afterwards to have, as the ſentence ran, 'His arms, legs, thighs, and reins broke alive upon a ſcaffold, to be erected for that purpoſe, at the place of execution belonging to this city, and to remain on a wheel, with his face turned towards the heavens, till he expires.'

"When the time drew near for his tremendous ſentence to be executed, I walked out with a gentleman, to ſee the proceſſion of the criminal, intending to return as ſoon as the borreau (or executioner) was about to begin his office. My friend's imagination had already preſented a picture to him ſufficiently horrid; and as he had no inclination to heighten it with the reality, he ſtaid at the aubérge. The *place du Martroi* is a large ſquare, capable of holding a vaſt concourſe of people. However, I found it filled, though not thronged, with males and females, not only of the vulgar claſs, but ſome in embroidery and ſilks. They were walking in parties, as though they only came to enjoy the benefit of air and exerciſe. I was quite ſurprized to ſee a multitude of young girls, whoſe delicate nerves, I ſhould have imagined, would have been agitated at even the recital of human miſery, flocking to ſee the expoſition of it, as if they expected *a feu d'artifice*.

"The ſcaffold was about 20 feet ſquare, and raiſed 5 feet above the ground. The ſtake, that ſupported one corner of it, appeared three feet above the boards, and had a common wheel of four feet diameter, fixed by the nave on it, as on its axis. We were examining this, when the borreau brought ſome ropes, and a triangular bar of iron, the inſtrument of terror. As ſoon as his torch was ſeen on the ſcaffold, the houſes around were crowded at the windows, with ſpectators of all ranks and denominations. Soon after came the guards on horſeback, with the criminal in a cart. He was lifted out by the borreau, having nothing on but his ſhirt, and was attended by two monks, with torches flaming in their hands. I then attempted to retire, but crowds were preſſing on me behind, and I found it impoſſible, without danger of being trodden to death. The poor wretch who was to ſuffer I judged to be about 28 or 30 years of age. He did not wring his hands, or ſhew any marks of terror and contrition in tears or cries; but looked round on the ſpectators, in a manner that has often, I am perſuaded, been falſely attributed to unconcern, and a hardened heart. But if I might judge by his countenance, though he looked round, he looked at nothing: his thoughts were harrowed up; and that vacant horror which appeared in his eyes, ſeemed to ſhew that the faculties of the ſoul ſtood aloof

aloof from the body, even before the moment of their final ſeparation.

"When the executioner had brought him to the middle of the ſcaffold, he proceeded to ſtrip his ſhirt from his arms down to his waiſt, and then to bind him to a croiſ, as it appeared to me. It was plain what effect the torture of the queſtion extraordinary had, as every joint was covered with blood, and he was incapable of walking. The queſtion is not always the ſame; but by this I imagine that he had been ſtretched on a bed, till ſome of his veins and ligaments had burſt. The monks now began to talk to him, and to repeat ſome prayers; and ſoon after turning from him began to ſing, I ſuppoſe, a hymn. All this time I found myſelf violently agitated; how, I cannot deſcribe: my ſenſations were ſuch as I never felt before. I accuſed myſelf of cruel curioſity, and whilſt he was binding made another attempt to get at a diſtance, as I was cloſe to the ſcaffold; but my companion told me I could not paſs the horſe, and gave me a phial of liquor to drink which he had taken the precaution to put in his pocket. Immediately as the monks turned their backs, the borreau caught up the bar and finiſhed his dreadful office of breaking the limbs, in leſs than a minute, without a ſingle ſhriek from the poor criminal. The blows were as rapid as he could ſtrike them, one on each leg, and each thigh, two on each arm, and two on the ribs. He then laid the mangled carcaſe on the wheel, which he brought forwards, and placed on the corner ſtake, which I mentioned as placed above the ſcaffold. Here, with his aſſiſtants, he folded each limb, ſo that every fracture appeared; and bound him in the manner in which he was to be expoſed. The monks, after this, began to talk to him again; and what ſurprized me was, that he turned his head, and ſeemed able to attend, and to anſwer. In this ſituation I thought, according to his ſentence, he was to be left to linger till he expired from the anguiſh of his broken limbs; but the borreau had not yet ſhewn the compaſſionate part of his office; for ſoon after he brought a rope over the criminal's breaſt, and ſtraining it, put, in a minute, a period to his life and miſery.

"The morning we left Orleans we ſaw him expoſed on the wheel, at the entrance of the foreſt, with ſeven or eight-and-twenty others, who had undergone the ſame puniſhment. This is an execution of which I never was before, nor ever will be again, a ſpectator."

Beaugency is a town, ſituated on the Loire, over which is a ſtone bridge, about four leagues below Orleans. The council who divorced Lewis XI. from Eleanor heireſs of Guienne, who was afterwards married to Henry II. of England, ſat in this town; in which there is now a manufactory of ſerges, and other woollen ſtuffs.

In the diſtrict called Sologne are

Romorentin, the capital, eight leagues from Blois to the ſouth. Here is a manufactory of ſerges and woollen cloth.

Aubigny, a little town on the Nerres.

Sully, a ſmall town on the Loire.

In Chartrain, or Beauce Proper, which is 14 leagues long, and 11 broad, the only place of note is Chartres, 14 leagues from Paris to the ſouth-weſt, and 13 from Orleans to the north-weſt. It ſtands on the Eure; and contains ſeveral churches, beſides the cathedral, which has a very high and handſome ſteeple. It is a biſhop's ſee. The chief trade of this town is in corn. The grove of druids, mentioned by Julius Cæſar, was on a hill near this town; and there is ſhewn, in the cathedral, a well, into which a great many Chriſtians were thrown by order of the Proconſul Querimus. In the new diviſion of France, Chartrain is the chief town in the department of Eure and Loire.

The other towns of this diſtrict are Bonneval, Nogent le Roi Gallardon, and Maintenon; which laſt gave the title of Marchioneſs to Madame Frances d'Aubigny, miſtreſs of Lewis XIV. and widow of the celebrated French poet Scarron.

Dunois is bounded on the eaſt by Orleanois, on the ſouth by Blaſois, on the weſt by Vendomois, and on the north by the Leſſer Perche. It is about 10 leagues in length, and ſeven or eight in breadth.

This county is watered by four rivers, the Loire, the Convoy, the Egre, and the Hurre.

Chateau-Dun is the capital of the county of Dunois, between Orleans, Chartres, Blois, and Vendome; nine leagues diſtant from the three firſt, and ſeven from the laſt. It is an ancient city, in which there is a caſtle built by the counts of Dunois, dukes of Longueville. In the caſtle is a chapel, in which are the tombs of the princes of the houſe of Longueville. There are, in the town, ſeveral churches; beſides four in the ſuburbs, which are larger than the city. This diſtrict produces wine, corn, and fruit. They alſo make cyder here; and in ſome parts of this diſtrict are manufactories of woollen ſtuffs, which they ſell at Tours, Orleans, and Paris.

Marchenoir is a ſmall city between the Loir and the Loire. Near this city is a church, dedicated to St. Leonard.

Vendomois, contains no place worth mentioning but Vendome, on the Loire, 12 leagues weſt of Orleans, which has an abbey, a college, an hoſpital, and a ſalt granary.

In Perche Gouet, are the ſmall villages of Brou, La Baſoche, Montmirail, Auton, and Hailuye, which gave name to as many baronies, before the revolution.

Blaſois is divided into Upper and Lower, and is bounded on the ſouth by Berry, on the north by Beauce, on the eaſt by Orleanois, properly ſo called, and on the weſt by Touraine. The only town of note is

Blois, the capital, whence the country derives its name. A fine, ancient, and commercial city. It ſtands on the Loire, over which it has a ſtone bridge. Blois is 12 leagues from Orleans to the ſouth-weſt. Here are ſeveral churches, and a celebrated caſtle. It is the ſee of a biſhop. The inhabitants are ſaid to ſpeak the French language in great purity. In the caſtle are ſhewn the chambers where the duke of Guiſe, and his brother, the cardinal, were murdered, in 1588. The counts of Blois were anciently the moſt powerful lords in France. Four leagues from the town, to the north-eaſt, is the once royal palace of Chambord, on the little river Caſſon, in the middle of a ſpacious park, well ſtocked with deer. Its palace is reckoned the fineſt piece of Gothic architecture in France, and was built by Francis I. Here Staniſlaus, the dethroned king of Poland, reſided ſome years; and here marſhal Saxe, on whom the king had conferred the palace, died in 1750; as did his heir the count de Frieſe, in 1755. In the new diviſion of France, Blois is the chief town in the department of Loir and Cher.

There are ſeveral other palaces in this diſtrict, and alſo ſeveral ſmall towns. Montargis, before the revolution was a dukedom, belonging to the duke of Orleans; Chatillong; Chateau Regnard, on the Ouaine, containing a manufactory of coarſe woollen cloth; St. Fargeau; and Coſne, on the Loire, which has ſome iron works in the neighbourhood.

The Government of NIVERNOIS, is bounded on the ſouth by Bourbonnois, on the north by Gatinois and Aurenois, on the weſt by Berry, and on the eaſt by Burgundy, being about 20 leagues in extent both ways, as it is nearly of a circular form; and yielding corn, wine, fruit, wood, pit-coal, iron-ore, and mineral ſprings. The moſt barren and mountainous part of it is the diſtrict of Morvant. It is watered by ſeveral rivers, of which three are navigable, viz. the Loire, the Allier, and the Yonne.

Nevers is the capital of the province, and takes its name from the rivulet Nievre, in Latin Niveris, which, with the Allier, falls near the town, into the Loire. Here are ſeveral churches, with manufactories of glaſs, white-iron, and earthen-ware; and a ſtately ſtone bridge over the Loire. It is the ſee of a biſhop.

About

About two leagues from hence, at the village of Pouges, in the road to Paris, is a noted mineral ſpring. In the new diviſion of France, Nevers is the chief town in the department of Nievre.

On the other ſide of the Yonne is Pantenor, a borough or ſuburb of Clamecy, where, before the revolution, was the ſee of a biſhop, ſtiled biſhop of Bethlehem; becauſe Runier, biſhop of Bethlehem, in Paleſtine, being obliged to quit that country in 1180, followed Guy, count of Nevers, into France, and had a ſmall biſhopric aſſigned him here.

La Charité took its name from the great liberality exerciſed here formerly towards poor people and pilgrims by the monks of Cluny, who had here a rich priory. It is ſituated on the declivity of an hill, which by an eaſy deſcent, advances to the river Loire, over which there is here a fine ſtone bridge. It has a large market-place, and ſeveral churches.

The Government of BOURBONNOIS is bounded on the ſouth by Auvergne, on the north by Berry and Nivernois, on the eaſt by Burgundy and Forez, and on the weſt by Upper Marche. It is 30 leagues long, 20 broad, fruitful in corn, wine and paſturage; and is watered by the Loire, Allier, and Cher. From its ancient dukes, Louis XVI. the laſt king of France, was deſcended.

Moulins, the capital, on the Allier, received its name from the numerous mills in its vicinity. It contains ſeveral churches, is the ſee of a biſhop, and has manufactories of hardware, iron, ſteel, &c. and is, upon the whole, a handſome populous town. In one of the churches is the magnificent tomb of duke Henry II. of Montmorenci, who fell a ſacrifice to the reſentment of cardinal Richlieu; and near the town there is an admirable mineral ſpring. In the new diviſion of France, Moulins is the capital of the department of Allier.

Bourbon le Archambaud, five leagues weſt of Moulins, is remarkable for its mineral waters, hot and cold, and for ſtones reſembling diamonds, which will cut glaſs, which are found in the rocks near the town.

Mont Luçan, near the Cher, with a ſtone bridge over that river, has ſeveral churches, and an hoſpital; and a neighbouring market town, named Neris, has ſome excellent hot baths.

The Government of LIONNOIS contains the provinces of Lionnois, Forez, and Beaujolois; and is bounded to the north by Maconnois and Burgundy; to the ſouth by Vivarais and Velais; to the eaſt the Soane and the Rhone part it from Breſſe and Dauphiné; and to the weſt it terminates on Auvergne. It produces corn, wine, and fruits, particularly excellent cheſnuts, with pit-coal and mineral ſprings; and about four leagues from Lyons is a mine of copper and vitriol. The principal rivers of the province are the Rhone, the Soane, and the Loire.

Lionnois, properly ſo called, is twelve leagues long, and ſeven broad. Anciently it was ſubject either to counts, or to the archbiſhop and chapter of Lyons; but in the year 1563, the juriſdiction devolved to the crown. The only place in it worth deſcribing is

Lyons, from which it takes its name, and which is one of the fineſt and moſt conſiderable cities in Europe. It was founded about 42 years before Chriſt, ſoon after the aſſaſſination of Julius Cæſar. Here are four gates leading to the four great roads traced by Agrippa. It ſtands at the conflux of the Rhone and Soane, and had the Latin name of Lugdunum, from a place of the Gauls that ſtood upon a hill hereabouts, and was called Lugdun, i. e. the Hill of Ravens. There are ſtill ſome remains of the ſtately buildings with which the Romans adorned this city, now the ſecond of France, having two fine ſquares: in one of which was an equeſtrian ſtatue of brass of Lewis XIV. Here are a town-houſe, a noble ſtone bridge over the Rhone, with two of wood and one of ſtone, over the Soane, a great number of churches, beſides the cathedral, four ſuburbs, ſix gates, an exchange, an obſervatory, a public library, three hoſpitals, an arſenal well furniſhed with military ſtores, and having three forts. It is noted for manufactories of gold and ſilver ſtuffs, gold and ſilver laces, and ſilks of all ſorts. The archbiſhop of Lyons, before the revolution, had ſeveral other archbiſhops and biſhops immediately ſubordinate to him. He ſtiled himſelf count of Lyons. By the conſtitution formed in 1793, Lyons is an archbiſhopric, and Clermont, St. Flour, Le Puy, Viviers, Grenoble, Belley, and Autun are ſuffragants. The environs of this city are very pleaſant; and it is advantageouſly ſituated for trade for an inland town, but its ſtreets are narrow. In the town-houſe is an ancient plate of braſs, on which is engraved the oration which the emperor Claudius, when he was cenſor, delivered before the Roman ſenate in behalf of the citizens of Lyons. In the new diviſion of France, Lyons is the chief town in the department of Rhone and Loire.

Forez is divided into Upper and Lower, and had formerly counts of its own; but in the year 1532, Francis I. annexed it to the crown. It is a large fruitful valley, watered by the Loire, and ſeveral other ſmaller rivers, and took its name from the town anciently called Forum Seguſianorum, and now Feurs, or Fors, a ſmall place which ſtands on the Loire, and has a ſulphurous ſpring near it. The other towns of this county are

St. Etience de Furans, a populous town on the river Furans, where is a conſiderable trade, and a manufactory of fire-arms, and other works of iron and ſteel.

Roanne, on the Loire. From this place the merchants of Lyons convey their goods to ſeveral parts of France.

Beaujolois is a diſtrict near the Soane, ten leagues in length, and eight in breadth, and is fertile. Its capital, Ville Franche, is ſituated on the Moran, and contains a granary of ſalt, and an academy of polite literature.

The Government of AUVERGNE, is bounded on the ſouth by the Cevennes, on the north by Bourbonnois, on the eaſt by Forez, and on the weſt by Limoſin, Quercy, and La Marche. It is 40 leagues long, 30 broad, and divided into Upper and Lower. The rivers are the Allier, the Dargogne, and the Alagnon; the manufactures ſilks, ſtuffs, cloths, laces, iron-works, paper; and the produce corn, wine, cattle, cheeſe, coals, &c. In Upper Auvergne are

St. Flour, the capital, which is ſituated at the foot of Mount Cantal, one of the higheſt in Auvergne. It took its name from that of a biſhop, who having come hither from Languedoc to preach the goſpel towards the end of the fourth century, died, and was buried here. It is the ſee of a biſhop. Here is a conſiderable traffick in rye and mules, as well as in knives, carpets, and cloths. In the new diviſion of France, St. Flour, is the chief town in the department of Cantal.

Aurillac contains manufactories of tapeſtry and lace, a caſtle, &c.

In Lower Auvergne are

Clermont, the capital of the whole province, ſituated near the mountain called Pui de Domme, 14 leagues from St. Flour to the north, betwixt the rivers Artier and Bedat. It was built by the emperor Auguſtus, and thence was anciently called Auguſtonemetum, or Auguſtonemoſum. Here are ſeveral churches, beſides the cathedral. It is the ſee of a biſhop. In the neighbourhood of the town are ſeveral petrifying ſprings; one of which, in the ſuburb of St. Allire, has formed a ſolid rock, and a kind of bridge, under which the rivulet of Firidaine paſſes. Of this natural curioſity, and of the town itſelf, we have the following accurate and authentic account from an ingenious traveller. "The ſituation of Clermont is agreeable, on a little eminence, to which the acceſs is gradual and eaſy. The place itſelf ſeems to have been built in an age the moſt barbarous

barbarous. The ſtreets are ſo narrow and winding that no carriage can enter them, and the buildings correſpond to the other parts; but, to compenſate for the inconvenience, the ſuburbs are charming, and the houſes modern and elegant. I viſited, this morning, the petrifying ſpring which Charles IX. is ſaid to have ſurveyed with ſo much wonder and pleaſure. It is only a quarter of a mile from the town. In the courſe of ages it has formed a ridge of ſtone, or incruſtation, not leſs than 16 feet in height, above 100 feet long, and, in ſome parts, near 10 in thickneſs. As it impeded, and, at length, totally ſtopped the current of a little rivulet which interſected its courſe, the inhabitants were obliged to dig a paſſage through it. The ſtream is now directed into another channel, and has begun to form a new bridge acroſs the rivulet into which it falls." In the year 1095 pope Urban held a council here, when the firſt cruſade was reſolved on. It was compoſed of 600,000 men; their chief was Godfroi of Bouillon. In the new diviſion of France, Clermont is the chief town in the department of Puy de Dome.

Riom, two leagues from Clermont to the north, is the place where the ancient dukes of Auvergne uſed to keep their court. At preſent here are ſeveral churches with a college; and the neighbouring country is ſo pleaſant, that it is called the garden of Auvergne.

Near Aigue-Perſe, a ſmall town, the capital of the duchy of Montpenſier, is a ſpring, which boils violently, and makes a noiſe like water thrown upon lime; and yet is cold, and without any remarkable taſte.

Thiers, or Thiern, has the greateſt variety of manufactures, and the moſt trade, of any town in Auvergne.

At Brioude, a very ancient town on the Allier, is a very extraordinary bridge, ſuppoſed to be a work of the Romans, being very long and lofty, but of only one arch, which reſts on two high mountains. The town took its name from the bridge; Briva, in the language of the Gauls, ſignifying a Bridge. To diſtinguiſh this from another ſmall town in the neighbourhood, of the ſame name, it is called Veille Brioude, i. e. Old Brioude.

Near the ſmall towns of Vic-le-Comté and Artonne, in Lower Auvergne, are mineral waters; as there are alſo at Mont d'Or, or the Golden Mountain, which is the higheſt in Auvergne. At Vic-le-Comté is a chapel, and a fine palace built by the duke of Albany, who was of the royal family of Scotland, and viceroy of that kingdom during the minority of James V.

The Government of LIMOSIN is bounded on the eaſt by Auvergne, on the weſt by Angoumois and Peingord, on the ſouth by Quercy, and on the north by Poitou, and La Merche. It is 25 leagues long, and near as many broad; the whole being divided into Upper and Lower. The Upper parts are cold and mountainous, the Lower warm and fruitful; the produce being rye, barley, buck-wheat, cheſnuts, oxen, cows, horſes, &c. alſo lead, tin, copper, iron, and ſteel. The rivers are the Vienne, the Vizere, and the Dordogne.

In Upper Limoſin are

Limoges, on the Vienne, 65 leagues ſouth of Paris, the capital of the whole government, and the ſee of a biſhop. It is a large and ancient city. The ſtreets are narrow and the houſes mean, but there are ſeveral fine ſquares and fountains. The people in general are very poor. Here are manufactures of paper, leather, and woollen cloths; four aqueducts, conſtructed by the Romans, and other remains of antiquity. In the new diviſion of France, Limoges is the capital of the department of Upper Vienne.

St. Leonard, on the Vienne, contains a chapter, and manufactories of paper and cloth; and St. Iriez, on the Iſle, hath likewiſe a chapter and ſome conſiderable iron mines in the neighbourhood.

Chalus, a town and caſtle ſituated at the ſpring of the Tardouere, one of the rivers that fall into the Charente, is ſix leagues diſtant from Limoges to the north-weſt. This little city has the title of a county or earldom, and belonged formerly to the viſcounts of Limoges. It happened that a gentleman of Limoſin found upon his eſtate a treaſure, which had been buried there many ages before. It conſiſted of the ſtatues of an emperor and his conſort, ſitting round a table with their children, the whole being of ſolid gold. Richard I. king of England, who was then maſter of Limoſin, pretended that the treaſure belonged to him as ſovereign lord of the country where it was found. The gentleman was willing to give him part of it; but ſeeing that the king claimed the whole, he implored the protection of the viſcount of Limoſin, who gave him leave to take ſanctuary in his caſtle of Chalus. Richard going to beſiege the place, was wounded with an arrow ſhot by a croſs-bow-man, and died of the wound April 6, 1199. There is a famous horſe fair kept here every year on St. George's day.

In Lower Limoſin are

Tulle the capital, at the conflux of the Correze and Solan. It is the ſee of a biſhop, and is ſurrounded by mountains. In the new diviſion of France, Tulle is the chief town in the department of Correze.

Brive had its name from its bridge; and Turelle, four leagues from Tulle, was the capital of a viſcounty, and belonged to the family of the duke of Bouillon.

The Government of LA MARCHE is bounded on the ſouth by Limoſin, on the north by Berry, on the weſt by Poitou, and on the eaſt by Auvergne; being about 22 leagues from eaſt to weſt, and 8 or 10 from north to ſouth. It is watered by the Vienne, the Cher, the Creuſe, and the Gartempe; and is not only fruitful in corn, but produces wine.

Gueret, the capital of the province, is ſituated in the Upper Marche, on the river Gartempe. It is a biſhop's ſee. Here is an hoſpital. Anthony Varillas, the hiſtorian, was born, and founded a convent, here. In the new diviſion of France, Gueret is the chief town in the department of Creuſe.

Aubuſſon, on the river Creuſe, has a manufactory of tapeſtry.

The Government of BERRY is bounded on the ſouth by Bourbonnois and Marche, on the north by Orleanois, and on the weſt by Nivernois; its greateſt length being about 35 leagues, and its breadth about 28. Its name, and that of its capital, Bourges, are derived from the ancient Bituriges, ſurnamed Cubi, to diſtinguiſh them from the other Bituriges, called Vibiſci, who were thoſe of Bourdeaux. The air of this province is temperate, and the ſoil fruitful, producing wheat, rye, wine, good fruit, a great deal of flax and hemp, and fine paſture, both for ſheep and black cattle. Near Vierzon is a mine of ochre, and near Bourges are quarries of ſtone. Here are ſeveral rivers, the chief of which are the Loire, the Creuſe, the Cher, the Large and Leſſer Saudre, the Indre, the Orron, the Aurette, the Moulon, and the Evre. There is alſo a lake, called the lake of Villiers, which is pretty large. This province had formerly counts and viſcounts of its own; but, in the reign of Philip I. it was united to the crown. The principal places in it are

Bourges, anciently Bituriges, and Bituricæ, and alſo Avaricum, the capital of the whole province, ſituated at the conflux of the Evre with the Avron, and other rivulets, 18 miles from Orleans to the ſouth. It is of large extent. The country round is very boggy. Here are a cathedral, ſeveral churches, an elegant chapel, called Holy Chapel, a very ancient univerſity, and a palace, built by John, duke of Berry. A few handſome ſquares, and a ſtately town-houſe, embelliſh the city. A fine palace belongs to the archbiſhop. In the new diviſion of France Bourges is the chief town in the department of Cher.

Iſſoudim, on the Theols, ſix leagues weſt of Bourges, has ſeveral churches, two hoſpitals, and a caſtle. The

town has ſeveral manufactories, and ſome trade in timber.

Dun-le-Roi, on the Auron; and Chateauneuf, are towns of little note; Mehun, on the Evre, has a caſtle built by Charles VII. in which he ſtarved himſelf to death, for fear of being poiſoned; and Virzon, on the Evre and Cher, contains ſeveral convents, with an abbey and a college.

Aubigny, on the Nevre, 11 leagues ſouth of Bourges, is well fortified, and has a caſtle. This town, until the revolution, gave the title of duke and peer of France to the family of Lenox duke of Richmond in England. The title was given by Lewis XIV. to one of king Charles's miſtreſſes who was the mother of the firſt duke of Richmond. The preſent duke, a few years ſince, attended perſonally in the parliament of Paris, and regiſtered his title.

Henrichment, five leagues north of Bourges, contains a caſtle. Sancerre, on the Loire, was the property of the houſe of Bourbon Condé. La Chatree, on the Indre, appertained to the prince of Condé; as did Chateau-Roux, 15 leagues north of Bourges.

At Argenton, a town on the Creuſe, 18 leagues from Bourges, is a college for polite literature, with a church.

The Government of TOURAINE is bounded to the ſouth by Berry and Poitou, to the north by the river Maine, to the weſt by Anjou, and to the eaſt by Orleanois; its greateſt breadth being about 22 leagues, and its length 24. It is watered by ſeveral rivers, the chief of which are the Loire, the Cher, the Creuſe, and the Vienne. The climate is very mild, and the ſoil in general, fertile. In the country of Noyers are mines of iron and copper. This province had formerly counts of its own; but, in 1202, was united with the crown; and, in 1356, was raiſed to a dukedom and peerage.

Tours, the capital of the province, which alſo takes its name from it, is ſituated on the Loire, over which there is a fine bridge. Here are ſeveral churches, an academy, and it is the ſee of a biſhop. It is a large and ancient city, and has a public walk in the center of the town a mile in length. Tours is the birth place of Rapin the celebrated hiſtorian. The cathedral is a fine building, containing a library, in which are ſome ancient manuſcripts. In 737 Charles Martel defeated the Saracens near this place with a very great ſlaughter. Here is a ſilk and cloth manufactory. In the new diviſion of France, Tours is the chief town in the department of Indre and Loire.

At Amboiſe, a town ſituated at the conflux of the Amaſſe and Loire, Charles VIII. was born and died. The name of Hugonot had its riſe in this town, wherein alſo the civil war broke out in 1561. Here are an hoſpital, and two churches.

At Loches, ſituated on the river Indre, ſeven leagues from Amboiſe, is a ſtrong caſtle, in one of the ſubterraneous paſſages of which Lewis Sforza, duke of Milan, was kept priſoner ten years. In one of the two cages alſo, which are kept in this caſtle, cardinal Balve, biſhop of Algiers, was confined by Lewis XII.

Chinon, on the Vienne, has four churches. The celebrated Rabelais was a native of this town; and, A. D. 1189, Henry II. king of England, died in the caſtle here. Ten leagues ſouth of Tours is La Hayne, the birth-place of the great philoſopher Des Cartes.

The Government of ANJOU, which is 26 leagues long, and 24 broad, is bounded by Poitou to the ſouth, by Maine to the north, by Touraine to the eaſt, and by Bretagne to the weſt. It is fruitful, pleaſant, and well watered.

Angers, the capital, ſituated on the Maienne, is a large city, and the ſee of a biſhop. It contains, beſides the cathedral, many churches, and a ſtrong caſtle. Here are a ſeminary, an academy, an univerſity, three hoſpitals, an iron cage called the queen of Sicily's cage, and ſome remains of Roman antiquities. The firſt walls of the city were built by John, king of England, and duke of Anjou. The houſes are all covered with ſlate; on which account Angers is frequently called the Black Town. The caſtle is flanked with 18 large round towers. The inhabitants are employed chiefly in bleaching wax and linen, refining ſugar and making camblets, ſerges, and fine woollen ſtuffs, ſtriped with ſilk and gold. It is proverbially ſaid of Angers, that "It ſtands low, has high ſteeples, rich whores, and poor ſcholars." In the new diviſion of France, Angers is the chief town in the department of Main and Loire.

At Chateau-Gontier, on the river Maienne, are a caſtle and ſeveral churches, with manufactories of linen cloth, and ſerges, and mineral ſprings.

Saumur is a town on the ſouth bank of the river Loire, over which it has a ſtone bridge, ſix leagues from Angers to the ſouth. Here are a caſtle, ſeveral churches, an univerſity, and ſome trade in ſalt-petre, ſugar, ſteel, iron-works, medals, rings, chaplets, and ſtrings of beads. It was one of the cautionary towns given to the Proteſtants; and during the time of its being in their hands, the celebrated John Cameron, a Scotch divine, was for ſome time profeſſor of Divinity in the univerſity. The diſtrict is called Saumurois; and the governor of that, as well as the town and caſtle, was before the revolution independent of the governor of the province. While the town was in the hands of the Proteſtants it was opulent, but has declined ſince its being re-poſſeſſed by the Roman Catholics.

At Doé, three leagues weſt of Saumur, is a fountain in the form of a horſe-ſhoe, which is one of the greateſt curioſities in France.

SECTION III.

Perſons, Diſpoſitions, Cuſtoms, Manners, Learning, Religion, &c. of the French.

THE French, in their perſons, are generally ſlender, well proportioned, and active. Their hair and eyes are, for the moſt part, black, and their complexions brown, which is the ſuppoſed cauſe of the prevailing cuſtom of painting amongſt the females, and even ſome of the other ſex. The females of the better ſort are more celebrated for their ſprightly wit than perſonal beauty. The peaſantry are ordinary in general. A national vanity is the predominant character of the French. It ſupports them under misfortunes, and frequently impels them to actions to which other nations are inſpired by true courage. This natural vanity, from which the country, in many inſtances, derives great utility, and which before the revolution was conſpicuous only in the higher and middling ranks, where it produced excellent officers, now pervades the whole nation. The means which have been purſued by the preſent government there to ſtimulate the people to reſiſt the armies of the allied powers, have roufed the ſoldiers to acts of heroiſm and intrepidity which aſtoniſh Europe. In former wars it was a general obſervation reſpecting the French and Engliſh, that the French officers will lead if their ſoldiers will follow, and the Engliſh ſoldiers will follow if their officers will lead; but with a ſteady perſeverance, the French ſoldiers, in the war of the revolution, advanced to cloſe combat, and took many pieces of the artillery of the allies with the point of the bayonet.

The French are diſtinguiſhed by their politeneſs and good manners, which may be traced, though in different proportions, through every rank, even to the loweſt mechanic; and it has been remarked by intelligent travellers, as very ſingular, that politeneſs, which, in every other country, is confined to people of a certain rank in life, ſhould here pervade every ſituation and profeſſion. Theſe people, from that univerſal politeneſs which characterizes their nation, have been much cenſured for inſincerity: but this charge has often been

been carried too far; and the imputation has been generally owing to their exceſs of civility, which, it muſt be confeſſed, throws a ſuſpicious light upon their candour. It muſt, upon the whole, be admitted, that many of the French, in private life, have amiable qualities; and that a great number of inſtances of generoſity and diſintereſtedneſs may be found amongſt them.

The French affect freedom and wit. Attention to the fair degenerates into groſs foppery in the men, and the ladies are charged with admitting indecent freedoms; but the ſeeming levities of both ſexes are rarely attended with that criminality which, to people not uſed to their manners, they ſeem to indicate; nor are the huſbands ſo indifferent, as ſtrangers are apt to imagine, about the conduct of their wives. The French are very credulous and litigious, but bear adverſity, and reduction of circumſtances, with peculiar ſpirit; though, in proſperity, like their fellow mortals, they are apt to be inſolent, arbitrary, and imperious. An intelligent traveller remarks, that an old French officer is an entertaining and inſtructive companion, and, indeed, the moſt rational ſpecies of all the French gentry.

Under the reign of their kings the French exhibited many ſtriking peculiarities of character not to be found under the republican government. The following is an extract from a writer eminent for his proficiency in polite literature, publiſhed prior to the revolution.

"The natural levity of the French (ſays he) is reinforced by the moſt prepoſterous education, and the example of a giddy people engaged in the moſt frivolous purſuits. A Frenchman is, by ſome prieſt or monk, taught to read his mother tongue, and to ſay his prayers in a language he does not underſtand. He learns to dance and fence by the maſters of thoſe ſciences. He becomes a complete connoiſſeur in dreſſing hair, and in adorning his own perſon, under the hands and inſtructions of his barber and valet de chambre. If he learns to play upon the flute or fiddle, he is altogether irreſiſtible: but he piques himſelf upon being poliſhed above the natives of any other country, by his converſation with the fair ſex. In the courſe of his communication, with which he is indulged from his tender years, he learns, like a parrot, by rote, the whole circle of French compliments, which are a ſet of phraſes ridiculous even to a proverb; and theſe he throws out indiſcriminately to all women without diſtinction, in the exerciſe of that kind of addreſs, which is here diſtinguiſhed by the name of gallantry. It is an exerciſe by the repetition of which he becomes very pert, very familiar, and very impertinent. A Frenchman, in conſequence of his mingling with the females from his infancy, not only becomes acquainted with all their cuſtoms and humours, but grows wonderfully alert in performing a thouſand little offices, which are overlooked by others, whoſe time hath been ſpent in making more valuable acquiſitions. He enters, without ceremony, a lady's dreſſing-room, while ſhe is at her toilette, reaches her whatever ſhe may want, regulates the diſtribution of her patches, and adviſes where to lay on paint. If he viſits her when ſhe is dreſſed, and perceives the leaſt impropriety in her coiffure, he inſiſts upon adjuſting it with his own hands. If he ſees a curl, or even a ſingle hair amiſs, he produces his comb, his ſciſſars, and pomatum, and ſets it to rights, with the dexterity of a profeſſed friſeur. He accompanies her to every place ſhe viſits, either on buſineſs or pleaſure, and, by dedicating his whole time to her, renders himſelf neceſſary to her occaſions. In ſhort, of all the coxcombs upon the face of the earth, a French *petit maitre* is the moſt impertinent; and they are all *petit maitres*, from the marquis, who glitters in lace and embroidery, to the garçon barbiere (barber's boy) covered with meal, who ſtruts with his hair in a long queue, and his hat under his arm. A Frenchman will ſooner part with his religion than his hair. The ſoldiers in France wear a very long queue; and this ridiculous foppery has deſcended to the loweſt claſs of the people. The boy, who cleans ſhoes at the corner of a ſtreet, has a tail of this kind hanging down to his rump; and the beggar, who drives an aſs through the ſtreets of Paris, to pick up a miſerable livelihood, wears his hair *en queue* though, perhaps, he has no ſhirt.

"When a ſtranger firſt arrives at Paris, he finds it neceſſary to ſend for the taylor, peruquier, hatter, ſhoemaker, and every other tradeſman concerned in the equipment of dreſs. He muſt even change his buckles, and the form of his ruffles; and, though at the riſk of his life, ſuit his clothes to the mode of the ſeaſon. For example, though the weather ſhould be ever ſo cold, he muſt wear his *habit d'eté* [ſummer ſuit] or *demi ſaiſon* [mid ſeaſon] without preſuming to put on a warm dreſs before the day which faſhion has fixed for that purpoſe; and neither old age or infirmity will excuſe a man for wearing his hat upon his head, either at home or abroad. Females are, if poſſible, ſtill more ſubject to the caprices of faſhion. All their dreſſes and habits muſt be altered and new trimmed. They muſt have new caps, new laces, new ſhoes, and their hair new cut. They muſt have their taffaties for the ſummer, their flowered ſilks for the ſpring and autumn, and their ſattins and damaſks for winter. The men too muſt provide themſelves with a camblet ſuit, trimmed with ſilver, for ſpring and autumn, with ſilk clothes for ſummer, and cloth laced with gold or velvet for winter; and they muſt wear their bags *a la pigeon*. This variety of dreſs is abſolutely indiſpenſible, for all thoſe who pretend to any rank above the vulgar. All ranks uſe powder; and even the rabble, according to their abilities, imitate their ſuperiors in the ſopperies of faſhion. The common people of the country, however, ſtill retain, without any material deviation, the old faſhioned modes of dreſs, the large hat, and moſt enormous jack-boots, with ſuitable ſpurs; and this contraſt is even perceivable a few miles from Paris. In large cities the clergy, lawyers, phyſicians, and merchants, generally dreſs in black; and it has been obſerved that the French, in their modes of dreſs, are, in ſome meaſure, governed by commercial circumſtances."

The diverſions of the French are much the ſame as thoſe of the Engliſh, but they carry their gallantry to a much greater exceſs. The people of faſhion accompliſh themſelves in the academical exerciſes of dancing, fencing, and riding, in the practice of which they excel all their neighbours in ſkill and gracefulneſs; and indeed, few of the common people are without ſome knowledge of thoſe embelliſhments. They are fond of hunting; and the gentry have now left off their heavy jack-boots, their huge war-ſaddle, and monſtrous curb-bridle, in that exerciſe, and accommodate themſelves to the Engliſh manner."

The late celebrated Dr. Goldſmith has beautifully depicted the French nation in the following lines:

To kinder ſkies, where gentler manners reign,
I turn, and France diſplays her bright domain.
Gay ſprightly land, of mirth and ſocial eaſe,
Pleas'd with thyſelf, whom all the world can pleaſe:
How often have I led thy ſportive choir,
With tuneleſs pipe, beſide the murmuring Loire,
Where ſhading elms along the margin grew,
And freſhen'd from the wave the zephyr flew;
And haply, tho' my harſh touch falt'ring ſtill,
But mock'd all tune, and marr'd the dancer's ſkill,
Yet wou'd the village praiſe my wond'rous power,
And dance, forgetful of the noon-tide hour.
Alike all ages: dames of ancient days
Have led their children thro' the mirthful maze;
And the gay grandſire, ſkill'd in geſtic lore,
Has friſk'd beneath the burden of threeſcore.

So bleſs'd a life thoſe thoughtleſs realms diſplay;
Thus idly buſy rolls their world away.
Theirs are thoſe arts that mind to mind endear;
For honour forms the ſocial temper here.
Honour, that praiſe which real merit gains,
Or e'en imaginary worth obtains,

Here paſſes current; paid from hand to hand,
It ſhifts in ſplendid traffic round the land.
From courts to camps, to cottages it ſtrays,
And all are taught an avarice of praiſe.
They pleaſe, are pleas'd; they give to get eſteem,
Till, ſeeming bleſs'd, they grow to what they ſeem.
But while this ſofter art their bliſs ſupplies,
It gives their follies alſo room to riſe;
For praiſe too dearly lov'd, or warmly ſought,
Enfeebles all internal ſtrength of thought;
And the weak ſoul, within itſelf unbleſt,
Leans for all pleaſure on another's breaſt.
Hence oſtentation here, with tawdry art,
Pants for the vulgar praiſe which fools impart.
Here vanity aſſumes her pert grimace,
And trims her coat of frize with copper lace.
Here beggar pride defrauds her daily cheer,
To boaſt one ſplendid banquet once a year.
The mind ſtill turns where ſhifting faſhion draws,
Nor weighs the ſolid worth of ſelf-applauſe.

Such is the character of the French people prior to the revolution. With the change in the government however there has been no ſmall change in their cuſtoms and diſpoſitions. The difficulties which appeared before them, the heavy weight of national debt, and the unfriendly conduct of neighbouring powers, have given a new turn to their purſuits. All the zeal which Frenchmen formerly exerted for their king, appears now to preſs forward for the deſtruction of monarchy. There is a tincture of ferocity in their character very oppoſite to that we have been delineating in the preceding part of this ſection. From frivolity and trifling all ranks appear to be engaged in the cauſe of the day. Encompaſſed as they were with enemies, every nerve was exerted, and the following decree was paſſed by the convention to rouze every one to activity. "The young men ſhall march to battle; the married men ſhall forge arms, and tranſport proviſions; the women ſhall make tents and cloaths, and wait in the hoſpitals; the children ſhall make lint of old linen; the old men ſhall cauſe themſelves to be carried to the public ſquares, to excite the courage of the warriors, to preach hatred againſt kings, and the unity of the republic."

Their ſtile of living at this period may appear in the character of le Peletier, one of the members of the convention, who was murdered by a woman of the name of Corday for having voted for the death of Lewis XVI. He was a gentleman of conſiderable fortune; but, in the ſpirit of the times, he dwelt in lodgings in Paris, for the purpoſe of not being at the expence of ſupporting a houſhold, which would have been neceſſary had he reſided in his own manſion.

The native character of the people indeed appears to be activity. Under the reign of an abſolute monarch this diſpoſition diſcovered itſelf in the character of a galant; the ſhare they now have in the government has diverted it to other objects. In both characters perhaps they have been in the extreme; and a future period may exhibit them not ſo full of frivolity as at one time nor ſo ſevere as at another.

With all their defects, the French have many good qualities, and are very reſpectable for the great attention they pay to ſtrangers, and the general taſte for literature which prevails amongſt thoſe of the higher claſs. The French literati have great influence even in the gay and diſſipated city of Paris. Their opinions determine the merit of works of taſte and ſcience.

France has produced many men who ſtand in the higheſt eſtimation in the ſeveral departments of literature; ſuch as Racine, Corneille, Moliere, Boileau, Paſcal, the archbiſhop of Cambray, Monteſquieu, D'Argen, Voltaire, and others; not to omit the celebrated Madame Dacier. Deſcartes was the greateſt philoſopher of his time. D'Alembert ſtands eminent for mathematical knowledge; as does Buffon for that of natural hiſtory.

The French language is chiefly compoſed of words radically derived from the Latin, with ſome derived from the German, as introduced by the Franks. Lewis XIV. who liberally patronized every plan that tended to its advancement and perfection, ſucceeded ſo happily as to render it the moſt univerſal of all the living tongues; a circumſtance which equally promoted his greatneſs and glory; for his court and nation thereby became the ſchool of arts, ſciences, and politeneſs. With reſpect to the properties of the French language, they are certainly inferior to the Engliſh; but they are well adapted to ſubjects void of elevation or paſſion, and admirably accommodated to dalliance, compliment, and common converſation. It is generally underſtood throughout Europe; and perſons in the higher claſſes of life are deemed deficient in polite accompliſhments without a tolerable knowledge of it. This is beſt to be acquired by frequent converſation with French people of all claſſes upon their own ſpot.

The prevailing religion of France is the Roman Catholic, but toleration is now given to all religions by the national convention. Before the revolution there were 200,000 eccleſiaſtics, with 18 archbiſhops and 118 biſhops, who poſſeſſed a revenue of 6,000,000 ſterling. There were alſo 80,000 nuns. In November, 1789, the national aſſembly declared all eccleſiaſtical property was at the diſpoſal of the nation, ſubject to the charge of providing, in a proper manner, for the expence of divine worſhip, the ſupport of the miniſters of the church, and the relief of the poor. There is now only one biſhop to each department, and a great reduction of the other clergy. Monaſteries, &c. are aboliſhed; monks, friars, and nuns, are liberated from their vows; and ſuch as have no other reſource, have a ſmall ſtipend ſettled by the government.

SECTION IV.

Manufactures, Trade, Commerce, Coin, Government, Revenue, Taxes, &c. of France.

THE French have, within the laſt century, been very aſſiduous to improve their manufactures. The moſt admirable works in tapeſtry, filligree, and ſculpture, are executed at the Gobelins in Paris. The ſilk manufacture was carried to great perfection during the reign of Lewis XIV. and at this time the city of Lyons excels in producing the fineſt ſilks. The woollen manufactures at Abbeville are little inferior to the Engliſh. The manufactories of ſoap, thread, lace, linen, paper, glaſs, porcelain, cambrics, lawns, arms, artillery, ſalt-petre, brandy, &c. are very conſiderable; but in thoſe of hard-ware, toys, gold and ſilver lace, &c. the French artizans are out-done by the Engliſh.

Before the revolution the trade and commerce of France laboured under great diſadvantages, inaſmuch as merchants and traders were not held in ſo honourable a light as they are in England; hence the poorer part of the French nobility and nobleſſe ſought employments in the army, church, and law. The ſtate of the country, involved as it now is in war with the powers allied to reſtore the antient government, has afforded no opportunity to aſcertain the ſpirit and diſpoſition of the people with reſpect to trade.

Many of the cities of France, before the revolution, had the liberty of coinage, each having peculiar marks to diſtinguiſh their reſpective pieces; theſe mints were under the inſpection of the Cours de Monnoies, or mint courts of Paris, Lyons, and Pau. Since the revolution the mints have been ſuppreſſed in every city but Paris.

Accounts are kept in livres, ſous, and deniers. Twelve deniers are equal to a ſol or ſou, or a halfpenny Engliſh; and 20 ſous make a livre. The denier is a ſmall copper piece; but ſols and livres are only imaginary coins. The liard is another copper coin, equal to three deniers. An ecu is worth 2s 6d. a loins blanc 5s. a piſtole 8s 4d. and a louis d'or 1l. ſterling.

Until the year 1789 the government of France was an abſolute monarchy, being ſolely veſted in the king.

The kingdom was divided into a number of provinces, over each of which was appointed a king's lieutenant-general, and a ſuperintendant, who, in ſome reſpects, reſembled the lords-lieutenant of the counties in England; but their powers were far more extenſive. Diſtributive juſtice was adminiſtered by parliaments, chambers of accounts, courts of aid, preſidial courts, generalities, elections, and other courts. The courts of parliament were twelve, viz. thoſe of Paris, Thouloufe, Rouen, Grenoble, Bourdeaux, Dijon, Aix, Rennes, Pau, Metz, Beſançon, and Douay. Beſides theſe there were ſuperior councils kept at Colmer, Perpignan, and in the province of Artois. Theſe courts conſiſted of a certain number of preſidents and inferior judges, who purchaſed their places. The parliament of Paris was the moſt conſiderable; for hither the king frequently came in perſon, and here his royal edicts were recorded and promulged, till when they had not the force of laws. It was compoſed of peers of the realm, and was the only parliament that had any juriſdiction over them. The kingdom was divided into generalities, or diſtricts, in each of which commonly was an office of the treaſurers, and the king's commiſſary or intendant. The generalities were ſubdivided into elections ſubordinate to the generalities, and which computed the proportion which every pariſh in their diviſion ſhould raiſe of the ſum demanded by the generality, and ſent out their orders accordingly. For adminiſtering juſtice, and puniſhing criminals, there were magiſtrates in every conſiderable town, who were commonly lawyers, appointed by the king, called differently in divers places; in ſome bailiffs, in others provoſts, in others ſeneſchals; but their power and duty were much the ſame.

In the year 1789, the reſiſtance which firſt the parliament, afterwards the notables, and laſtly the general aſſembly of the ſtates, made againſt regiſtering an edict for raiſing money was the means of changing the government of France into a limited monarchy. In 1792 the king was dethroned, and France became a republic; the ſupreme power reſting in the convention or national aſſembly, who are elected annually by general ſuffrage of the people, who have been ſix months reſident in one houſe at the time of election. The proportion of members elected is one in about 40,000 citizens, and in caſe two candidates ſhould have an equal number of ſuffrages, the eldeſt is returned. The executive council has the adminiſtrative part of the government, and conſiſts of 24 perſons choſen by the convention from a body formed by the return of one member in each department. In eſtabliſhing the new ſyſtem of government and civil juriſprudence, the aſſembly have ſet aſide partial privileges and antient cuſtoms, and laid down one general ſyſtem of civil and criminal law for the whole nation, in which one of the leading features is the trial by jury as in England. For the more ready adminiſtration of juſtice the nation is divided into departments, diſtricts, and municipalities.

The taxes paid by the common people during the monarchy, beſides the extraordinary ones in time of war, were ſix ſorts. 1. The taille, a ſum paid yearly by every houſe-holder, according to his ſubſtance and family; from which the nobility, clergy, and crown-officers were exempt. 2. The taillion, paid by the ſame perſons as the taille, amounting to about one third of that. 3. Subſiſtence money, for ſubſiſtence of the ſoldiers in winter, by which the ſubject was excuſed from free quarters; paid by the ſame perſons, and in the ſame manner, as the two former. 4. Cuſtoms on imports and exports. 5. The gabelle, a duty on ſalt, which the king alone had a right to ſell. Every family was obliged to take a certain quantity yearly, and pay the duty, whether they could conſume it or not. 6 Small exciſes upon all neceſſaries of life, farms, and other demeſnes of the crown. Other taxes were the capitation or poll tax; the 10ths of all eſtates, offices, and employments; the 50th penny, from which neither nobility or clergy were exempted; and the 10ths or free-gifts of the clergy. Vaſt ſums were alſo ſometimes raiſed by raiſing and lowering the coin at pleaſure, by compounding debentures and government bills, and other oppreſſive means. The whole kingdom, in ſhort, was but one great farm to the crown. At the revolution all taxes were repealed; and the preſent reſources of the government ariſe from the ſeizure of the riches of the church, and of the church lands; from the confiſcation of the effects of thoſe who are diſaffected to the government; and by a tax on property, every individual being obliged, under pain of death, to give a true ſtatement of his wealth.

During the monarchy the nobility conſiſted of four claſſes, viz. princes of the blood, high nobility, ordinary nobility, and modern nobility. He who was neareſt to the crown, after the king's children, was the firſt prince of the blood. Among the higher nobility the dukes and counts, peers of France, had the precedence: they aſſiſted at the unction of a king, attended when he held a *lit de juſtice*, or *bed of juſtice*, and enjoyed a ſeat in the parliament of Paris. In this claſs were likewiſe included the knights of the Holy Ghoſt, the governors of provinces, and lieutenant-generals, with ſome other dukes, counts, and marquiſſes. The ordinary nobility were divided into *nobleſſe de race* and *nobleſſe de naiſance*. The modern or new nobility were ſuch as the king granted letters of nobility to, or conferred ſome places upon, by which they became ennobled. The orders of knighthood were thoſe of St. Michael, inſtituted in 1469; the order of the Holy Ghoſt, founded in 1578; and the order of St. Lewis, which was inſtituted by Lewis XIV. The firſt conſiſted of 100 knights; the ſecond of the ſame number, with the ſovereign at the head; and the third was a military order, for the encouragement of officers of merit. One of the firſt effects of the revolution was the ſetting aſide all the above diſtinctions; even the general and familiar addreſs of Monſieur has been involved in this change, and all men are accoſted with the appellation of Citizen.

The late kings titles were Lewis XVI. by the grace of God king of France and Navarre. His ſubjects, in writing or ſpeaking called him Sire; foreigners called him the Moſt Chriſtian; and the pope gave him the appellation of The Eldeſt Son of the Church. The ſon of the king of France, and heir to the crown, was ſtiled Dauphin. The preſent government does not take any honorary appellation.

SECTION V.

CONCISE HISTORY OF FRANCE.

FRANCE was anciently inhabited by a people called Celtæ, on whom the Romans firſt conferred the name of Gauls, when Julius Cæſar reduced their country into a Roman province.

Gaul continued in poſſeſſion of the Romans till the ſubverſion of the empire in the fifth century, when it became a prey to the Goths, the Burgundians, and the Franks, who ſubdued, but did not extirpate, the ancient natives. The Franks, who gave it the name of Frankenland, or France, were a collection of ſeveral people inhabiting Germany, but more particularly of the Salii, who lived on the banks of the river Sale, and were more poliſhed than their neighbours. The Salii had a law that they held in particular veneration, which was to exclude all females from regal power, or the inheritance of ſovereignty. This law was preſerved by the French, and known by the name of the Salic or Salique Law.

The Franks and Burgundians parcelled out the lands to their ſeveral leaders, who, at length, aſſumed independency, but ſtill acknowledged the king as their nominal head. Hence aroſe thoſe numerous principalities and ſtates into which France was anciently divided; and from this ſource originated thoſe ſeveral parliaments mentioned in the preceding ſection.

Clovis, who began his reign A. D. 468, was the firſt Chriſtian monarch of the Franks. From this period the French hiſtory becomes important; civil feuds, foreign wars, great enterprizes, and political events, fill the pages.

Prior to Charlemagne, the firſt race of the French kings had many bloody wars with the Saracens, who retaliated upon the poſterity of the Goths and Vandals the barbarities uſed by thoſe people to their predeceſſors.

A. D. 800 Charlemagne, king of France, the glory of the age in which he lived, made himſelf maſter of Germany, Spain, and part of Italy; was crowned king of the Romans by the pope, and thus became emperor of the weſt.

Charlemagne, at his death, left his empire divided among his children, which proved fatal to his poſterity. Soon after this the Normans, a fierce warlike people from Norway and Denmark, ravaged the kingdom of France; and, about the year 900, obliged the French to yield up Normandy and Bretagne to Rollo their leader, who profeſſed himſelf a Chriſtian, and married the king's daughter. This began the Norman power in France, which afterwards became a great misfortune to that nation; as from the Norman, William, who conquered England, the animoſities between England and France had their origin, and the conteſts in general proved inglorious to the latter.

Paſſing over the dark ages of the cruſades, and their relative circumſtances, we ſhall proceed to that period when France began to extend its influence over Europe, which was in the reign of Francis I. cotemporary with Henry VIII. of England.

This prince was a candidate for the empire of Germany, but loſt the Imperial crown; Charles V. of the houſe of Auſtria, and king of Spain, being choſen in his ſtead.

Francis made ſeveral capital expeditions into Spain; but in one, which he undertook againſt Italy, he was defeated at the battle of Pavia, taken priſoner, and obliged to agree to the moſt humiliating terms, in order to obtain his releaſe. His breach of the terms by which he procured his enlargement, occaſioned continual wars againſt the emperor, till the death of Francis, which happened in 1547.

At this period, however, France was rather in a flouriſhing condition; and Henry II. ſon and ſucceſſor of Francis I. was, in general, a very fortunate prince; for though he loſt the battle of St. Quintin, againſt the Engliſh and Spaniards, yet he retook Calais from the former, who never after had any footing in France. In 1559 he was killed at a tilting match by the count of Montgomery. He was ſucceeded by his ſon Francis II. in whoſe reign the religious diſputes began to break out in France. The Proteſtants were perſecuted under Charles IX. his brother and ſucceſſor. Theſe diſputes occaſioned two civil wars; after the concluſion of which, on St. Bartholomew's day, 1572, was perpetrated the horrid maſſacre of the Proteſtants at Paris, which left an indelible ſtain on the hiſtory of France. Upon this a confederacy, called the Holy League, was entered into by the Papiſts of France and Spain, for the extirpation of the Proteſtants.

On the demiſe of Charles IX. Henry III. king of Poland, ſucceeded to the kingdom of France in 1574, and taking the part of the Proteſtants againſt the leaguers, was aſſaſſinated by one Clement, a friar.

Henry, king of Navarre, of the houſe of Bourbon, ſucceeding, the Proteſtants obtained an edict, called the Edict of Nantz, 1589, in their favour, from Henry IV. whereby they were tolerated in the free exerciſe of their religion, in all parts of the kingdom except Paris; but ſtill, the king obſerving a great majority of his kingdom zealous Catholics, found himſelf under a neceſſity of declaring himſelf of that religion; nor could this preſerve him from the malice of the monks; for Ravillac, a friar, ſtabbed him to the heart in his coach, in the ſtreets of Paris, the 14th of May, on preſumption that he was ſtill a Proteſtant. Lewis XIII. was but nine years of age at the time of his father's death. When he grew up he diſcarded his mother and her favourites, and choſe for his miniſter the famous cardinal Richlieu, who, by his reſolute and bloody meaſures, put a period to the remaining liberties of France, and to the religious eſtabliſhment of the Proteſtants there, by taking from them Rochelle, in 1658. This put an end to the civil wars on account of religion in France, which had been attended with immenſe expence of blood and treaſure, and cauſed conflagrations moſt direful in their conſequences.

Richlieu, after having quelled, by a maſterly train of politics, all the conſpiracies which were formed againſt him, died ſome months before Lewis XIII. who, in 1643, left his ſon, afterwards the famous Lewis XIV. to inherit his kingdom.

During the minority of this prince the kingdom was rent by the factions of the great, and the diviſions between the court and parliament. It was involved at once in foreign and domeſtic wars; but the queen-mother, Anne of Auſtria, having made cardinal Mazarine her firſt miniſter, he found means to turn the arms even of Cromwell againſt the Spaniards, and to divide the domeſtic enemies of the court ſo effectually among themſelves, that, when Lewis, on the death of that miniſter, in 1661, aſſumed the reins, he found himſelf the moſt abſolute monarch that had ever ſat upon the throne of France.

On the death of Mazarine he had the good fortune to put the domeſtic affairs of his adminiſtration into the hands of Colbert, who formed new ſyſtems for the glory, commerce, and manufactures of France, all which were carried into execution with great aſſiduity. As an author of eminence very juſtly obſerves, to write the hiſtory of his reign would be to write that of all Europe. Ignorance and ambition were the only enemies of Lewis. Through the former he was blind to every patriotic duty as a king, and promoted the intereſts of his ſubjects, only that they might the better anſwer the purpoſes of his greatneſs: by the latter he embroiled himſelf with all his neighbours, and wantonly rendered Germany a diſmal ſcene of devaſtation. He made and broke treaties for his convenience; and, at length, raiſed a confederacy againſt himſelf of almoſt all the other princes of Europe, at the head of which was William III. king of England. This alliance he oppoſed for ſome years, till having provoked the Engliſh by his repeated infidelities, their arms, under the duke of Marlborough, and thoſe of the Auſtrians, under prince Eugene, ſullied all the renown he had obtained. His reign, which began ſplendid, ended miſerably; and he died on the firſt of September, 1715, being ſucceeded by his grandſon, Lewis XV.

This monarch, in the courſe of his reign, was ſtiled the Well Beloved, which he loſt ſome years before he died. He was deteſted and deſpiſed by his ſubjects, for his ſhameful and licentious attachments, and illiberal treatment of ſome of the worthieſt men of the kingdom. He died in the 64th year of his age, and 59th of his reign, A. D. 1774; and was ſucceeded by his grandſon, Lewis XVI. who was born in 1754; and, in 1770, married Maria Antonietta, ſiſter to the emperor of Germany.

This monarch began his reign with much popularity. In 1778, in order to aſſiſt the Americans in emancipating themſelves from the government of the mother country, he commenced hoſtilities againſt Great Britain. In Holland he ſupported what was called the patriotic party againſt the ſtadtholder. In the war with Great Britain orders were given to all his ſhips not to moleſt Captain Cook, our celebrated navigator, who was on a voyage round the world.

This war, however, helped to derange the national finances; and in 1783 the difficulties were encreaſed by the Caiſſe d'Eſcompte (a kind of national bank) ſtopping payment. Various means were deviſed by the miniſter of finance, (Calonne), to raiſe the money neceſſary

ceſſary for the exigencies of the ſtate. The parliament of Paris (memorable for its patriotiſm on former occaſions) refuſed to regiſter the edicts for laying taxes on the people; and which, according to the conſtitution of France, was neceſſary to render them effectual. Defeated by the ſteadineſs of the parliament, the miniſter had recourſe to another aſſembly called the Notables, who were convened, and met in February, 1787, but were as little ſubſervient to his wiſhes as the parliament had been, and Calonne reſigned. Necker ſucceeded him, and adviſed the calling the Tiers Etat, or three eſtates, (nobles, clergy, and commons) who had not met ſince the year 1614. On the aſſembling of this body, after much contention about forms, the commons, joined by a few of the clergy and nobles, proceeded to public buſineſs. Their firſt act went to declare that the different taxes collected throughout the kingdom were illegal, becauſe not voted by the people. The king obſerved their proceedings with aſtoniſhment; and thoſe about him adviſed him to reſiſt theſe encroachments on his prerogative. Louis was, by nature, mild, gentle, and benevolent. Stimulated by his adviſers, he exerted his authority to ſuppreſs ſuch proceedings: but the reſolution and ſpirit of the aſſembly were ſuperior to his own, and were accompanied with the plaudits of the people.

In July, 1789, M. Necker, from whoſe abilities the public expected the reſtoration of the national credit, received the royal orders to quit the kingdom. As ſoon as this was known, the capital was in confuſion, the populace were filled with furious zeal; the French guards, when called forth to repel them, ranged themſelves on their ſide, ſeveral houſes and public buildings were pillaged and deſtroyed, and among others the baſtille, the mob killing all who reſiſted.

The conſequence of theſe proceedings was the retrenchment of the power of the king. The national aſſembly paſſed reſolutions limiting and defining the royal power, and the king, with apparent good will, acquieſced in their proceedings. In October following the ſoldiers on duty at Verſailles gave an entertainment to a corps who had lately arrived. In the courſe of the evening, warmed probably with liquor, it is ſaid, ſongs were ſung which had a tendency to rouze the ſoldiers to a love of the old government, and many of them took the national cockade out of their hats. News of this ſoon reached Paris. A mob of 30,000 or 40,000 ſoon collected, moſt of whom, it is ſaid, were women, and ſeizing arms wherever they could find them, they marched to Verſailles, addreſſed the aſſembly on the ſubject, and in the end aſſailed the palace, killed many of the guards, and the queen narrowly eſcaped the ſame fate.

The king the next day removed to Paris, and was conducted to the palace of the Thuilleries. In July, 1790, he took the oath appointed by the new conſtitution; and in this his conduct appears moſt deſerving cenſure; for in June following, though guards ſurrounded the palace, he made his eſcape from Paris, accompanied by the queen and his two children, and fled towards the Netherlands; but they were ſtopped at Varennes, on the borders of France, by a poſt-maſter who recognized his perſon.

In April, 1792, in conſequence of the warlike preparations and conduct of the emperor, who had perſonally met the king of Pruſſia at Pilnitz, and it was ſaid had entered into a private league (in which other powers alſo were included) to invade France, war was declared againſt him. The queen was the ſiſter of the emperor: the people ſuſpected her to have influence over the king, and they believed, or profeſſed to believe, that he uſed his authority contrary to the intereſt of the ſtate and in conformity to the views of the emperor. Under theſe ſentiments, in Auguſt following, M. Petion, the mayor of Paris, at the head of the ſections of the capital, demanded the depoſition of the king; and Louis, his queen, and two children, were placed as priſoners in the Temple. The nation was immediately declared a republic.

In the autumn of 1793, the duke of Brunſwick, at the head of an army of 90,000 Pruſſians, Heſſians, and other German troops, entered France, having firſt publiſhed a manifeſto declaring that he purpoſed marching to Paris to reſtore the ancient government. The eyes of all Europe were fixed on this army, and great events were expected from it: but after marching 100 miles into France, without being joined by the peaſants as he had been given to expect, the duke found a retreat neceſſary, from the want of proviſions, and with ſome difficulty he returned into Germany.

This unſucceſsful attempt inſpired the French with more fortitude, and towards the end of the ſame year under General Dumourier, they invaded the Auſtrian Netherlands. After a battle near the village of Jemappe, they entered Bruſſels, took Antwerp, and were every where victorious. On the 20th of January, 1793, the king, after a public trial before the national aſſembly, which had been re-elected, and now took the name of the Convention, was ſentenced to ſuffer death, and on the following day was beheaded. On the 2d of October following the queen met the ſame fate.

To deſcribe the number of aſſaſſinations, murders, and executions, which have happened ſince July, 1789, would be beyond the limits preſcribed to this work. Many members of the aſſembly, and thouſands of other individuals, have met the fate of their ſovereign, and France has exhibited to Europe ſcenes which human wiſdom could not foreſee, and which appear too great for human reſiſtance.

In Feb. 1793, the French declared war againſt the "King of England" and the "Stadtholder of Holland." In conſequence the Duke of York, with a body of forces, was ſent to the aſſiſtance of Holland, which was invaded by the French forces; and they were ſoon compelled by the allied powers to evacuate all they had taken in the Auſtrian Netherlands. The campaign of 1793 was afterwards purſued with various ſucceſs. In 1794, the internal commotions of France, having greatly ſubſided, they were enabled to bring into the field a body of forces which rendered them victorious by land over all their enemies, and Bruſſels again ſubmitted to them. The Engliſh fleet, however, under Lord Howe, gained a complete victory over the fleet of France on the 1ſt of June, after three ſucceſſive days engagement.

SECTION VI.

Containing a Geographical Deſcription of FRENCH FLANDERS.

FRENCH Flanders is bounded on the north by the Seine and German Ocean, and on the weſt by the latter. On the eaſt it is bounded by the Auſtrian Netherlands, and on the ſouth by Artois. It abounds in grain, vegetables, flax, cattle, &c.

Liſle, on the Deule, the capital of the French Netherlands, is ſtrong and beautiful, and has one of the fineſt citadels in Europe. It contains likewiſe an hoſpital, an handſome exchange, a number of churches, and a conſiderable manufactory of camblets, cloths, and other ſtuffs. There is always a ſtrong garriſon kept up in this town. The houſes are of hewn ſtone and well built. The ſtreets are ſtraight, and croſs each other at right angles. In the year 1792 the Auſtrians beſieged this town, and moſt of the houſes were deſtroyed; but on the retreat of the Pruſſians out of France they raiſed the ſiege.

Douay is a well fortified town, with a citadel, ſituated on the river Scarpe, and the borders of Artois. It is of an oval form. By means of ſluices the whole country round may be laid under water. Here are ſeveral churches, and a famous ſeminary and univerſity. In the new diviſion of France, Douay is the chief town in the department of the North.

Gravelines,

Gravelines, a ſmall but ſtrong town on the river Aa, about nine miles from Dunkirk, is well fortified, and has a harbour at the mouth of the river.

The Province of CAMBRESIS is about ten leagues long, and from five to ſix where broadeſt. It is very fruitful and populous.

Cambray, the capital of the province, is ſeated on the Scheld, 13 miles from Douay; it was taken by Lewis XIV. in 1677, and next year was yielded to him by the treaty of Nimeguen, together with the whole Cambreſis. It is the ſee of a biſhop. Before the revolution it was the ſee of an archbiſhop. The city is not only well fortified, but alſo defended by a citadel and fort. There is ſtill a manufactory here of fine lawn, which takes its name from the city, and for which it has been long famous. The inhabitants are ſaid to be very lively and induſtrious, and to have a genius for the ſciences.

Chateau-Cambreſis is a ſmall town, ſituated 14 miles from Cambray. It was formerly a fortified town, but now lies quite open.

FRENCH HAINAULT, 50 miles long, and 12 broad, contains the following places:

Valenciennes, a large and populous town, on the Scheld, which runs through the town, with a good citadel, and other fortifications, 15 miles from Cambray. The manufactures are woollen ſtuffs, camblets, barracans, and a ſort of fine lawns, called batiſte, in French.

Condé, on the conflux of the Haine and Scheld, is ſtrongly fortified. Queſnoy contains ſome manufactories of linen and ſtuff; Bava is famous for ſome Roman cauſeways; Maubeuge, on the Sambre, is well fortified; and Landrecy, on the Sombre, was yielded to Lewis XIV. by the treaty of the Pyrenees.

Charlemont is a little fortified town, which had its name from its ſituation on a ſteep rock near the Maes, and its founder Charles V.

Dunkirk is the moſt eaſterly harbour on that ſide of France which is next to Great Britain. It was originally a mean hamlet, conſiſting only of a few fiſhermens huts; but a church being built there, it was, from that, and its ſituation, which is a ſandy eminence, called Dunkirk; *Dun* ſignifying, in the old Gallic language, a hill; and *Kirk* being the old Flemiſh name for church. This place underwent a variety of repairs and demolitions from the year 960 to 1634, being then in the poſſeſſion of the Spaniards, and the beſt harbour in Flanders. The French, entering into a treaty with England in 1655, aſſiſted by Cromwell, attacked and took it; and it was put into the hands of the Engliſh, in conſequence of a treaty between them and the French. To the Engliſh it was of very great importance. They therefore improved the fortifications, and built a citadel; yet they kept it only four years; for, in 1662, two years after the reſtoration, Charles II. ſold this valuable acquiſition to France. After this it was fortified by Vauban in a very extraordinary manner, and at an immenſe expence to Lewis XIV. Being a place where the French privateers were ſtationed in time of war, the fortifications were demoliſhed in conſequence of the treaty of Utrecht in 1713.

In the year 1720, during a great ſtorm, the ſea broke up the bar, or dam, and reſtored to the Dunkirkers the uſe of the harbour in a very conſiderable degree. In the year 1740, when Great-Britain was engaged in war with Spain, Lewis XV. ſet about improving the advantage which Dunkirk had derived from the ſtorm in 1720, by reſtoring the works, and repairing the harbour. He erected new forts in the place of thoſe which had been deſtroyed; and ſoon eſpouſed the cauſe of Spain, and became a principal in the war againſt us. At the peace of Aix-la-Chapelle, in 1748, it was ſtipulated, that all the works towards the ſea ſhould be deſtroyed a ſecond time; notwithſtanding which, before the declaration of the war in 1756, the place was in as good a ſtate of defence towards the ſea, as it had been at any time during the war which was concluded by the treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle. Thus the French always endeavoured to elude the demolition of this fortification. In the year 1793, the Duke of York, at the head of the Britiſh and Auſtrian forces, attempted to take it, but was obliged to make a precipitate retreat, with the loſs of his artillery and a part of his army.

Mardyke, a village about three miles to the weſt of Dunkirk, is celebrated on account of the noble canal erected there, with its ſluice and baſons, by order of Lewis XIV. after the peace of Utrecht: but, by virtue of an article of the treaty concluded at the Hague, in 1717, this canal hath been rendered, in a great meaſure, uſeleſs.

The Government of METZ conſiſts of Meſzin, French Barras, La Saare, and French Luxemburg. By the firſt of theſe is meant the territory round the city of Metz, in Lorrain, which was yielded for ever to the French by the treaty of Weſtphalia; together with other diſtricts in the biſhoprics of Metz, in which the only place worth mentioning is

Metz, ſituated at the conflux of the Moſelle and Seille. It is the ſee of a biſhop. Here are many churches, three citadels, and a Jewiſh ſynagogue, of which people there are ſaid to be 3000.

The city is divided into the Old and New, both of which are large and handſome; but the latter excels the former, at leaſt in reſpect to beauty. The Jews are confined to a particular quarter, and diſtinguiſhed from others by wearing yellow caps. In the new diviſion of France, Metz is the chief town in the department of Mozelle.

French Barras is a part of the duchy of Bar, which has been long in the poſſeſſion of the French. It contains ſeveral ſmall towns, of which Longwi and Jametz are the chief.

The French part of the duchy of Luxemburg was acquired by the peace of the Pyrenees.

Thionville, the capital, is a fortified town, on the weſtern bank of the Moſelle, over which it has a beautiful bridge.

Carignanes is a town ſituated on the Chier, ſix miles from Sedan to the weſt, and formerly called Ivoy. When Lewis XIV. conferred it on the count of Soiſſons, of the houſe of Savoy, its name was changed to Carignan, after that of a town in Piedmont, of which the count's father was lord.

Saar-Louis, on the Saar, is one of the French bulwarks towards Germany. The peninſula on which it ſtands can be laid under water, and the ramparts are planted with three rows of trees.

The Government of LORRAIN is 100 miles long, near as many broad, mountainous in ſome places, but in general fertile.

Nancy, the capital, ſituated on the river Meurte, is divided into the Old and New Town, of which the latter is the largeſt and moſt beautiful. Here are ſeveral churches, an academy of ſciences, a public library, and an hoſpital. In the church of St. George is the monument of Charles the Bold, duke of Burgundy, who was killed while he was beſieging this city in the year 1476. It is a biſhop's ſee. In the new diviſion of France Nancy is the chief town in the department of Meur. The other towns in this duchy are of no conſequence.

The duchy of Bar is fruitful and well watered. It is included in one government with Lorrain.

Bar-le-Duc, the capital, is divided into the Upper and Lower, and contains ſeveral churches and an hoſpital. It is a neat town, has a caſtle, and is noted for wines. In the new diviſion of France Bar-le-Duc is the chief town in the department of Meuſe.

Pont à Mouſſon is a conſiderable town on the Moſelle, over which it has a bridge, about 15 miles from Metz and Nancy. The river divides the town into two parts. It contains ſeveral churches, with a ſeminary and an univerſity.

Clermont

Clermont en Argonne, ſo called to diſtinguiſh it from other cities of the ſame name, is the chief place of an earldom and bailiwick, which Charles III. yielded to Lewis XIII. king of France; and Lewis XIV. gave, in full property, to the prince of Condé.

Betwixt the Maes and Moſelle lie ſeveral lordſhips, which take their names from their capitals, and are independent of both duchies.

In the Government of VERDUN, the only place worth noticing is Verdun, on the Maes, a large populous city, defended by a fine citadel, and otherwiſe well fortified. It is the ſee of a biſhop, and has many fine churches.

The ſmall Government of TOUL, which is quite hemmed in by Lorrain, contains only one town, viz.

Toul on the Moſelle, over which it has a fine bridge. Here are ſeveral churches, two hoſpitals, and a ſeminary, and the town, which was a biſhop's ſee before the revolution, is well fortified.

The Government of ALSACE is bounded to the weſt by Burgundy and Lorrain, to the eaſt by the Ortenau and Briſgau, to the ſouth by Switzerland and Elſgau, and to the north by the Palatinate. The ſoil is good, yielding grain, flax, fruit, tobacco, wood, wine, paſture, ſaffron, hemp, Turkiſh corn, oats, rye, barley, &c. This country is ſeparated from Lorrain by the lofty Waſgau mountains, upon which grow ſeveral kinds of large trees, and various ſpecies of ſhrubs, plants, &c. Game likewiſe abounds upon them; and their bowels contain ſilver, copper, lead, iron, antimony, cobalt, ſulphur, coal, mineral waters, &c. The rivers which fall from theſe mountains, are the Leber, Cher, Andlace, Ergers, Sorr, Breuſch, Motter, Seltzback, Lauter, Queech, Ber, and Ill. Beſides theſe, Alſace contains ſeveral lakes, and is watered by the Rhine, which ſeparates it from Germany. The inhabitants are either Roman Catholics or Lutherans, and they ſpeak the German language.

At the peace of Munſter the emperor yielded up to France the town of Briſac, the landgravate of Upper and Lower Alſace, the Sundgau, and the diſtrict of the ten Imperial cities in Alſace, with the ſovereignty thereof; and, at the peace of Ryſwick, in 1697, the emperor and empire ceded to France the perpetual ſovereignty of Straſburg, and its dependencies, on the left ſide of the Rhine.

Straſburg, the capital of the whole country, and formerly a free imperial city, ſituated on the rivers Ill and Breuſch, about a quarter of a league from the Rhine, took the name of Straſburg from its ſtanding near a highway, called, by the Latin writers of the middle age, Strata. It is a large and ancient city. The bridge over the Rhine is near an Engliſh mile long. Though the city may be laid under water, it is well fortified, and has a regular citadel. The cathedral is the principal ſtructure in Straſburg that merits obſervation. The ornaments preſented to this church, by Lewis XIV. coſt an immenſe ſum. Its ſteeple is juſtly reckoned one of the higheſt in Europe. The great bell in it weighs above ten tons; and another, called the ſilver bell, as being moſtly of that metal, two tons, and 600 weight, which is rung only twice a year. In this church is likewiſe a large clock, which exhibits the various motions of the planets.

The other public buildings of any note are the epiſcopal palace, the arſenal, the theatre, and the hoſpitals. They have a fine phyſic-garden, and an anatomical theatre.

There are alſo here, a Lutheran univerſity and gymnaſium; a royal ſociety, founded chiefly for the natural hiſtory of Alſace; and many churches. Of the members of the city council, one half are Lutherans, and the reſt Roman Catholics. In the new diviſion of France, Straſburg is the chief town in the department of Bas Rhin or Lower Rhine.

Hagenau, is ſituated on the Motter; Weiſſenburg, on the Lauter, contained, before the revolution, an abbey of Benedictines; Landau, on the Queech, is ſtrongly fortified; Fort Louis, on an iſland in the Rhine, is a handſome little town; Andlau is ſituated on a river of the ſame name; and Zabern, another town, is ſituated on the Sor.

Colmar, on the Ill, the capital of Upper Alſace, formerly one of the ten Imperial cities in Alſace, is ſtrongly fortified. It is inhabited principally by Lutherans. It is a biſhop's ſee, and, in the new diviſion of France, Colmar is the chief town in the department of Haut Rhin or Upper Rhine.

New-Briſac, a ſmall town, built by Lewis XIV. after the peace of Ryſwick, about half a league from the Rhine, oppoſite to Old-Briſac, is ſtrongly fortified, and ſo regular, that the four gates of the town may be ſeen from the great market-place.

The government of Alſace comprehends alſo the Sundgau, i. e. the ſouthern diſtrict, ſo called in oppoſition to the Nordgau, or northern diſtrict. This territory is about 12 leagues in length, and near as much in breadth. Moſt of the inhabitants ſpeak German, and are Papiſts. This country, though mountainous, produces a great deal of corn and wine, and is watered by the Ill or Ell. At the peace of Munſter, in 1648, it was ceded, by the emperor and empire, to France. There are no places in it worth mentioning.

The Government of FRANCHE COMTE is bounded to the ſouth and weſt by Champagne and Burgundy, to the north by Lorrain, and to the eaſt by Switzerland and Mumpelgard, being 30 leagues long, and 20 broad. It is in ſome parts flat; in others hilly; produces grain, wine, hemp, and paſture; and abounds in cattle, copper, iron, lead, ſilver ore, ſtone quarries, mineral waters, ſalt ſprings, &c.

Beſançon, the capital, is ſeated on the Doux, which divides it into the Upper and Lower Town. Here are ſeveral hoſpitals, palaces, fountains, an archbiſhopric, and an univerſity. The univerſity has profeſſors of divinity, law, phyſic, and the languages. The city is well fortified, and defended by two citadels. In the new diviſion of France, Beſançon is the chief town in the department of Doubs.

Dola is a town on the river Doux, about eight leagues ſouth-weſt from Beſançon. There are ſeveral fine ſtreets here; but it was more conſiderable before the taking of Beſançon, when it was the capital of the country. In the new diviſion of France, Dola is the chief town in the department of Jura.

Salins, in Latin Saline, is a pretty large town, which takes its name from its ſalt ſprings, and ſtands ſix leagues ſouth from Beſançon, and as many eaſt from Dola. The ſalt ſprings here are in vaſt caves under ground; whence the water is raiſed by cranes, pumps, and other engines, conveyed into reſervoirs, and from thence into iron kettles, where it is boiled into ſalt. The waters are ſuppoſed to acquire their ſaltneſs by running through mines of ſalt, and not to come from the ſea. A great deal of this ſalt is ſent into Switzerland in caſks; and the reſt, by means of wooden moulds, is made into cakes and loaves of three or four pounds weight, and laid up in the warehouſes, until they are ſold. Vaſt quantities of wood and coals are required for making the ſalt, and the ſalt kettles. In the neighbourhood are ſeveral forts, and quarries of marble, alabaſter, jaſper, &c.

CHAP. XIV.

SPAIN.

SECTION I.

Ancient Names, Situation, Extent, Boundaries, Climate, Soil, Mountains, Rivers, Vegetable and Animal Productions, &c. &c.

SPAIN formerly included Portugal, and was known to the ancients by the names of Iberia and Heſperia, as well as Hiſpania. It is ſituated between 36 and 44 degrees of north latitude, and between 3 and 10 degrees weſt longitude; being 700 miles in length, and 500 in breadth.

The air of Spain, excepting during the equinoctial rains, is dry and ſerene; but it is exceſſively hot in the ſouthern provinces, in June, July, and Auguſt. The vaſt mountains that run through the country are very beneficial to the inhabitants, by the refreſhing breezes that come from them in the ſouthernmoſt parts; tho' thoſe towards the north and north-eaſt are, in the winter, very cold, and, in the night time, make a traveller ſhiver.

The ſoil of Spain is, in general, good and fertile. If it is not ſo fruitful in corn as might be expected, it is owing to the indolence of the inhabitants in the neglect of tillage.

In this kingdom the mountains are remarkable for their numbers and height. The chief and higheſt are the Pyrenees, being near 200 miles in length, extending from the Mediterranean to the Atlantic Ocean, and dividing Spain from France. Near Gibraltar ſtands the celebrated Mount Calpe, now called the Hill of Gibraltar, and, in former times, one of the pillars of Hercules. Montſerrat is worthy the attention of the curious traveller, as one of the moſt ſingular in the world, for ſituation, ſhape, and compoſition. As it is like no other mountain, ſo it ſtands quite unconnected with any; though not far diſtant from ſome that are very lofty. There is a famous monaſtery and chapel on this mountain, dedicated to the Virgin Mary, and reſorted to by a great number of pilgrims. It is inhabited by monks of ſeveral nations, who entertain all that come hither, out of devotion or curioſity, for three days, gratis.

The principal rivers of this kingdom are the Duero, the Tagus, the Guadiana, the Guadalquiver, or Surio, and the Ebro.

Many parts of Spain produce, almoſt ſpontaneouſly, the richeſt and moſt delicious fruits; as oranges, lemons, prunes, citrons, almonds, raiſins, figs, peaches, pomegranates, &c. The wines are in high requeſt among foreigners. The ſides of the mountains are cloathed with rich trees, fruits, and herbage, to the tops; and Seville oranges are noted every where. No country produces a greater variety of aromatic herbs, which renders the taſte of their kids and ſheep ſo exquiſitely delicious. The kingdom of Murcia abounds ſo much with mulberry-trees, that the produce of its ſoil ſometimes amounts to 200,000l. in the courſe of a year. It may be juſtly obſerved, upon the whole, that few countries in the world owe more than Spain does to nature, and leſs to induſtry.

The Spaniſh horſes are generally black, or of a cheſnut colour; their ears are well ſet, their manes long and flowing, their eyes full of fire; and they poſſeſs activity and ſpirit. Thoſe bred in Andaluſia are eſteemed the fineſt; and, indeed, they are preferable for war, ſhow, and the menage. The mules of Andaluſia are much eſteemed. The Spaniards, in general, make uſe of mules, riding or travelling. They eat little, and are ſure footed. Sheep abound; and goats are numerous, particularly the Chamois, or Shamoy goats. The wild bulls have much ferocity. Wolves are the chief beaſts of prey that peſter Spain, which is well ſtored with all the game and wild fowl that are to be found in the neighbouring countries already deſcribed. The Spaniſh ſeas afford excellent fiſh of all kinds, eſpecially anchovies, which are here cured in great perfection. Honey, ſalt, ſilk, cotton, and wool in particular, abound here; and ſome parts of the country produce rice and ſugar canes. Spain is much infeſted with locuſts.

There are ſalutiferous ſprings in ſome parts, and waters poſſeſſed of extraordinary healing qualities.

SECTION II.

Grand Diviſions of the Kingdom of Spain, with ar particular Deſcription of each Diviſion.

SPAIN is divided into 14 grand diviſions or provinces, which we ſhall deſcribe in the following order.

GALICIA, which was anciently a kingdom, has the Ocean on the weſt, Aſturias and Leon on the eaſt, Portugal on the ſouth, and the Bay of Biſcay on the north. It is of a ſquare figure, 120 miles each way, and very mountainous. Compoſtella, or St. Jago de Compoſtella, the capital, an archbiſhop's ſee, is ſituated betwixt the rivers Tambra and Ulla, having a ſtrong caſtle and walls, and containing ſeveral good ſtreets, ſquares, monaſteries, hoſpitals, colleges, and churches. The cathedral is a moſt magnificent ſtructure, and contains the body of the apoſtle James the younger, the teutelary ſaint and patron of Spain. There is a prodigious concourſe of pilgrims always at this place, to pay their devotions to the ſhrine of the ſaint. Here are alſo an univerſity, a court of inquiſition, a ſovereign court, two annual fairs, and a market every week. The chief of the hoſpitals is that for the reception of pilgrims.

Lugo, anciently called Lucus Auguſti, is the ſee of a biſhop, ſuffragan to St. Jago. Here are many warm baths, ſome of which are only lukewarm, and others boiling hot.

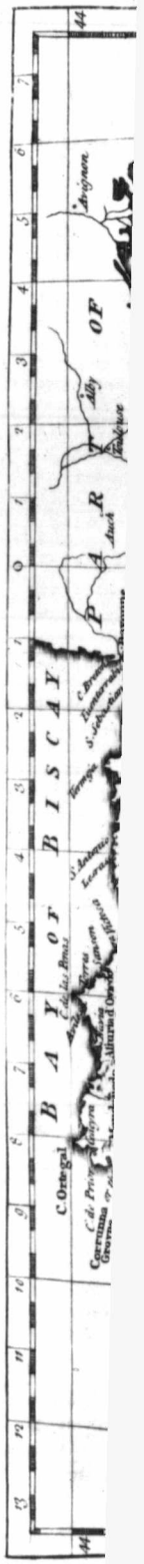
Corunna, a ſea-port town on the Bay of Biſcay, called by our ſeamen the Groyne, is a place of conſiderable trade, having a ſpacious harbour, with walls and forts, ſeveral convents, chapels, churches, and hoſpitals. In its neighbourhood is a quarry of jaſper.

Orenſe is an epiſcopal city, on the Minho. The boiling ſprings of this place are ſalutary in ſeveral diſorders.

Mondonnedo, 16 leagues from the ſea-coaſt, is the ſee of a biſhop; Betanzos, on the Mandeo, has a good harbour. Finiſterre is an inconſiderable town near the cape of that name; and Montforte, on the Lemos is a town belonging to the count of Lemos, who has a ſtately palace here. On the top of a neighbouring mountain is a ſpring that ebbs and flows as the ſea does, and is alternately hot and cold.

Vigo is a town on a ſmall bay, where, in 1702, the Engliſh and Dutch burnt the Spaniſh plate fleet; and Ferrol, two leagues from Corunna, is an agreeable town, with a fine harbour, where ſeveral Spaniſh men of war are uſually at anchor.

The province of ASTURIAS, which is a principality, and gives title to the hereditary prince of Spain, has Galicia on the weſt, the Bay of Biſcay on the eaſt, the ſea on the north, and Old Caſtile and Leon on the ſouth.



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ſouth. It is 110 miles long, and 54 broad; fertile, but thinly inhabited.

Oviedo, the capital, ſituated 20 miles from the Bay of Biſcay, is the ſee of a biſhop. Here are an univerſity, ſeveral convents, chapels, churches, and hoſpitals; and here Pelayo, and the firſt Chriſtian kings, after the conqueſt of Spain by the Moors, reſided.

The other places in this province are inconſiderable.

The Lordſhip of BISCAY has the Bay of the ſame name on the north, Old Caſtile on the ſouth, the Aſturias on the weſt, and Navarre on the eaſt. It is famous for its oranges, lemons, and apples, of which good cyder is made. The people, who are the beſt ſoldiers and ſailors in Spain, derive their origin from the Celts, whoſe language, now called the Biſcayan, they ſpeak, and which nearly reſembles the Welch. This province is divided into three parts, viz. Biſcay Proper, Guipuſcoa, and Alaba. In Biſcay Proper the principal places are

Bilbao, vulgarly called Bilboa, the capital of the province. It is large and populous, and pleaſantly ſituated on the river Ybaicabal, where it has a good port, and a great trade in iron, wrought and unwrought wool, ſaffron, and cheſnuts.

Duraugo, 15 miles ſouth-eaſt of Bilboa, has a great iron manufactory.

In Guipuſcoa are

San Sebaſtian, a town, and noted port on the Bay of Biſcay. It is handſome, well fortified, and has a good harbour and citadel; carrying on alſo a conſiderable trade in iron, ſteel, and wool; and enjoying a pleaſant proſpect of the ſea on one ſide, and the Pyrenean Mountains on the other. Here is a company which trades to the Caraccas.

Fuentarabia, a little town on the utmoſt borders of Spain, next to France, has a pretty good harbour, and is fortified both by nature and art. The Iſland of Pheaſants, in the river Bidaſſoa, nine miles from Fuentarabia, was famous for the peace of the Pyrenees, concluded in 1659, between Maria Thereſa, Infanta of Spain, and Lewis XIV.

Mendragon is celebrated for its mineral ſprings; Solmas for its ſalt ſprings; and the Sierra de Adriane, in this diſtrict, is the higheſt mountain among the Pyrenees.

The diſtrict of Alaba contains no place worthy of mention but Vitoria, which is ſurrounded by a wall, contains many magnificent monaſteries, particularly that of St. Francis, and has a great trade in iron, ſteel, wool, wine, and ſword-blades.

The Province of UPPER NAVARRE, ſo called to diſtinguiſh it from Lower Navarre, which belongs to France, has Arragon on the ſouth, the Pyrenean Mountains on the north and eaſt, and Old Caſtile and Biſcay to the weſt; being 80 miles long, and 75 broad. It abounds with cattle, game, honey, oil, wine, ſome grain, a few medicinal waters, and ſome minerals.

Pampelona, the capital, ſituated at the foot of the Pyrenees, and walled, is the ſee of a biſhop, ſubject to the archbiſhop of Burgos. Here are an univerſity, founded in 1608, two caſtles, ſeveral churches, and many convents. Two high roads lead from this city, over the Pyrenees, to France: one to Bayonne, through the valley of Batan; and the other, which is the beſt, to St. Jean pie de Port, by the way of Taraſſa.

Taſalla, on the Cadaço, is a large city, containing an univerſity, and defended by a caſtle.

Tudela, a city pleaſantly ſituated on the banks of the Ebro, is walled, and has ſeveral churches and convents, with a ſtately bridge over the river.

Eſtella is a handſome town on the river Ega. Its name ſignifies a ſtar, having been built to guide, like a ſtar, the weary pilgrims, paſſing through theſe wild mountains in their way to Compoſtella.

Caſcantei is a ſmall city on the banks of the river Quelles, in the diſtrict of Tudela. Its Roman name was Caſcantum; and ſome coins of Tiberius are ſtill extant, inſcribed Muiceps Caſcantum.

ARRAGON, which was anciently a kingdom, has the Pyrenees on the north, Valentia on the ſouth, Catalonia on the eaſt, and Caſtile and Navarre on the weſt; being 170 miles long, and 110 broad.

Saragoſſa, the capital, ſituated on the banks of the Ebro, almoſt in the heart of the province, is a large, populous city, ſtanding in a pleaſant fertile plain, watered by four rivers, and containing many convents and churches; but the cathedral is an old irregular building. The archbiſhop has a conſiderable revenue. The univerſity here was founded in 1744. A great many perſons of quality reſide in this city, which is the ſeat of the court of royal audience for Arragon, and of the governor and captain-general. Of the churches, that of Our Lady of the Pillar, and of the convents, that of St. Francis, are the moſt remarkable. Here are two ſtately bridges over the Ebro; and the walls of the city, though old, are ſtrong and lofty.

An ingenious, as well as facetious traveller, who made the tour of Spain, a ſhort time ſince, declares, that though Saragoſſa is repreſented, by ſome people, as a trading city, he ſaw no appearance of any ſuch thing. On the contrary, the people were all lounging about with their arms acroſs, the warehouſes empty, and not a ſingle ſkiff to be ſeen on the Ebro.

The palace of the inquiſition is in the center of the city. The walls, which are of a deep yellow, thick, and flanked with towers, appear to be an hundred feet high.

The city gates are ſhut as ſoon as it is dark; but, for the value of ſixpence, they fly open at any hour.

To judge of the people of the higher claſs in the province of Arragon, by the firſt interview, they appear humble, are obſequious, inquiſitive, and fond of garlic; converſant with heraldry, vain of their family arms, and eager to ſhew them.

There are two manufactories here; one of brandy, the other of hats, which are excellent.

The monks of St. Bernard retail Muſcadel wines. Their gardens are well furniſhed with tables, ſurrounded by Bacchanalians.

Daroca, a conſiderable town, 48 miles from Saragoſſa, is walled, and ſituated on an eminence, amidſt a fertile and delicious plain. Here are ſeveral convents, chapels, ſquares, and fountains; and in the neighbourhood is a large cave, of which they tell many wonders.

Near Tarazona, a conſiderable town on the little river Queiles, is Mon Cayo, anciently Mons Caci, which name the Spaniards pretend it had from the tyrant Cacus, who was killed by Hercules. The town is well built and walled, drives a good trade, and is the ſee of a biſhop, ſuffragan to Saragoſſa.

Borja, a ſmall but pleaſant city, near Mon Cayo, is walled, and has a caſtle, with ſeveral convents.

Xaca, at the foot of the Pyrenees, a well built walled town, has a ſtrong caſtle, and is the ſee of a biſhop.

Calatayud, 45 miles ſouth-weſt of Saragoſſa, is pleaſantly ſituated, has a good air, ſtrong walls, many convents, and is celebrated for its fine tempered ſteel.

Barbaſtio is ſituated on the Vero, over which it has a ſtately bridge. It ſtands in a fertile plain, is ſurrounded by a wall, contains ſeveral convents, and is the ſee of a biſhop.

CATALONIA has the Mediterranean ſouth and eaſt, the Pyrenees north, and Arragon and Valencia weſt. It is 150 miles long, 120 broad, is well watered, has a fertile ſoil, and a temperate air. The principal places are the following:

Barcelona, the capital, a well fortified city, is ſituated on the Mediterranean, between the rivers Llobregat and Beſos, at the foot of the mountain Monjouy, on which are ſeveral forts, commanding the town and harbour. The latter of theſe rivers is ſpacious, deep, and ſafe; and the trade carried on by it conſiderable. Here

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are many good ſtreets, houſes, churches, colleges, hoſpitals, fountains, gardens, and convents, with an univerſity, an academy of arts and ſciences, a court of inquiſition, the court of royal audience for Catalonia, in which the governor and captain-general preſide, and the ſee of an archbiſhop. The cathedral is large and magnificent; and there are ſeveral antiquities about the city. Near the cathedral is a church, where proviſions are diſtributed every day to a certain number of poor. The territory round it is extremely fertile and delightful.

Tarragona, anciently called Tarcon and Tarraco, ſtands near the ſea, 50 miles from Barcelona to the ſouth-weſt, at the mouth of the little river Francoli, where it has a ſafe and convenient harbour for ſmall ſhips, and a good trade. Here are an univerſity without the town, and the ſee of an archbiſhop. One of the chief diviſions of Spain was anciently called, from this city, Tarraconenſis. The climate here is ſo temperate, and the ſoil ſo rich and warm, that the trees bear fruit, and bloſſom, in the middle of winter.

Lerida, on the Segre, an ancient and ſtrong city, contains ſeveral convents and monaſteries, an univerſity, a court of inquiſition, and is a biſhop's ſee.

Tortoſa, on the Ebro, is an ancient walled city near the ſea, and has a bridge of boats over the river, with a ſtrong caſtle and other fortifications, an univerſity, and ſeveral churches and convents. It is the ſee of a biſhop, gives the title of marquis, and carries on a good trade in ſilk and earthen-ware.

Terroſis, near Lerida, has an air which is remarkably ſalubrious, and particularly in caſes of inſanity; ſo that it is common, all over Catalonia, to ſay to a paſſionate perſon, "You muſt be ſent to Terroſis for a cure."

Cardona, a handſome town near the river Cardonera, is well fortified; and near it is a mountain of ſalt, which yields a great revenue to the duke, who takes his title from the town, of which he is lord, and one of the richeſt grandees of Spain.

Balamos, a little town on a bay of the ſea, near Cape Palafugel, with a good harbour, is fortified, has a citadel, and gives the title of count.

Girona, anciently Gerunda, a conſiderable town in the eaſt part of the province, ſtands near the conflux of the Ter and Onhar; has ſtrong old walls, and other fortifications; with many convents, and an univerſity; being alſo the ſee of a biſhop, ſuffragan to the archbiſhop of Tarragona. The neighbouring country is reckoned the moſt fertile in Catalonia. The town carries on a good trade, and gives the title of count.

Roſes, a ſtrong town, with a good harbour, on a bay of the ſea, owes its name and origin to the ancient town of Rhoda, which ſtood a little way off, near Cape Cruz.

Peucerda, a large town, and the capital of the earldom of Cerdagne, is fortified in the modern manner, and ſtands betwixt the rivers Carol and Segre, at the foot of the Pyrenees.

Urgel, originally Orgia and Orgelium, an ancient city, earldom, and biſhopric, not far from the Pyrenees, is well walled, has an ancient caſtle, and ſeveral convents, and its territory is extremely fertile.

LEON has the Aſturias on the north, Eſtremadura onthe ſouth, Galicia and Portugal on the weſt, and Old Caſtile on the eaſt. It is 180 miles long, and upwards of 80 broad; has a fruitful ſoil, abounds in cattle and game, and contains ſeveral quarries of ſtone and mines of jewels. The dukes of Negera are hereditary governors, and the chief places are the following:

Leon, the capital of the province, ſituated 165 miles north-weſt from Madrid, at the foot of the Aſturian mountains. It ſtands in a pleaſant country, is well built, and contains many convents and chapels, with ſeveral hoſpitals, and one of the fineſt cathedrals in Spain, of which the king is always a canon, as well as the marquis of Aſtorga. The biſhop is immediately ſubject to the pope. This city was the firſt of any note that was re-taken from the Moors.

Salamanca is an ancient, large, rich, and populous city on the river Tormes. Here is an univerſity, the greateſt in Spain; likewiſe many palaces, ſquares, convents, churches, colleges, chapels, and hoſpitals. The biſhop of this city is ſuffragan to the archbiſhop of Compoſtella. A Roman way leads from hence to Merida and Seville; and there is an old Roman bridge of ſtone over the Tormes. Of the colleges in the univerſity, four are appropriated to young men of quality; and near it is an infirmary for poor ſick ſcholars. The ſtudents are dreſſed in black, and have their crowns ſhorn. The moſt beautiful part of this city is the great ſquare. The houſes are three ſtories, all of equal height, and exact ſymmetry, with iron balconies, and a ſtone baluſtrade on the top of them. The lower part is arched, which forms a piazza all round the ſquare of 293 feet on each ſide. Over ſome of the arches are medallions, with buſts of the kings of Spain, and of ſeveral eminent men, in ſtone baſſo-relievo; among which are thoſe of Ferdinand Cortez, Francis Pizarro, Davila, and Cid Ruy. In this ſquare the bull-fights are exhibited for three days only, in the month of June. The river Tormes runs by this city, and has a bridge over it.

Ciudad, or Cividad-Rodrigo, a city on the Aquada, had its name from Don Rodrigo Gonzales Giron, who rebuilt it about the year 1202. It is the ſee of a biſhop, ſuffragan to the archbiſhop of Compoſtella, has a fine Gothic cathedral, and contains many inns, which are better than any in Portugal, and ſuperior to moſt in Spain.

Zamoro, on the Douro, is ſituated in a fertile country, well fortified, has a noble bridge, is the ſee of a biſhop, and contains many churches, convents, and hoſpitals.

Aſtorga, on the Aſtura, has good fortifications, is the ſee of a biſhop, and gives title to a marquis.

Torto, on the Douro, is pleaſantly ſituated. There are a ſtately ſtone bridge here over the river, many convents, ſeveral chapels, churches, and hoſpitals. Here the famous *leges tauricæ* were confirmed, in a diet held by Ferdinand and Iſabella.

Parencia, pleaſantly ſituated on the river Carrion, was deſtroyed by the Romans; but rebuilt by Sancho the Great. Here are many convents, churches, and chapels, and the ſee of a biſhop, ſuffragan to the archbiſhop of Compoſtella.

Medina del Rio Secco, or the city of the Dry River, ſo called to diſtinguiſh it from Medina del Campo, in the ſame province, is a flouriſhing town, ſituated in a ſpacious fruitful plain, and contains a ſtrong caſtle, with ſeveral churches, chapels, and hoſpitals; and is a duchy belonging to the admiral of Caſtile.

Medina del Campo contains many convents and churches, with ſeveral hoſpitals, carries on a good trade, and has peculiar privileges.

ESTREMADURA has Portugal to the weſt, New Caſtile to the eaſt, Andaluſia to the ſouth, and Leon to the north. It is 130 miles long, 110 broad, well watered, and the ſoil ſo remarkably luxuriant, that it is juſtly deemed one of the moſt fruitful places in Europe. It contains the following places:

Merida, which was built originally by Cæſar Auguſtus, and is ſituated on the Anas, over which it has a bridge, is ſmall, but well fortified, and ſtill retains ſome fragments of its ancient ſplendor.

Badajoz is the largeſt city in the province, and well fortified. Here are a fine old Roman bridge of ſtone, ſome handſome ſtreets, churches, monaſteries, and two modern caſtles, with the ſee of a biſhop, ſuffragan to the archbiſhop of Compoſtella.

Plazencia, a beautiful well built city, and biſhop's ſee, on the banks of the little river Exerte, takes its name from the delightfulneſs of its ſituation, in the midſt

midſt of that moſt delicious ſpot called La Vera de Plazencia, or the Orchard of Plazencia, which is diverſified with beautiful ſeats, villages, gardens, and groves of the fineſt citron, lemon, orange, and fig-trees. Here the emperor Charles V. having reſigned all his dominions, retired into the famous monaſtery of St. Juſtus, where, after living two years a recluſe, he ended his days.

The city is well built, handſome, defended by ſtrong walls, and has a caſtle.

Alcantara is a ſtrong town, ſituated on the Tagus, over which it hath a magnificent bridge, built in the days of the emperor Trajan, and belonging to the knights who take their name from it.

Truxillo is defended by a ſtrong citadel, and celebrated for being the native place of Francis Pizarro, the famous conqueror of Peru.

OLD-CASTILE, formerly a kingdom, was ſo called, becauſe it was recovered from the Moors ſooner than New-Caſtile, which bounds it on the ſouth, as Aſturia and Biſcay do to the north, Leon to the weſt, and Navarre and Arragon to the eaſt. It is 120 miles long, about 100 broad in its greateſt extent, has ſome mountains, but, in general, is very fertile. It is well watered, and contains,

Burgos, the capital of the province, which has ſome handſome ſquares, public buildings, and palaces. The cathedral here is one of the nobleſt and richeſt in Spain. There are many elegant fountains to ſupply the city with water, the inhabitants of which are ſaid to be more induſtrious, and to carry on a greater number of trades and manufactures, than is common in other great cities of Spain. The walls are ancient but ſtrong. Among the hoſpitals is one for pilgrims. On the north ſide, on an almoſt inacceſſible rock, ſtands the citadel. The city, which was built in the ninth or tenth century, on the ruins of Auca, claims the precedence of all others in the cortes or parliament of Caſtile.

Valadolid is a large, populous, walled city, pleaſantly ſituated on the banks of the river Piſuerga. Here are a great number of convents, hoſpitals, ſquares, colleges, and churches, with an univerſity, the next in dignity to that of Salamanca, and the ſee of a biſhop, ſuffragan to the archbiſhop of Toledo. Here are alſo a fine royal palace, an academy, a court of inquiſition, a high court of juſtice, ſeveral manufactories, and a conſiderable trade.

Monaſterio de las Rodillas is famous for its admirable Caſtilian cheeſe.

Avila is a conſiderable city, having an univerſity, and being the ſee of a biſhop, ſuffragan to the archbiſhop of St. Jago. It is particularly famous for having given birth to St. Thereſa.

Calahorra, or Calaguris, on the Ebro, is the ſee of a biſhop. This place is famous in hiſtory for the ſiege it formerly ſuſtained againſt one of Pompey's generals, till the brave citizens were forced to eat each other; whence the proverbial expreſſions, Famines Calagurina or the Famine of Calaguris.

Segovia is a very ancient, large, opulent, populous, and handſome city, on the river Atyada. Its wealth ariſes not only from the great number of noble families who make it their chief reſidence, but much more from its large commerce and manufactures, eſpecially thoſe of cloth and paper. A great deal of wool is alſo exported from hence. Here is the principal mint of Spain, a royal palace, with an univerſity and a biſhopric. The Roman aqueduct here is a moſt amazing fabric. It was built by the emperor Trajan, and conſiſts of two rows of loſty arches, carried from one mountain to another, and conveys water all over the city. Notwithſtanding it has ſtood ſo many centuries, it ſtill retains its ſtrength and beauty: ſo great were the art and ſkill of the Romans in building, beyond what the following ages could boaſt of. The royal palace is mounted with cannon, and has a garriſon.

NEW-CASTILE, which was formerly a kingdom, has Old-Caſtile on the north, from which it is parted by ridges of mountains; Eſtramadura on the weſt; Andaluſia on the ſouth; and Valencia and Arragon on the eaſt. It is 200 miles long, and, in the wideſt place, 190 broad, well watered, fertile, and has a good air. The inhabitants ſpeak the pureſt Spaniſh; and the province contains the following places:

Madrid, the capital of the whole monarchy of Spain, and the reſidence of the court, ſtands in the center of a large plain, ſurrounded with mountains, and in the very heart of Spain, on the banks of the little river Manzanares, which is always very low and ſhallow, except when it is ſwelled by the melting of the ſnow on the mountains. The ſtreets here are wide, ſtrait, and handſome, and adorned with ſeveral fine fountains; the houſes lofty, but built of brick, with lattice windows, excepting thoſe of the rich, who have glaſs in their windows; only during the ſummer heats they uſe gauze, or ſome ſuch thin ſtuff, inſtead of it, to let in the freſh air. There are two ſtately bridges here over the Manzanares, ſeveral beautiful ſquares, many magnificent churches, convents, palaces, and hoſpitals. Among the laſt is one for all nations and diſtempers, with a large revenue. Around the placa-mayor, or grand ſquare, are piazzas, with houſes all uniform, and a continued line of balconies, for viewing the bull-fights, and other public ſhews exhibited in it. The royal palace which ſtands on the weſt ſide of the town, on an eminence, is ſpacious and magnificent, conſiſting of three courts, and commanding a fine proſpect. The compaſs of the whole town is computed at about nine miles, and the number of its inhabitants at about 150,000. It is well ſupplied with proviſions of all kinds at reaſonable rates; and the court, with the reſort and reſidence of the quality, and the high colleges and offices that are kept here, occaſion a briſk trade and circulation of money. There are three royal academies here; one for the improvement of the Spaniſh language, another for hiſtory, and another for medicine.

We have been favoured with the following remark by a correſpondent who made the tour of Spain within theſe two years.

Madrid is built upon a ſandy ſoil. The duſt flies in ſuch clouds, that, unleſs ſome friendly ſhowers fall, travellers, on their arrival, are almoſt ſmothered with duſt, and can hardly ſee to diſtinguiſh their horſes. Through a long ſpacious ſtreet, parrots and monkies are to be ſeen at almoſt every window. The ringing of bells, the immenſe variety of ſteeples and ſpires, houſes ſeven or eight ſtories high, and the beautiful gate called Alcala, give an air of dignity and conſequence to the entrance into Madrid.

The environs of the capital are very pleaſant, and contain ſeveral royal ſeats, among which are the following:

Ever ſince the kings of Spain have deſerted Buen-Retiro, the houſes have been falling to decay, the ſprings dried up, the fountains choaked with rubbiſh, and nothing grows in the gardens. The grottos, clumps, and arbours, are all deſtroyed. One ſtatue is remaining, which is that of Philip II. admirably executed; though it ſerves only to perpetuate the memory of a deteſtable tyrant.

The palace of Florida is enlivened by the paintings of ſome eminent maſters. The edifice is rather heavy and confined. The gardens are laid out in the form of an amphitheatre, and encircled by the ſprings of the river Manzanares, and the hills that riſe in cluſters over the grounds, round Madrid. Florida is remarkable for its caſcades, formed by the ſprings and melted ſnows that flow from mountains. The air here is cold and piercing. Fruits do not ripen; roſes are without odour; the trees are ſtunted; pinks and carnations ſcarcely blow, or come to any colour, even ſo late as the cloſe of Auguſt. The lands round this palace are uncultivated, yet they are in full heart, and, to become

fertile, want only the ploughſhare, guided by the hand of induſtry.

Though the king is fond of hunting, he ſeldom lies at Pardo. Theſe apartments, that were receſſes of gallantry to former princes, are now converted into a chapel.

The park and gardens of the Eſcurial are of immenſe extent. The pantheon is a ſubterraneous chapel, where the kings, queens, and royal offſpring of Spain, are interred. By the light of a lamp, that burns continually, and blackens every thing, may be ſeen the tombs and baſſo-relievos. No perſon of ordinary rank is allowed to moulder in this vault; it is the ſepulchre of royalty. This celebrated place coſt Philip II. upwards of two millions and an half alone.

The village, whence the Eſcurial takes its name, is called *Eſcorial*, a word derived from *Eſcoria*, ſignifying "Droſs of metal," becauſe formerly iron mines were wrought at this place. In the church are ſeveral admirable paintings. The water of the Eſcurial is eſteemed excellent. It has neither taſte or ſmell, is ſoft and limpid, quickly hot and cold again. The meat and vegetables boiled in it are ſoon ſoftened; and the linen waſhed in it acquires a better colour.

In the Caſa de Campo is an equeſtrian ſtatue of Philip IV. much admired. A glorious tree is preſerved here. Never was one more beautiful, or that formed a richer or more extenſive ſhade. It is aſcended by a ſtaircaſe and much reſorted to by the youth of both ſexes on holidays.

The palace of Sarſuela might be rendered an enchanting ſpot; but the park, gardens, and buildings are ſuffered to run to decay. The cauſe aſſigned is, the place is ſuppoſed to be haunted.

La Grange, otherwiſe called St. Idelphonſus, coſt Philip IV. immenſe ſums in building and beautifying; but is now falling to decay. Excellent knives and razors may be had here. Fine looking-glaſſes are made alſo in this place. The manufacture was eſtabliſhed by an Iriſhman, who invented a machine to poliſh 48 plates together. He was impriſoned ſome years, inſtead of being rewarded for his ingenuity.

The climate of Madrid is one of the fineſt in the world. In almoſt every month of the year the people may eat ſtrawberries, ſit under verdant ſhades, and gather roſes. Sometimes, indeed, there are ſharp north winds, that chill the air, ſtrip the trees of their foliage, ſcatter the flowers, and blow down the fruits: but, in return, theſe winds break and diſperſe the clouds, clear up the horizon, brighten the day, and redouble the ſplendor of the ſun. Nothing ſurpaſſes the beauty of the night at Madrid. The ſweeteſt flowers diffuſe their fragrance. The whole atmoſphere is perfumed. In all the ſquares under every balcony, are ſinging, and playing on the guittar or flute.

The beauties of proſpect, and delicious fruits, conſtitute the whole merit of Aranjuez. Here is a fine ſtatue of Venus. The attitude, animated looks, and beautiful form, bear the ſtrongeſt reſemblance to life.

Toledo, on the Tagus, 36 miles ſouth of Madrid, is an ancient, large, well fortified city. The alcazor, or royal palace, built by Charles V. is ſituated on a ſteep hill near 500 feet above the Tagus, and commands a very fine proſpect over the city and all round the country. A manufactory of ſword-blades is carried on here on the king's account only, in which all the ſword, hanger, and dagger blades for the army are made. Toledo is ſituated in a ſerene air. The churches, convents, and hoſpitals are numerous. The bridges are three; and here are a court of inquiſition, and an univerſity. Toledo is one of the richeſt biſhoprics in Spain.

Alcala de Henares is a town on the river Henares, belonging to the archbiſhop of Toledo, and containing an univerſity, in the church of which cardinal Ximenes lies interred. Here the firſt Polyglot Bible was begun, compleated, and printed under the patronage and direction, as well as at the charge, of the prelate abovementioned.

Guadalaxara, a town on the Henares, has a manufacture of cloth.

Talavera la Reyna, a handſome town on the Tagus, uſed to be a part of the dowry of the queens of Spain, whence it acquired the epithet of La Reyna. There is a manufacture of earthen-ware at this place.

VALENTIA, which was anciently conſidered as a kingdom, has, to the ſouth and eaſt, the Mediterranean Sea; Arragon and Catalonia to the north; and Murcia and New Caſtile to the weſt. It is 200 miles long, 80 broad, well watered, has a temperate ſerene air, a ſoil remarkably fruitful, and contains the following places:

Valentia, 180 miles ſouth eaſt from Madrid, is ſituated on, and has 5 bridges over, the river Guadalquiver. It is a large, populous, trading city, and has a port within two miles of it. It is the ſee of an archbiſhop, and contains a tribunal or inquiſition, a ſovereign court of judicature, an univerſity, and a woollen manufactory. Almoſt every houſe has a deep well; and here is a grand common ſewer, by which the filth of every houſe is carried off under ground.

Segorve, or Segorbe, an ancient and pleaſantly ſituated city, on the banks of the Morviedro, gives the title of duke, and is the ſee of a biſhop, ſuffragan to the archbiſhop of Valentia.

Alicant, a famous city and ſea-port on the Mediterranean, has a commodious harbour, from whence a great quantity of delicious fruits, with excellent red and white wine, ſoap, and aniſe, is exported. It has alſo, for its defence, ſtrong walls, baſtions, and a caſtle.

Denia has a convenient harbour, with a caſtle and watch-tower. It is alſo well fortified.

La Mata contains a conſiderable ſalt-work.

Morviedro is a ſmall town, ſituated on the ſame ſpot where the ancient Saguntum ſtood. The remains of a Roman amphitheatre are ſtill to be ſeen here.

ANDALUSIA comprizes the three ancient diſtricts of Seville, Cordova, and Jaen. It is bounded by Eſtremadura and New Caſtile on the north; by the Mediterranean Sea, and Straits of Gibraltar, on the ſouth; by Portugal on the weſt; and by Granada and Murcia on the eaſt. It is 240 miles long, 130 broad, well watered, populous, opulent, and fertile; but the heat in ſummer is exceſſive. That part called the kingdom of Seville contains the following places:

Seville, the capital, ſituated on the river Guadalquiver, 200 miles ſouth-weſt from Madrid, was anciently the capital of Bœtia; and from Julius Cæſar, who beautified and enlarged it, was called Julia Romula; but ſubſequent to this, it was the reſidence of ſeveral Gothic and Mooriſh kings. There is a bridge of boats here over the river Guadalquiver, which is navigable for large veſſels 40 miles from its mouth. The compaſs of the city walls is eight miles, and the number of its inhabitants is computed at about 120,000. It contains a great number of convents, churches, ſquares, hoſpitals, a mint, an exchange, a cuſtom-houſe, an univerſity, and a cathedral, the largeſt and fineſt in Spain. The archbiſhop has a very large income. Here are many ſecular and eccleſiaſtical courts, particularly a court of inquiſition. This city carries on a great trade, and has various manufactories. Along the river are a great many commodious quays; near which is alſo a ſtately tower, called the Golden Tower, which entirely commands the river, city, and ſuburbs. The court for the regulation of ever thing relating to the Weſt-India trade and company is held here. The adjacent country is very fruitful and pleaſant, and particularly noted for fine oranges. The greateſt inconvenience to which the city is expoſed is the overflowing of the river, which ſometimes makes dreadful havock. There is a Mooriſh aqueduct in the neighbourhood worth ſeeing.

Cadiz, one of the moſt ancient and celebrated cities in Spain, ſtands on an iſland, which is ſeparated from the continent by a narrow canal or arm of the ſea, over which there is a bridge, well fortified, on the Atlantic Ocean, being about 300 miles to the ſouth-weſt of Madrid

Madrid, 80 from Seville to the ſouth-weſt, and 58 from Gibraltar. The iſland is about 16 or 17 miles long and about 6 in breadth, producing little grain, but ſome good wine and paſture. The city is fortified after the modern manner, and its ſpacious harbour and bay are defended by ſeveral forts. The number of inhabitants is computed at 40,000. It is the ſee of a biſhop, ſuffragan to the archbiſhop of Seville. Many of the houſes are ſtately; and a few of the ſtreets broad, ſtrait, and well paved. Proviſions and houſe-rent are rather dear. A great deal of ſalt is made in, and fiſh caught about, the iſland. This city is the center of the Spaniſh American commerce; all the goods from Holland, England, Italy, France, and Spain, being ſhipped off from hence in Spaniſh bottoms, and under the name of Spaniſh factors. What are called the Pillars of Hercules are only two inconſiderable round towers. Here are a Spaniſh theatre, which is but mean; a French theatre, which is more elegant; and a decent opera-houſe. When the dramatic diverſions conclude, which is uſually about half paſt eleven, it is cuſtomary to walk in the Alameda, or Mall, till midnight. The royal obſervatory is well ſupplied with philoſophical and mathematical inſtruments. Cadiz is difficult to approach on account of rocks and ſands. In its vicinity is a ſmall iſland, now called St. Pedro, but anciently Herculeum, from the famous temple of Hercules which it contained.

The celebrated town and fortreſs of Gibraltar was taken from the Spaniards by a combined fleet of Engliſh and Dutch ſhips, under Sir George Rooke, in 1704; and, after many fruitleſs attempts to recover it, confirmed to the Engliſh by the treaty of Utrecht, in 1713. Repeated attempts have been made to take it from England, but without ſucceſs. The laſt war eſtabliſhed its fame, when it ſuſtained a long ſiege againſt the united forces of Spain and France, by land and ſea, and was gallantly defended by its garriſon, under the command of general Elliot, to the great loſs and diſgrace of the aſſailants.

It is a commodious port, and naturally formed for commanding the paſſage of the ſtraits; or, in other words, the entrance into the Mediterranean and Levant ſeas. But the road is neither ſafe againſt an enemy or ſtorms. Gibraltar Bay is about 20 leagues in circumference. The ſtraits are 24 miles long and 15 broad, through which a current runs from the Atlantic Ocean into the Mediterranean. The town was never large or beautiful, and, in the laſt ſiege, was nearly deſtroyed by the enemies bombs; but, on account of its fortifications, is eſteemed the key of Spain, and therefore always furniſhed with a garriſon, well provided for its defence. The harbour is formed by a mole, which is planted with guns. Gibraltar can only be approached by a very narrow paſſage, between the mountain and the ſea, acroſs which the Spaniards have drawn a line, and fortified it, to prevent the garriſon from having any communication with the country. As they are thus cooped up they have no proviſions but what are brought from England and Barbary. Formerly this place was under military government; but, on account of divers abuſes, has ſince been erected into a body corporate, and the civil power is now lodged in the magiſtrates.

Thoſe who have courage enough to climb to the top of the rock, will find a plain from whence they may have a proſpect of the ſea on each ſide the ſtrait, and the kingdoms of Barbary, Fez and Morocco; beſides Seville and Granada in Spain.

Alcantara, between Seville and St. Lucar, has a fine Roman bridge over the moraſſes, which is a great antique curioſity.

San Lucar de Barameda is a handſome town and harbour at the mouth of the river Guadalquiver, 45 miles below Seville. It has been upon the decline ſince the Spaniſh Weſt-India fleets were allowed to ſet out from and return to Cadiz. Its principal trade is in ſalt.

Port St. Mary's, at the mouth of the river Guadelete, is walled round, has a ſmall caſtle, a good harbour, and makes and exports great quantities of ſalt.

Palos is a little town, with a tolerable harbour, at the mouth of the Trino, from whence Chriſtopher Columbus, in the year 1492, ſet out on the diſcovery of America.

Xeres de la Frontera is a large town on the little river Guadaletta; near which was fought, in the year 714, the famous battle between the Goths and Moors, that occaſioned the loſs of Spain to the former.

The ſecond diſtrict, anciently called the kingdom of Cordova, contains only the following place of note: Cordova, anciently an opulent Roman colony, ſituated on the river Guadalquiver, is celebrated for being the birth-place of the poet Lucan, the two famed Senecas, Averroes, and the learned phyſician Heſius. The city has a conſiderable trade, particularly in ſilk, wool, and gilt leather. The ſtone walls are ſtrong and lofty, the ſuburbs extenſive, and the environs fruitful and pleaſant. Cordova is the greateſt market for horſes in all Spain.

In the diſtrict of Jaen, the only places worth mentioning are

Jaen, the capital, ſuppoſed to be the Giennium, or Gienna, of the Romans, and ſtands in a rich ſoil, and wholeſome air. It is the ſee of a biſhop, ſuffragan to Toledo; and contains many convents, churches, and hoſpitals, ſome of which are very fine, and is defended by a caſtle. St. Veronica is the great object of devotion here.

Ubeda, the Ubea, or Vetala, of the Romans, has a caſtle and walls, ſtands in a fruitful country, and enjoys ſome particular privileges.

Baeza, anciently Vatia, Beathia, and Beatia; a conſiderable city, three miles from the river Guadalquiver, is noted for dying the fineſt ſcarlet, making the richeſt taffatas, and has an univerſity, founded in 1533.

MURCIA, which was anciently a kingdom, has New Caſtile on the north, Andaluſia on the weſt, Valentia on the north-eaſt, Granada on the ſouth-weſt, and the Mediterranean on the ſouth. It is 100 miles long, 90 broad where wideſt, well watered, tolerably fertile, and contains the following places:

Murcia, from which the province takes its name, is ſituated in a ſpacious and delightful plain, on the river Segura. This city is large and populous, having many convents, churches, ſquares, and gates, with a good wall, a court of inquiſition, a ſtately palace, and a caſtle. The adjacent country abounds in mulberry-trees, olives, ſugar-canes, and fine fruits. The city hath often ſuffered by the inundations of the Segura.

Carthagena, a noted ſea-port on the Mediterranean, was built by Aſdrubal, the Carthaginian general, and called Carthago-Nova, or New-Carthage. The air here is temperate in ſummer, and remarkably mild in winter. Under the Romans and Carthaginians this was one of the moſt flouriſhing cities in all Spain; for from hence they ſhipped off thoſe vaſt quantities of gold and ſilver which they dug in the Pyrenees and other mountains. Both city and harbour are well fortified. The bay on which it ſtands abounds in fiſh, eſpecially mackarel; and the neighbouring country affords diamonds, rubies, amathyſts, garnets, agates, and mines of allum. The city is pretty large, and its harbour one of the beſt in Spain. The biſhop is ſuffragan to the archbiſhop of Toledo.

Almacaron, a little ſea-port at the mouth of the river Guadalantin, is celebrated for the mines of allum in its neighbourhood.

GRANADA, which is ſometimes called Upper Andaluſia, is bounded on the ſouth and eaſt by the Mediterranean; on the weſt and north by Lower Andaluſia; and on the north-eaſt by Murcia. Its extent, from weſt to eaſt, is 210 miles; but its greateſt breadth exceeds not 80. The air here is temperate and healthy; and

and though there are many mountains in the province, and ſome of them very high, yet they are almoſt every where covered with vines and fruit trees, together with laurel, myrtle, ſweet-baſil, thyme, lavender, marjoram, and other aromatic herbs, which give an exquiſite taſte to the fleſh of their ſheep and cattle. The vallies are extremely beautiful, and the whole is well watered. This was the laſt of the Spaniſh kingdoms poſſeſſed by the Moors, not being reduced till the year 1492. The principal places are the following:

Granada, the capital, ſtands in the midſt of a fruitful country, has a fine air, and is capacious and populous, being one of the largeſt cities in Spain. It is of a circular form; and the ſnowy tops of the Sierra Nevada Mountains, which are ſeen at the diſtance of three leagues, greatly diverſify and add beauty to the verdure of the circumjacent ſcene. Granada is divided into four quarters, and has twelve gates. It is an archbiſhopric, an univerſity, and a royal chancery. It contains 24 pariſh churches, 29 convents, 11 hoſpitals, and four colleges. The marbles, which are dug out of the quarries in this province, are the moſt beautiful in Spain. There is one ſtreet in Granada conſiſting entirely of ſhops, wherein marble, ſnuff, tobacco-boxes, ſlabs, globes, ſtones for ear-rings, bracelets, necklaces, and other toys, are expoſed to ſale. The royal palace of the Alhambra is one of the moſt magnificent edifices which the Moors erected in Spain. It is ſituated on a hill, which is aſcended by a road, bordered with edges of double or imperial myrtles, and rows of elms. In Granada are likewiſe a theatre, a circular amphitheatre for bull fights, a court of inquiſition, and a royal tribunal. The ſilk manufactory is conſiderable, and the arſenal the beſt furniſhed of any in Spain. Without the city is a large plain, called La Vega de Granada, which is full of hamlets, villages, &c.

Malaga is an ancient, large, well fortified, and populous city, with a fine harbour, on the Mediterranean, encompaſſed with a double wall, and defended by two caſtles. The exportation of wines, raiſins, almonds, figs, lemons, oranges, and other fruits, from hence, beſides wool and oil, produces immenſe duties to the king.

Almeria, a ſmall city on the Mediterranean, with a ſafe and commodious harbour, is the ſee of a biſhop, ſuffragan to Granada.

Antiquera is a handſome town, with a caſtle, 70 miles ſouth-weſt from Granada. Near it is a famed ſalt-pit, which ſupplies the whole territory with that commodity.

SECTION III.

Population, Perſons, Dreſs, Houſes, Manner of Living, Dances, Theatrical Exhibitions, Bull-fights, Language, Learning, Religion, &c. of the Spaniards.

SPAIN, at preſent, is but thinly inhabited. This is owing partly to the great drains of people ſent to America, and partly to the indolence of the natives, who are at little or no pains to raiſe food for their families. Another cauſe aſſigned is the vaſt number of eccleſiaſtics of both ſexes, who lead a life of celibacy.

The Spaniards are generally tall and well made, more particularly the Caſtilians. They have uſually black hair, and very ſwarthy complexions; but their countenances are animated and expreſſive. The beauty of the Spaniſh ladies reigns moſtly in their novels and romances: for though it muſt be acknowledged that Spain produces as fine women as any country in the world, yet beauty is far from forming their general character. In their perſons they are commonly ſmall and ſlender; but they employ much art in ſupplying the defects of nature.

The habits of the Spaniſh gentry of both ſexes are entirely in the French faſhion. When women have occaſion to walk the ſtreets in Spain, they are covered with a black ſilk veil, and then are ſtiled *Topados*, that is, *ſhut up*. The ſhort cloak, formerly worn by the Spaniards, is now diſuſed; as are ruffs, ſpectacles, long ſwords, muſtachios, &c. The only mark of their former gravity conſiſts in the deep brown colour of the habits of the people in general. The Spaniards, before the acceſſion of the houſe of Bourbon to their throne, affected that antiquated dreſs in hatred or contempt of the French; and the government will probably find ſome difficulty in aboliſhing it, as the ſpirit of ſingularity is far from being extinguiſhed. An old Caſtilian thinks himſelf the moſt important being in nature, and the ſame pride is commonly communicated to his deſcendants. This is the true reaſon why ſo many of them are fond of removing to America, where they can retain all their native importance, without the danger of ſeeing a ſuperior. Ridiculous as this pride may appear, it inſpires the poſſeſſors with generous ſentiments; it being ſeldom found that a Spaniſh nobleman, gentleman, or even trader, is guilty of a mean action.

The houſes of the Spaniſh nobility are immenſely large, and the apartments extremely ſpacious. The ſtair-caſe and hall, eſpecially the latter, are the fineſt part of the houſe. The *ſalle*, or parlour, is furniſhed with images, looking-glaſſes, framed chairs, and others very low. The reſt of the houſe is indifferently furniſhed. The number of ſervants kept by the grandees is immoderate, ſome of them having two or three hundred domeſtics.

The Spaniards are remarkably temperate in their manner of living. Their breakfaſt is uſually chocolate, tea being very ſeldom drank. Their dinner is uſually a pochero; or beef, mutton, veal, pork, and greens, all boiled together. They live much upon garlic, ſallad, radiſhes, &c. and are alſo fond of muſhrooms, honey, ſnails, and fried eggs. The men drink but little wine; and the women moſtly uſe water.

From time immemorial the Sieſta, or afternoon's nap, has been cuſtomary in Spain. From one to about three in the afternoon, all the ſtreets of Madrid are as ſolitary as a deſert. The tradeſmen ſhut their ſhops, the mechanics quit their work, and every body lies down to ſleep.

Dancing is a favourite diverſion with the Spaniards. The grand dance is the Fandango, of which there are two kinds, though they are danced to the ſame tune. The one is the decent dance; the other is gallant and full of animating expreſſions.

The Fandango is deſcribed by an eminent writer as a kind of very lively dance, which the Spaniards have learned from the Indians: but the foundation for this aſſertion is much doubted.

The theatrical repreſentations of Spain are very trivial. Except ſome pieces of Lopez, with a few tragedies of Racine, they have nothing but farces exhibited. The play uſually laſts three hours, in the courſe of which many ludicrous pranks are exhibited; and ſcenes introduced repugnant to common ſenſe, as well as common decency. The actreſſes are, in general, handſome; but, as well as the actors, diſtort their countenances, and ſhew moſt horrid aſpects, eſpecially when they laugh or weep. There are ſeats in the pit, where people converſe as they do in the ſtreets. Prieſts, friars, and nuns, go to plays; and ſometimes may be ſeen in the ſame box, cockades, cowles, a veil, nuns ruffs, plumes of feathers, round hats, thoſe worn under the arm, and others dreſſed with flowers. There is no preſervation of manners, no characteriſtic dreſs whatever. The players often appear on the ſtage as they do at home. The actreſſes are very fine. Men, in common, play the womens parts; and the company is often obliged to wait an hour before the curtain is drawn up, becauſe the heroine, duenna, queen, or chambermaid, has not yet done ſhaving.

The Spaniſh tragedies are barbarous, and the cataſtrophe generally ſhocking; actors and actreſſes all die, and die before the ſpectators. The pit and boxes are inexorable,

inexorable, and nothing can be heard for their hiſſing. The guards in vain threaten and ſtorm: ſometimes they are tired with bawling, and join in their hiſſes. Neither youth or beauty can diſarm party.

How people can find any charms or magnificence in thoſe horrid combats called bull-fights muſt be the wonder and aſtoniſhment of all civilized nations. They are peculiar to this country, and make a capital figure in painting the genius and manners of the Spaniards. On theſe occaſions young cavaliers have an opportunity of ſhewing their courage and activity before their miſtreſſes; and the valour of the cavalier is proclaimed, honoured, and rewarded, according to the number and fierceneſs of the bulls he has killed in theſe encounters.

The bull-fighters raiſe horror, and the bulls excite pity. A man muſt be as unfeeling as a ſtone not to be ſoftened into tears at the ſight of a number of barbarians, killing, without any emotion or concern, a poor animal, gagged and muffled in ſuch a manner as to deprive him of the means of defending himſelf, or even ſeeing his murderers.

The atrocity of this conteſt is further aggravated by the tranſports and acclamations of an immenſe body of people; by the clapping of, perhaps, twenty thouſand pair of hands, and the beating of as many pair of heels, at the very moment when the bull, mortally wounded, nearly ſuffocated with rage, is tottering, falling, bellowing out his laſt groans; ſtretching, ſtruggling, and making efforts to riſe; ſinking again, frothing at the mouth with anguiſh, bleeding and gaſping upon the ground, where ſavage bull-ſlayers are contending for the honour of giving him the laſt pang.

To heighten the ſcene of barbarity, the tender ſex, who tremble at the fall of a leaf, fix their eyes on a poor animal in torture, bleeding, panting, and expiring at their feet; ſeem to count his wounds, his groans, and drops of blood, and to regret, when he dies, that his ſtruggles and ſufferings are over.

All the bulls uſed at theſe ſhows are brought from the mountains and woods of Andaluſia.

Such are the fights ſo much talked of; fights that ſeveral popes and ſovereigns have ſo often attempted, in vain, to aboliſh; but the populace, on every occaſion, aſſembled tumultuouſly, threatening deſtruction; and, in order to appeaſe them, it has often been found neceſſary to ſacrifice a great number of bulls. This barbarous diverſion is, by moſt writers, ſuppoſed to be of Mooriſh original, and to have been adopted by the Spaniards when upon good terms with that nation, partly through complaiſance, and partly through rivalſhip.

The ground-work of the Spaniſh language, like that of the Italian, is Latin. The Spaniſh, indeed, might be called a baſtard Latin, were it not for the terminations and exotic words introduced into it by the Moors and Goths. It is, at preſent, a majeſtic and expreſſive language; and what is remarkable, foreigners who underſtand it the leaſt, prize it the moſt. Of all the Spaniſh dialects, that of Caſtile is the moſt figurative and emphatic.

Though many of the Spaniards are men of genius, and they have a number of univerſities and academies amongſt them, they are ſo reſtricted in their diſquiſitions, that little progreſs can be expected from them in the ſeveral branches of literature. They have cultivated hiſtory with the greateſt ſucceſs. There is an academy for this branch eſtabliſhed at Madrid, and employed in inveſtigating the annals of Spain.

The moſt diſtinguiſhed dramatic poet of this nation was Lopez de Vega, who was cotemporary with our Shakeſpeare. The moſt celebrated writers of humour, in proſe, are Cervantes, author of that admirable piece of ſatire, called the Hiſtory of the Renowned Don Quixote de la Mancha; and Guevara, who produced the famous work, called *El Diablo Caxuelo*, which Le Sage modernized into a romance, known in Engliſh by the title of "The Devil upon two Sticks." The Viſions of Quevedo, and ſome other of his humorous and ſatirical pieces, having been tranſlated into the Engliſh language, have rendered that author well known in this country. Spain has likewiſe produced many travellers and voyagers equally amuſing and inſtructing. It appears, upon the whole, that if the Spaniards could diſengage themſelves from their abſtracted turn of thinking, and their tyrannical form of government, they would make a capital figure in the literary world.

The Spaniards embrace and practiſe the Romiſh religion in all its forms and ceremonies. In this they have been ſo ſteady, that their king is diſtinguiſhed by the epithet of Moſt Catholic. The horrors of that religion are, however, at preſent greatly leſſened in this country, by moderating the penalties of the inquiſition, and diſqualifying the eccleſiaſtics, and their officers, from carrying into execution any ſentence without the royal authority. It appears, upon the whole, that the fiery zeal, which formerly diſtinguiſhed the Spaniards from the reſt of the Roman Catholic world, is much abated; and that the power of the clergy has, of late years, been much reduced. A royal edict has alſo been iſſued, to prevent the admiſſion of noviciates into the different convents, without ſpecial permiſſion, which has a great tendency to reduce the monaſtic orders. The riches of the Spaniſh churches and convents are objects of admiration to all travellers, as well as natives: but it is a juſt remark, that there is a ſameneſs in them all, excepting that they differ in the degrees of treaſure and jewels they contain.

SECTION IV.

Commerce, Manufactures, (particularly Wool.) Coin, Government, Modes of Puniſhment, Ranks and Orders, Revenues, &c.

THOUGH Spain is well ſituated for trade and navigation, the natives, through their natural indolence, neglect this advantage, and leave it to the other maritime nations. Gold and ſilver are the chief branches both of their exports and imports. They import them from America, and export them to other countries of Europe. Cadiz is the chief emporium of this commerce.

The manufactures of Spain are chiefly ſilk, wool, copper, and hardware. Of all the wool uſed in manufactures, that of this country is certainly the beſt. It is finer, more ſilky, and unites better in fulling than any other wool in Europe. But all the wool of Spain is not equally fine. Several ſorts are diſtinguiſhed, which differ from each other as to quality, number of piles, and the names of thoſe to whom it belongs. The firſt pile are thoſe of Segovia. It is computed that there are ſold annually about 95,000 arobs of this wool. An arob weighs 20 pounds. Theſe piles are deſigned for the fineſt woollen ſtuffs, &c. and are uſed in manufacturing the beſt cloths. The next ſort are called Cavaliers. There are various other ſorts of piles of middling quality in Spain.

The kingdoms and provinces in which the fineſt ſorts of wool are to be found, are Arragon, the kingdom of Valencia, Upper and Lower Andaluſia, Caſtile, and Navarre. An old prejudice prevails, that it is the climate which occaſions the fineneſs and whiteneſs ſo much admired in Spaniſh wool; whereas the manner in which the Spaniards rear their flocks is the real cauſe of the perfection of their wool. Other nations have ſucceſsfully cultivated all arts and ſciences, except the ſhepherd's art; the Spaniards, on the contrary, have neglected all but this; and we ſtill find in Spain ſome traces of that paſtoral life, which, in the early ages of the world, procured honour and happineſs to thoſe who devoted themſelves to it.

Many efforts have been made by the Spaniſh government to prevent the other Europeans nations from reaping the chief advantage of the American com-

merce; but these can never be successful, till a spirit of industry is awakened among the natives, so as to enable them to supply their American possessions with their own commodities of merchandize.

Accounts, in Spain, are kept in reals and maravidies de plata, or silver, which are imaginary coins; 34 maravidies making a real, equal to five-pence halfpenny English. The gold coins are pistoles, or doubloons, value 17s. double, quadruple, half and quarter pistoles. The silver coins are reals de plata, or silver, worth somewhat above six-pence of our money; piasters, or pieces of eight, worth about 4s. 6d. half and quarter pieces of eight, but these are rare. They have also small brass money, called quartos and octavos, like our halfpence and farthings. The Spanish escudos, or crowns, and ducats, are imaginary coins, and both of the value of about 6s. of our money. There are also imaginary piasters and pistoles.

In Spain a most despotic government prevails; and the distress, so visible in most parts of the country, is, in a great measure, the result of that government, in the administration of which no proper attention is paid to the interests and welfare of the people. The monarchy is hereditary, and females are capable of succession. The kings of Spain are inaugurated without being crowned, by the delivery of a sword. Their signature never mentions their names but "I the King." The heir apparent is called prince of Asturias; and the other children, of both sexes, by way of distinction, infantas; that is, children.

For the administration of the government, and of justice, here are several councils and tribunals; as the junta, or cabinet-council, the privy-council, the council of Castile, the council of the inquisition, the council of the Indies, the seven courts of royal audiences, &c. Since the beginning of the 17th century, and the reign of Philip III. the cortes, or parliaments of this kingdom, have been discontinued.

Besides those above-mentioned, are many subordinate tribunals for the police, the finances, and other branches of business.

Every quarter of Madrid is subjected to the inspection of a commissary; a justice, who decides, without appeal, all the quarrels and disputes among the common people. Quarrels are unfrequent here. A Spaniard is, in general, not only sober, but peaceful even in inebriation. When he drinks to excess, he goes to sleep. The police has its spies; but these spies are always from the dregs of the people, as they are every where else. The safety of the highways is entrusted to miquelets, a sort of runners, whose business it is to seize robbers, carry them to prison, escort them to the gallows, and conduct the executioner back to his house. In Spain all executioners wear a particular uniform.

A great number of villains are suffered to live in Spain, that would be put to death elsewhere. If they are young, they are sent to work at Oran, a city of Africa, on the Coast of Barbary, or Porto Rico, one of the Antilles, in North America. If old, they are left to rot in prison.

If the atrocity of the crime should oblige the judges to pass sentence of death, the offender is hanged. Criminals sometimes have their brains knocked out; and this punishment, which shocks the imagination, and makes the hair stand on end, is the least painful kind of death. The executioner, armed with a club and a knife, strikes the criminal on the temple, lays him dead, bleeds, tramples upon him, quarters him, and hangs the different parts on hooks, and throws them into a fire prepared for the purpose. At the sight of this butchering work, which lasts a few seconds, all the spectators turn pale, and shudder with horror; the children shriek, the women swoon with terror; though the sufferings of the malefactor have been long over.

Procuresses are stripped, anointed with honey, whipped, branded, and feathered; and in this condition led by the executioner through different parts of the city.

Excepting the prison for the nobility, all the rest in Madrid are charnel-houses. No distinction is made between guilt and misfortune. The incorrigible villain, the noviciate in knavery, and the debtor, are frequently stretched upon the same wad of straw.

The carcan, or pillory, the brand, and the gallies, are the punishments for trivial crimes. Officers of all sorts, even king's officers, are sent to the gallies. Whilst they are employed in rowing or sailing, their time of slavery is going on. When they are discharged they resume their rank. Every thing depends on the terms of compact.

The Spanish courts of justice, so lenient with respect to some particular crimes, shew no mercy to those who rob a church. The king, indeed, through regard for the party, sometimes changes the punishment of death into perpetual imprisonment.

The general name for those Spanish nobility and gentry who are unmixed with the Moorish blood, is Hidalgo. They are divided into princes, dukes, marquises, counts, viscounts, and other inferior titles. Such as are created grandees may stand covered before the king, and are treated with princely distinctions. A grandee cannot be apprehended without the king's order; and cardinals, archbishops, ambassadors, knights of the golden fleece, and certain other great dignities, both in church and state, have the privileges, as well as the grandees, to appear covered before the king.

Of the orders of knighthood in Spain, that of the Golden Fleece is the principal, which was instituted in 1430, by Philip the Good, duke of Burgundy, and is common now to the kings of Spain and the house of Austria. The order of St. Jago de Compostella was instituted in the year 1175, by Ferdinand II. king of Leon. The order of Calatrava was founded by Sancho III. of Castile. The order of Alcantara owes its institution to Ferdinand II. king of Leon. The three last orders have large commanderies, or estates, annexed to them. The masters of them were once so powerful, that they disputed the king's authority over them; whereupon the king procured those masterships to be conferred on himself by the pope, that they might no longer assume the independency of the state. Besides these are the orders of Santiago, the order of Montesa, and the order of Charles III. which latter was instituted September 19, 1771, in honour of the birth of his majesty's grandson. None but persons of noble descent can belong to this order.

The revenues arising to the king, from Old Spain, are computed at 5,000,000l. His American income, it is true, is immense; but it is generally in a manner embezzled or anticipated before it arrives in Old Spain. The finances of his present Catholic Majesty are on a better footing, both for himself and people, than those of any of his predecessors. The taxes from whence the internal revenues arise are so various and arbitrary that they cannot be ascertained. They fall upon all kinds of goods, houses, lands, timber, and provisions. The clerical and military orders are likewise taxed.

The land forces of the king of Spain, in time of peace, generally amount to between 70 and 80,000. In time of war they are proportioned to the exigencies of the state. The king has great dependence on his Walloon or foreign guards. He has taken care to raise a powerful marine, and render his fleet very considerable. The coast of Spain is well secured and watched; so that the whole kingdom may be soon alarmed in case of an invasion.

We shall treat of the islands belonging to Spain in our general description of European islands. As the history of Spain is intimately connected with that of Portugal, we shall introduce them together, at the close of our account of the latter in the following chapter.

CHAP.

CHAP. XV.

PORTUGAL.

SECTION I.

Boundaries, Situation, Extent, Climate, Soil; Vegetable, Animal, and Mineral Productions; Rivers, Mountains, &c.

THIS kingdom, which is the moſt weſtern in Europe, is bounded by Spain on the north and eaſt, and by the Atlantic Ocean on the ſouth and weſt. It is ſituated between 37 and 42 degrees of north latitude, and 7 and 10 degrees of weſt longitude; being about 300 miles in length, and 100 in breadth.

Though Spain and Portugal are in the ſame climate, yet the air of the latter is much more temperate than that of the former, on account of the proximity of the ſea. Liſbon hath been much reſorted to by valetudinarians, and conſumptive perſons, on account of its air. The ſoil is very fruitful in wine, oil, lemons, oranges, pomegranates, figs, raiſins, almonds, cheſnuts, and other fine fruits; but there is a want of corn, owing, in a great meaſure, to the neglect of agriculture. There is plenty of excellent honey here, and alſo of ſea and river fiſh, and ſea-ſalt. The horſes in Portugal are briſk, lively animals, as they are in Spain, but of a ſlight make; but mules, being ſurer-footed, are more uſed for carriage and draught. By reaſon of the ſcarcity of paſture, there are not many herds of cattle or flocks of ſheep; and what they have are ſmall and lean, though the fleſh is tolerably good. Their beſt meat is that of hogs and kids. The country in many parts is mountainous; and the mountains contain all kinds of ores, particularly of ſilver, copper, tin, and iron, with a variety of gems, beautifully variegated marble, mill-ſtones, and many curious foſſils of the lapidious kind. The principal rivers are the Minho, in Latin Minius; the Lima, anciently the famed Lethe; the Cavado; the Douro; the Guadiana, anciently Anas; and the Tago, or Tagus, which is the largeſt river in the kingdom, carrying ſome gold in its ſands, and falling into the ſea a little below Liſbon. There are ſeveral mineral ſprings in the kingdom, both hot and cold, which are much frequented. The mountains of Sierras de Eſtrella are always covered with ſnow.

SECTION II.

Grand Diviſions of Portugal, with a particular Deſcription of each Diviſion.

THE province of ENTRE-DOURO-E-MINHO derives its name from its ſituation, which is between the rivers Douro and Minho; having Galicia on the north, Beira on the ſouth, the Ocean on the weſt, and a ridge of mountains on the eaſt. It is 70 miles long, 50 broad where wideſt, remarkable for its fertility, and contains the following places:

Braga, between the rivers Cavaco and Deſte, is the ſee of an archbiſhop, who is primate of Portugal, and ſpiritual and temporal lord of the city and neighbouring country. Here are a ſtately ancient cathedral and archiepiſcopal palace, many convents, ſeveral pariſh churches, an hoſpital, a large college, and a houſe of mercy, which is a charitable foundation for the relief of perſons of good families fallen to decay, and for marrying of young maidens, and putting boys to employments.

Potto, or Oporto, on the river Douro, has a commodious harbour, much frequented by the Engliſh: but the bar at the entrance into it is ſomewhat dangerous. Next to Liſbon, it is a city of the greateſt opulence, beauty, and trade, in the kingdom. At the mouth of the river is a caſtle to guard it, called St. John's. Here are ſeveral hoſpitals and pariſh churches, beſides the cathedral, many convents, a mint, ſeveral courts of juſtice, and the ſee of a biſhop. Here is an Engliſh factory, concerned in the wine trade, which is very conſiderable, inſomuch that all red wines, that come from Spain or Portugal, are called port wines. The church Dos Clerigos, which is ſituated on the higheſt part of the city, ſerves as a land-mark to ſailors.

Guimaranes, a ſmall but ancient town, is encompaſſed with a good wall, contains ſeveral convents, hoſpitals, and courts of juſtice. It has manufactures of linen and fine thread, and is defended by an old caſtle.

Caminha is a fortified town at the mouth of the Minho; Valenca is a ſtrong town on the ſame river; Villa de Conde is a ſea-port at the mouth of the Ave, with a ſtrong caſtle; and Barcellos, on the Cavado, is fortified with a wall and towers.

Villa Nova de Carveira, on the Minho, is well fortified, and Point de Lima is an handſome town.

Viana de Fez de Lima is pleaſantly ſituated near the mouth of the Lima. It contains ſeveral courts of juſtice, churches, convents, and a conſiderable magazine; is large, well built, and ſtrong, and has a good harbour, with a conſiderable trade.

The Province of TRA-LOS-MONTES has Galicia north, Beira ſouth, Leon eaſt, and ſome mountains weſt. It is 120 miles long, 80 broad, abounds in game and fruits, produces but little corn, is watered by the Douro, and contains

Braganza, a city near the river Fervença, at the extremity of the province, and near the borders of Leon and Galicia, contains ſeveral convents, a good caſtle, has a variety of ſilk manufactories, and is well fortified. The anceſtors of the preſent royal family were dukes of Braganza, before they were advanced to the throne, in the perſon of John, the eighth duke. This town is ſuppoſed to have been the ancient Cælia Briga, Brigantia, or Brigantium.

Chaves, a ſtrong town on the river Tamega, was built by the emperor Flavius Veſpaſian, and called Aquæ Flaviæ. There is ſtill a Roman bridge of ſtone over the Tamega, with other marks of antient grandeur.

Villa-Real ſtands between the river Corgo and Ribira. It is the beſt and largeſt town of the province, and belongs to the infanta. That called the Old Town is ſurrounded by a wall.

Miranda de Douro, a fortified town on the frontiers of Spain, ſo called from its pleaſant ſituation on the north ſide of the Douro, is the ſee of a biſhop, and belongs to the king.

BEIRA has Spaniſh Eſtramadura eaſt, Portugueſe Eſtramadura ſouth, the Ocean weſt, and Entre-Douro-e-Minho and Tra-los-Montes north. It is about 140 miles each way, well watered, and naturally fertile. The moſt conſiderable places are

Coimbra, on the Munda, over which it hath a ſtately bridge. It was anciently a Roman colony. Here are now many convents, colleges, and churches, beſides the cathedral, ſeveral courts of juſtice, an univerſity, and the ſee of a biſhop, who is count of Arganil.

Lamego, a city near the Douro, is ſurrounded with mountains, contains ſeveral convents, courts of juſtice, and is the ſee of a biſhop.

Viſeu is a city on a ſmall river, which falls into the Mondego. Here are ſeveral convents, churches, and

courts of juſtice. The biſhop of this place is ſuffragan to the archbiſhop of Braga.

Caſtello Branco is a town with a caſtle, containing a ſtately palace of the biſhop of Guarda; Almeida is a fortified town, near the river Coa; Penamacor is a ſtrong town on the Spaniſh frontiers; and Averio has a good harbour, and a great ſalt trade.

The Province of ALENTEJO is 120 miles long, nearly the ſame broad, has a very fertile ſoil, and contains

Evora, a city in which are ſeveral churches, hoſpitals, courts of juſtice, convents, a cathedral, and univerſity. It is a ſee of an archbiſhop, defended by a fort and other works, and is famed for the inſtitution of the order of Avis, anſwering to that of Calatrava in Spain.

Portalegre is a fortified city, about 10 miles from the Spaniſh frontier. Here are ſeveral courts of juſtice, fountains, convents, and churches, beſides the cathedral, a manufactory of coarſe woollen cloth, and the ſee of a biſhop.

Elvas, a city with a caſtle, and other fortifications, is the ſee of a biſhop. The neighbouring country is pleaſant, and fruitful in wine and oil.

Beja is a dukedom, and contains ſeveral churches, courts of juſtice, and convents.

Villa-Vicoſa, i. e. the Delightful Town, ſo called from its beauty, and that of the adjacent country, contains ſeveral convents, a ſtately royal palace, embelliſhed with a fine park, and a ſtrong caſtle.

Avis belongs to an order which takes its name from it; Campo-Mayor is well fortified; Olivença has a ſtrong caſtle; and Moura is a fortified town, near the Guadiana.

Eſtremaz contains ſeveral churches and convents, and is ſtrongly fortified.

The Province of ALGARVE is bounded to the ſouth and weſt by the Ocean; to the eaſt by the Gaadiana, which parts it from Andaluſia; and to the north by the mountains, called Serra de Algarve, or Caldeirao, and Serra de Monachique, which divide it from Alentejo; its greateſt length being about 100 miles, but its breadth only about 28. Its name is of Mooriſh extraction. Though mountainous, it is very fertile in corn, wine, oil, and all ſorts of fruits. The principal places are the following:

Lagos is a town with a harbour, on a large bay, about 110 miles ſouth from Liſbon. Here are ſeveral convents and courts of juſtice, and two forts.

Tavira, a city ſituated on a bay, at the mouth of the river Sequa, has a caſtle for its defence, ſeveral convents, and a harbour guarded by two forts.

Faro, a city ſituated on a bay, and well fortified, with an harbour and caſtle, contains ſeveral convents, and is the ſee of a biſhop.

Villa Nova de Portimao ſtands on a river, in the diſtrict of Lagos, where it has a ſpacious harbour, defended by two forts.

The Province of ESTRAMADURA is bounded on the weſt by the ſea, on the north and eaſt by Beira, and on the ſouth by Alentejo. It is 120 miles long, 60 broad, well watered, and fertile, producing corn, wine, oil, millet, pulſe, and fruits of all ſorts, eſpecially citrons, lemons, oranges, pomegranates, figs, dates, and almonds.

Liſbon, ſtanding near the mouth of the river Tagus, firſt became conſiderable in the reign of king Emanuel. From that time it has been the capital of the kingdom, the reſidence of its monarchs, the ſeat of the chief tribunals and offices, of the metropolitan, a noble univerſity, and the receptacle of the richeſt merchandize of the Eaſt and Weſt Indies. Its air is excellent, being refreſhed by the delightful ſea-breezes, and thoſe of the Tagus. Like old Rome it ſtands on ſeven hills. Great part of it was ruined by an earthquake, on November 1, 1755. It ſtill contains magnificent palaces, churches, and public buildings. Its ſituation (riſing from the Tagus in the form of a creſcent) renders its appearance at once delightful and ſuperb; and it is deſervedly accounted the greateſt port in Europe, next to London and Amſterdam. The harbour is ſpacious and ſecure; and the city itſelf is guarded from any ſudden attack towards the ſea by forts; though they would make but a poor defence againſt ſhips of war. All that part of the city that was demoliſhed by the earthquake is planned out in a regular form. Some ſquares and many ſtreets are built. The houſes are lofty, elegant, and uniform, and make a beautiful appearance. Liſbon is ſupplied with almoſt all the water which is uſed by the inhabitants by means of an aqueduct, in the valley of Alcantara.

Liſbon was divided, about the year 1716, into two parts, under the names of the Oriental part, and Occidental part. This diviſion was made on occaſion of the creation of the patriarch, whoſe dioceſe conſiſts of the Occidental part, and the archbiſhop has retained the Oriental. Since this partition the inhabitants are obliged, under pain of nullity, to expreſs, in all arrets, the part of the town in which they have paſſed exact. Merchants alſo diſtinguiſh it in their Bills of exchange and letters.

We ſhall conclude our deſcription of Liſbon with the following remarks on the dreadful earthquake before alluded to. "As far as I can judge (ſays the writer) after having walked the whole morning, and the whole afternoon, about theſe ruins, ſo much of Liſbon has been deſtroyed, as would make a town more than twice as great as Turin. In ſuch a ſpace nothing is to be ſeen but vaſt heaps of rubbiſh, out of which ariſe, in numberleſs places, the miſerable remains of ſhattered walls, and broken pillars. Along a ſtreet, which is full four miles in length, ſcarcely a building ſtood the ſhock; and I ſee, by the materials in the rubbiſh, that many of the houſes along that ſtreet muſt have been large and ſtately, and intermixed with noble churches, and other public edifices; nay, by the quantities of marble ſcattered on every ſide, it plainly appears that one-fourth, at leaſt, of that ſtreet was entirely built of marble. The rage of the earthquake ſeems to have turned chiefly againſt that long ſtreet, as almoſt every edifice, on either ſide, is, in a manner, levelled with the ground; whereas, in other parts of the town, many houſes, churches, and other buildings, are left ſtanding; though all ſo ſhattered, as not to be repaired without great expence: nor is there, throughout the whole town, a ſingle building of any kind, but what wears viſible marks of the horrible concuſſion."

Leira is a populous city, at the conflux of the Lis and Lana; Setuval is a ſtrong, well fortified town, 20 miles ſouth of Liſbon; Santerem, on the Tagus, is a place of good trade; and Sintra, ſituated by the cape that bears the ſame name, is ſuppoſed to have the moſt ſalubrious air of any place in Portugal.

SECTION III.

Character, Perſons, Dreſs, Honorary Titles, Religion, Manufactures, &c.

THE Protugueſe are inferior to the Spaniards both in perſon and genius; and though formerly ſome of them have ſhewn themſelves brave and warlike, upon certain occaſions, yet their natural characteriſtics are craft, treachery, malice, haughtineſs, cruelty, avarice, and a diſpoſition totally vindictive. They have uſually dark hair, black ſparkling eyes, and olive complexions. The dreſs of the men, among the common people, is a large cloak and flouched hat. Beneath the cloak they uſually carry a dagger, though the uſe of that treacherous weapon is prohibited. The women dreſs their heads in a net-work ſilk purſe, in lieu of a cap, with a taſſal behind, and a ribbon tied with a bow knot over the forehead. They likewiſe wear large ſleeves, heavy pendants in their ears, and

enormous noſegays. But it is to be obſerved, that the nobility and gentry, of both ſexes, incline to an imitation of the French faſhions.

The king's titles are "King of Portugal and the Algarves, on this ſide and the other ſide the ſea of Africa; lord of Guinea, and of the navigation, conqueſts, and commerce, in Ethiopia, Arabia, Perſia, India, &c." The king's eldeſt ſon is ſtiled prince of Brazil. In the year 1749 pope Benedict XIV. dignified the king with the title of his Moſt Faithful Majeſty.

The eſtabliſhed religion of Portugal is Popery in the ſtricteſt ſenſe. The Portugueſe have a patriarch; but formerly he depended on the pope entirely, unleſs when a quarrel ſubſiſted between the courts of Rome and Liſbon. The power of his holineſs in Portugal is now ſo much curtailed, that it is difficult to deſcribe the religious ſtate of that country. The power of the inquiſition is taken out of the hands of the eccleſiaſtics, and appropriated to ſtate commerce. The patriarch of Liſbon is generally a cardinal, and a perſon of the higheſt birth.

Coarſe ſilks, woollen cloths, and linen, are the principal manufactures of Portugal; but the commerce, particularly with England, in wine, fruit, and ſalt, is very conſiderable.

As to the conſtitution of Portugal, it is an abſolute hereditary monarchy. Both here and in Spain there were anciently cortes, ſtates, or parliaments; but they have long ſince entirely loſt their ſhare in the legiſlature. For the adminiſtration of the civil government there is a council of ſtate, and ſeveral ſecretaries; for military affairs a council of war; for the finances a treaſury-court; and for the diſtribution of juſtice ſeveral high tribunals, with others ſubordinate to them, in the ſeveral diſtricts into which the kingdom is divided. The cities have their particular magiſtracy. The proceedings of the courts are regulated by the Roman law, the royal edicts, the canon law, and the pope's mandates.

The revenues of the crown, ſince the diſcovery of the Brazil mines, are very conſiderable; but the real amount can only be gueſſed at. Beſides the royal demeſnes, the hereditary eſtates of the houſe of Braganza, the monopoly of Brazil ſnuff, the coinage, the fifth of the gold brought from Brazil, the farm of the Brazil diamonds, the maſterſhips of the orders of knighthood, and other ſources, yield very large ſums.

SECTION IV.

HISTORY OF SPAIN AND PORTUGAL.

IT is generally ſuppoſed that Spain was firſt peopled from Gaul, to which it is contiguous; or from Africa, from which it is only ſeparated by the narrow Strait of Gibraltar. The Phœnicians ſent colonies thither, and built Cadiz and Malaga. Afterwards, upon the riſe of Rome and Carthage, the poſſeſſion of this kingdom became an object of contention between thoſe powerful republics; but at length the Roman arms prevailed, and Spain remained in their poſſeſſion until the fall of that empire, when it became a prey to the Goths. Theſe, in their turn, were invaded by the Saracens, who, about the 7th century, had poſſeſſed themſelves of the fineſt kingdoms of Aſia and Africa; and not content with the immenſe regions that formerly compoſed great part of the Aſſyrian, Greek, and Roman empires, they croſſed the Mediterranean, ravaged Spain, and eſtabliſhed themſelves in the ſouthern provinces of the kingdom.

The firſt Spaniſh prince, mentioned in the hiſtory of this country, was Don Pelago, who diſtinguiſhed himſelf againſt theſe infidels (afterwards known by the name of Moors) and, about the year 720, took upon himſelf the title of king of Auſtria. His ſucceſſes animated other Chriſtian princes to take arms likewiſe; and the two kingdoms of Spain and Portugal, for many ages, were perpetually embroiled in bloody wars. In the mean time every adventurer was entitled to the conqueſts he made upon the Moors, till Spain was at laſt divided into twelve kingdoms; and, about the year 1095, Henry of Burgundy was declared, by the king of Leon, count of Portugal; but his ſon Alphonſo threw off his dependence on Leon, and declared himſelf king. A ſeries of brave princes gave the Moors repeated overthrows in Spain till about the year 1475, when all the Spaniſh kingdoms, Portugal excepted, were united by the marriage of Ferdinand, king of Arragon, and Iſabella, the heireſs, and afterwards queen, of Caſtile, who took Granada, and expelled the Moors and Jews out of Spain. This expulſion greatly depopulated the country of artiſts, labourers, and manufacturers; and the diſcovery of America (which happened a few years after) not only added to that calamity, but rendered the remaining Spaniards moſt deplorably indolent. To complete their misfortunes, Ferdinand and Iſabella introduced the popiſh inquiſition, with all its horrors, into their dominions, as a ſafeguard againſt the return of the Moors and Jews.

Ferdinand was ſucceeded by his grandſon Charles V. of the houſe of Auſtria, afterwards emperor of Germany. The extenſive poſſeſſions of the houſe of Auſtria, in Europe, Africa, and above all, America, from whence he drew immenſe treaſures, began to alarm the jealouſy of neighbouring princes, but could not ſatisfy the ambition of Charles. He was almoſt conſtantly engaged in foreign wars, or with his Proteſtant ſubjects in Germany, whom he in vain attempted to bring back to the Catholic church. At length, after a long and turbulent reign, he reſolved to withdraw himſelf entirely from any concern in worldly affairs, in order that he might ſpend the remainder of his days in retirement and ſolitude. In conſequence of this reſolution, he reſigned Spain and the Netherlands to his ſon Philip II. but could not prevail on the princes of Germany to elect him emperor, which honour they conferred on Ferdinand, Charles's brother, dividing the dangerous power of the houſe of Auſtria with two branches. Spain, with all its poſſeſſions in Africa and the New World, alſo the Netherlands, and ſome Italian ſtates, remained with the elder branch; whilſt the empire, Hungary, and Bohemia, fell to the lot of the younger.

Philip II. inherited all his father's vices, but poſſeſſed few of his good qualities. He was auſtere, haughty, immoderately ambitious, and through his whole life a cruel bigot in the cauſe of popery. He married Mary, queen of England, an unfeeling bigot like himſelf; and after her death, he paid his addreſſes to her ſiſter Elizabeth, but without ſucceſs. His reſentment, on this account, produced very diſadvantageous wars with that princeſs, which occaſioned the revolt and loſs of the United Provinces. But in Portugal he was more ſucceſsful. That kingdom, after being governed by a race of wiſe and brave princes, fell to Sebaſtian about the year 1557. Sebaſtian loſt his life, and a fine army, in a headſtrong, unjuſt, and ill-concerted expedition againſt the Moors in Africa; and ſoon after Phillip united Portugal to his own dominions, though the Branganza family of Portugal pretended to a prior right. By this acquiſition Spain became poſſeſſed of the Portugueſe ſettlements in India, ſome of which ſhe ſtill retains.

The deſcendants of Philip proved to be very weak princes; but Philip, and his father, had ſo totally ruined the ancient liberties of Spain, that they reigned almoſt unmoleſted in their own dominions. Their viceroys, however, were at once ſo tyrannical and inſolent over the Portugueſe, that in the year 1640, the nobility of that nation, by a well-conducted conſpiracy, expelled their tyrants, and placed the duke of Braganza on the throne, by the title of John IV. ever ſince which Portugal has been a diſtinct kingdom from Spain.

The kings of Spain, of the Auſtrian line, failing in the perſon of Charles II. who left no iſſue, Philip, duke of Anjou, ſecond ſon to the dauphin of France, and grandſon to Lewis XIV. mounted the throne, by virtue of his predeceſſor's will, in the name of Philip V. anno 1701. After a long and bloody ſtruggle with the German branch of the houſe of Auſtria, ſupported by England, he was confirmed in his dignity at the concluſion of the peace of Utrecht, in the year 1713; and thus Lewis XIV. through a maſterly train of politics, accompliſhed his favourite project of transferring the kingdom of Spain, with all its rich poſſeſſions in America and the Eaſt Indies, from the houſe of Auſtria to that of his own family of Bourbon; an event which has proved very prejudicial to the commerce of Great Britain, eſpecially in the Spaniſh American ſettlements.

Philip, after a long and turbulent reign, died in 1746, and was ſucceeded by his ſon Ferdinand VI. who died in 1759 without iſſue. Ferdinand was ſucceeded by his brother Charles III. the preſent reigning monarch of Spain.

The Portugueſe could not have ſupported themſelves under their revolt from Spain, had not the latter power been engaged in wars with England and Holland; and, upon the reſtoration of Charles II. king of England, that prince having married a princeſs of Portugal, prevailed with the crown of Spain, in 1668, to give up all pretenſions to that kingdom. Alphonſo, ſon to John IV. was then king of Portugal. He had the misfortune to diſagree with his wife and his brother Peter, and they uniting their intereſts, not only forced Alphonſo to reſign his crown, but obtained a diſpenſation from the pope for their marriage, which was actually conſummated. They had a daughter; but Peter, by a ſecond marriage, had ſons, the eldeſt of whom was John, his ſucceſſor, and father to his late Portugueſe majeſty. John, like his father, joined the grand confederacy formed by king William; but neither of them were of much ſervice in humbling the power of France. On the contrary, they had almoſt ruined the allies, by occaſioning the loſs of the great battle of Almanza, in 1707.

John died in 1750, and was ſucceeded by his ſon Joſeph, who, in 1760, was attacked by aſſaſſins, and narrowly eſcaped with his life. From this conſpiracy is dated the expulſion of the jeſuits (who were ſuppoſed to have been at the bottom of it) from all parts of the Portugueſe dominions. Joſeph having no ſon, his eldeſt daughter was married, by diſpenſation from the pope, to Don Pedro, her own uncle, to prevent the crown falling into a foreign family; and the next year, 1761, ſhe was brought to bed of a ſon, called the prince of Beira.

When the war broke out between England and Spain, in 1762, the Spaniards, and their allies the French, pretended to force Joſeph into their alliance, and to garriſon his ſea-towns againſt the Engliſh with their troops. The king of Portugal rejected this propoſal, and declared war againſt the Spaniards, who, without reſiſtance, entered Portugal with a conſiderable army, while a whole body of French threatened another quarter. But, by the aſſiſtance of the Engliſh, an effectual ſtop was put to the invaſion; and a general peace was concluded, at Fontainbleau, in the year 1763.

Joſeph died on the 23d of February, 1777, and was ſucceeded by his daughter, Mary Frances Iſabella, princeſs of Brazil. She was born in 1734, and married her uncle Don Pedro in 1760; and theſe two are now the joint ſovereigns of the Portugueſe dominions.

CHAP. XVI.

SWITZERLAND, OR SWISSERLAND.

SECTION I.

Boundaries, Extent, Climate, Soil, Rivers, Lakes, Vegetable and Animal Productions, &c.

THIS country (the Helvetia of the ancients) is bounded on the north by Swabia, in Germany; on the ſouth by ſeveral territories in Italy; on the eaſt by Tyrol and Auſtria; and on the weſt by Burgundy, and other parts of France.

Here it is to be obſerved, that modern geographers give the name of Switzerland to all the countries ſituated between France, Germany, and Italy, and inhabited not only by the Swiſs, properly ſo called, or the Thirteen Cantons, but other ſtates, allies, or ſubjects, of the Grand Helvetic Body.

Switzerland being a mountainous country, lying upon the Alps, the froſts are conſequently bitter in the winter, the hills being covered with ſnow ſometimes all the year long. In ſummer the inequality of the ſoil renders the ſame province very unequal in its ſeaſons. On one ſide of the mountains the inhabitants are often reaping, while they are ſowing on another. The vallies, however, are warm, fruitful, and well cultivated. The country is ſubject to rains and tempeſts, for which reaſon public granaries are every where erected to ſupply the failure of their crops.

The principal rivers are the Rhine, the Ruſz, the Teſin, and the Rhone.

The vegetable productions of Switzerland, in the enclоſures and open fields, are vines, wheat, rye, barley, oats, buck-wheat, beans, millet, lentil, hemp, flax, potatoes, turnips, kidney beans, poppies, clover, &c. The animal are cattle, fiſh and fowl. The Boquetin and the Chamois are animals of amazing activity. The blood of them is of ſo hot a nature, that ſome of the mountaineers, who are much ſubject to plurifies, take a few drops of it, mixed with water, as a remedy for that diſorder. The fleſh of the Chamois is eſteemed very delicious. Here are alſo mineral productions.

SECTION II.

Diviſions of Switzerland. Particular Deſcription of the Cantons and their Dependencies.

THE Thirteen Cantons of Switzerland are the following, viz. Zurich, Berne, Lucerne, Uri, Schweitz, Underwald, Zug, Glaris, Baſil, Friburg, Solothurn, Schaffhauſen, and Appenzel. Of theſe in their reſpective order.

ZURICH is 60 miles in length, and 48 in breadth. It abounds in corn, wine, and excellent paſtures, and is very populous.

Zurich, the capital of the Cantons, is one of the moſt conſiderable cities in Switzerland, for its antiquity, credit, and rank. It is pleaſantly ſituated at the extremity of a fine lake, where the river Limmat divides it into two parts, and has two bridges over it.

The lake of Zurich is about ten leagues in length; but no part exceeds a league in breadth: its figure is nearly of a bow. On the weſt ſide of the lake is mount Albis, which is pretty high; and on the eaſt a chain

chain of mountains, which are lower and better cultivated.

In Zurich are many perſons of learning and merit. The inhabitants, in general, poſſeſs piety and virtue, without pride and oſtentation. This was the firſt city of Switzerland that embraced the reformation. It was begun by Zuinglius in 1517, and eſtabliſhed in 1524.

Berne, though it holds the ſecond rank, may be deemed, in power and extent, the firſt Canton of Switzerland, as it comprehends about a third of the country, and its population is a fourth of the whole. It is 60 leagues in length. The reformation was introduced here in 1528.

The city of Berne, which gives name to the whole canton, and is the capital, is almoſt ſurrounded by the river Aar. The houſes are moſtly built of white freeſtone, and, in the principal ſtreets, have piazzas, or arches, under them, for the convenience of walking dry in wet weather. Here are a college, public library, muſeum, granary, guildhall, arſenal, ſeveral hoſpitals, a handſome ſtone bridge, and a platform with a fine proſpect.

The city of Berne is ſovereign of the whole canton, and the ſovereignty reſts intirely in the great council, compoſed of 200 counſellors, and 99 aſſeſſors. The ſonale, or little council compoſed of 27 members, have the executive power.

In Berne, as, indeed, throughout Switzerland, they are rigidly ſevere in the execution of the penal laws, not only in capital crimes, but leſſer offences. For petty larceny matters the culprit is generally ſentenced to the pillory. The pillory here differs from ours, being conſtructed in the form of a long cage, ſo that the offender can neither ſit or kneel, but is under the neceſſity of continuing the whole time of the puniſhment in an exact poſture.

Female proſtitutes, when become notorious, are apprehended, and ſentenced to cleanſe the public ſtreets. Four, and ſometimes ſix, are harneſſed or linked to the ſcavenger's cart, which, on pain of the laſh, they are compelled to drag ſtep by ſtep through the ſtreets; while others ſweep, gather up the ſoil, and ſhoot it into the cart. An officer, ſomething like one of our pariſh beadles, ſuperintends the execution of this puniſhment; and if any relations or friends of the delinquents preſume to afford them aſſiſtance, or even grumble at their ſentence, they are immediately put in their places, to undergo the ſame diſgrace of drudgery.

Halzli is a village, giving name to a territory or valley of conſiderable extent, in which are fine woods of beech and pine, excellent roots, wild fowl of moſt kinds, chamois, and other mountain animals, together with mines, particularly of lead and iron, and fine cryſtals. This village forms the eaſtern extremity of the canton of Berne.

The Pais de Vaud, which ſubmitted to the canton of Berne in 1536, and at the ſame time embraced the reformation, is a fine country, abounding with vineyards, corn-fields, and paſtures.

Lauſanne, the capital of the Pais de Vaud, and the ſecond city of the whole canton, ſtands one mile and a half from the lake of Geneva. It gives name to a bailiwick, the bailiff of which reſides in the caſtle, which was formerly the biſhop's palace, and has ſome juriſdiction in the town. In the college here Theodore Beza tranſlated the Pſalms into French verſe.

Lucerne, the moſt powerful of the Catholic cantons, is about 40 miles long, and 32 broad. The mountainous parts abound with ſheep and cattle, and the level diſtricts are fruitful in corn. The government is ariſtocratical, and the chief revenue ariſes from the eſtates of the extinct nobility.

Lucerne, from which the canton has its name, ſtanding on a branch of the lake of Lucerne, where the Ruſz iſſues from it, is a conſiderable thoroughfare to Italy, by mount St. Gothard, and contains an arſenal, a magnificent college and town-houſe, ſeveral convents, with a cathedral or collegiate church.

The town forms a fine object at one extremity. Mount Pilat, and the Rugi, are noble mountains.

The lake of Lucerne exhibits greater variety, and more picturesque ſcenery, than any other of the Swiſs lakes.

Uri, which is 60 miles long, and 20 broad, abounds with mountains, the chief of which, called St. Gothard, is the higheſt in Switzerland. Over it is carried a fine road, in one continued aſcent of eight hours, to the very ſummit. This road deſerves particular notice, being, in moſt parts, ſix feet wide, and every where well paved during its whole aſcent. The Ruſz runs by its ſide; over which are ſeveral handſome bridges. This road, in ſummer, is perfectly ſafe, not only for horſes, but even for carriages; though, in winter, the fall of maſſes of ſnow have proved fatal to many travellers. It lies between very high mountains, the lower parts of which are covered with thick woods, but above are quite bare. Several parts exhibit the moſt beautiful cataracts, either from the Ruſz, or other ſmaller ſtreams; while many of them, by reaſon of the rocks which obſtruct their paſſage, are thrown into a miſt, which, by the refracting rays of the ſun, form a variety of rainbows, and at the ſame time both charm and cool the traveller. But as he advances he is terrified at the view of frightful rocks hanging over the road, and ſo worn out underneath, that they appear as if they were juſt going to fall and cruſh him to atoms. On the other hand, when he finds himſelf ſhut in, on all ſides, by ſuch ſtupendous mountains, of vaſtly different aſpects, ſome quite bare, and others tufted with trees, and abounding with various ſorts of medicinal herbs, he has reaſon to admire the wonderful works of the Creator, and to extol the induſtry and ingenuity of the inhabitants, who, at an immenſe hazard, toil, and expence, keep theſe roads open. For this purpoſe they join rocks together by arched bridges, cut away through ſeveral rocks; and when the road ſeems ready to ſink, ſupport it by ſtout walls and buttreſſes, with great poſts, which they drive deep into the earth, and ſtones, which they faſten to one another by iron hooks.

At about two hours diſtance above the village of Geſtinen lies the largeſt bridge over the Ruſz. It is of ſtone, and of a ſurprizing height, with only one arch, which is an exact ſemicircle, the piers of which reſt upon two rocks of vaſt height; and here the noiſe of the rapid torrent adds to the terrors of the ſcene. It is 50 feet over, and its height above the water about 70. It can ſcarcely be imagined how it was poſſible to erect a bridge there: and the inhabitants, thinking it beyond the power of man to accompliſh it, therefore call it *Teuffelſbruck*, or *The Devil's Bridge*. In one part of this mountain, near the highway, is a Capuchin convent, in which two fathers conſtantly attend, and, for a ſmall conſideration, accommodate travellers with whatever is wanted. Many thouſand head of cattle graze on this, and the other mountains here, in ſummer; and great quantities of cheeſe are made on them. The vales between theſe mountains are exceeding hot in ſummer, and yield the moſt luxuriant crops of graſs. Moſt beautiful cryſtals alſo are often found among them.

The inhabitants are a hardy, vigorous, and brave people. They have no wine, little corn, and few or no manufactures; but plenty of wood, fiſh, black cattle, butter, and cheeſe, with which they purchaſe what neceſſaries they want. They are reckoned about 20,000 in number, of which thoſe of better faſhion live by the flocks and herds they keep in their grounds; and the meaner ſort by attending theſe herds, or hawking and peddling German and Italian wares. The government is democratical, and divided into ten diſtricts. The ſcenery of that part which is called the lake of Uri is

particularly ſublime. It is narrow, and edged, on both ſides, with the moſt wild and romantic rocks, with woods of beech and pine down to the very water's edge.

But this fine lake is particularly intereſting for having been the theatre whereon the independency of Swiſſerland was originally planned. Here is the chapel of William Tell, on a rock, jutting out into the lake, under a hanging wood; and the village of Brunnen, where the treaty of 1315 was ſigned between Uri, Schweitz, and Underwalden.

The only remarkable places in this canton are the two following:

Altorf, i. e. the Old Village, a well built town, being the ſeat of government, and the place where moſt of the gentry reſide, contains an arſenal, a granary, a handſome town-houſe, with a houſe for cutting and poliſhing cryſtal, three churches, and two convents.

Urſerenthal, or Urſeren Valley, is about nine miles in length, one in breadth, and yields good paſturage. The inhabitants are a free people, and rather allies than ſubjects of the canton of Uri. In eccleſiaſtical matters they are ſubject to the biſhop of Coire.

SCHWEITZ is about 30 miles in length, and 20 in breadth. The land, for the moſt part, is paſture ground, yielding little corn, and no wine; but they have plenty of fiſh from their lakes and rivers, with black cattle, game, butter, and cheeſe. With reſpect to its government and religion, they are much the ſame as thoſe of Uri; and its inhabitants too, like thoſe of that canton, are hardy, bold, and vigorous.

Schweitz, which gives name to it, is its capital, and the ſeat of regency, is ſituated 10 miles from Lucerne, in a pleaſant valley, and contains, beſides a pariſh church, three convents, a town houſe, a mint, an hoſpital, an arſenal, and ſeveral handſome private houſes.

At Einſidlen, a ſmall town near the river Meuſe, 10 miles north-eaſt from Schweitz, is a rich benedictine abbey, the abbot of which has the title of prince, and is lord of the town and its territory, under the ſovereignty, or rather the protection, of the canton. The abbey is a large edifice, containing magnificent apartments for the abbot, with a library, and convenient rooms for the recluſes, and the entertainment of ſtrangers. The church of Our Lady is embelliſhed with maſterly paintings, rich gildings, and moſt delicate ſtucco-work. In the diſtrict belonging to the abbey is alſo a nunnery, which, as well as the abbey, contains a treaſure of great value.

UNDERWALD is divided by a foreſt into two parts, diſtinguiſhed by the names of Ober and Underwald, i. e. above and below the foreſt; but the canton bears only the name of the latter. It reaches about 18 miles from north to ſouth, and 15 from eaſt to weſt. Here are fine fruits, paſtures, woods, and cattle, with lakes, mineral ſprings, and quarries of marble. The two parts make two communities, which have each their reſpective chief, diet, council, ſeal, banner, and officers; but as they both conſtitute only one canton, they have alſo a common-council. Both are of the Popiſh religion. Though each ſends a repreſentative to the general diet of the cantons, yet they have but one voice. The capital of the vale above the foreſt is Sarnen, on the river Aar, and of that below, Stanz.

ZUG is a ſmall canton, reaching above 12 miles either way; but very populous and fruitful, yielding wines, wheat, cheſnuts, and other fruits; and its mountains produce excellent paſture. The government is democratical. The inhabitants are Roman Catholics. There are two lakes in it abounding with fiſh; and the woods produce great plenty of game. The only place in the canton worth mentioning is

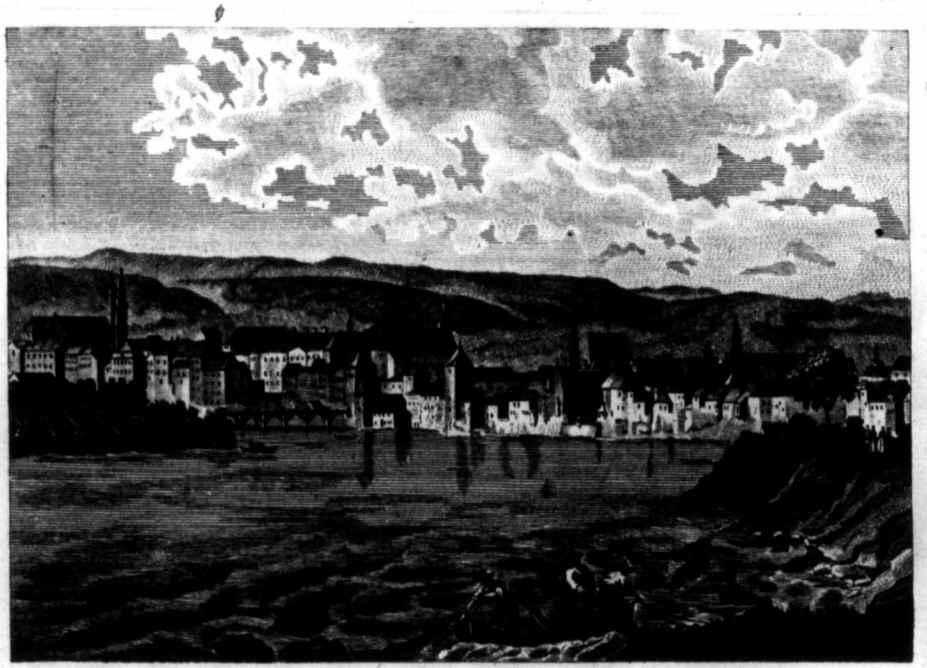
Zug, which is delightfully ſituated on a beautiful lake, in a fertile valley. The lake is three leagues long, and one broad.

GLARIS is ſurrounded on all ſides, except towards the north, with lofty mountains, one of which, called Todiberg, is almoſt impaſſable. The principal valley extends from north to ſouth above 20 miles, and is ſubject to earthquakes. The other vales yield good paſturage, but little corn or pulſe. Vaſt numbers of horſes, black cattle, goats, and ſheep, graze both on the mountains and in the vallies; and great quantities of butter and cheeſe are made in each. The mountains yield wood, ſlate, cryſtal, mineral waters, and baths; and the rivers and lakes abound with fiſh. The government is democratical, and the ſenate is compoſed of 62 perſons, over which the landaman and proconſul reſide, who are never of the ſame religon; for the inhabitants are partly Papiſts, and partly Proteſtants; but they live very peaceably together. Here, as in other democratical cantons, beſides the diets, is a council of regency, with ſeveral courts of juſtice, for civil, criminal, and eccleſiaſtical affairs. The reſpective towns in this canton are ſo trifling as not to merit any particular deſcription.

BASIL, which is 20 miles in length, and about 18 in breadth, contains 27 pariſhes, and 7 bailiwicks; and its inhabitants are Proteſtants. The lower parts of it are fruitful in paſture, corn and wine; but the mountains are barren. There are many medicinal ſprings and baths in it, and the air his wholeſome and temperate. Both men and women, for the moſt part, wear the French dreſs; but the language commonly ſpoken is High Dutch; though the French alſo is much uſed. Its government is ariſtocratical. The only place worthy of notice in this canton is

Baſil, Baſle, or Bale, its capital, the largeſt city in Switzerland. Its environs are beautiful, conſiſting of a fine level track of fields and meadows. The city is divided into two parts by the Rhine, over which there is a handſome bridge. It is fortified with walls, moats, towers, and baſtions, and contains ſeveral churches, beſides the cathedral, which is an elegant Gothic ſtructure; a commandery of the order of St. John, and another of the Teutonic order; a public granary, an arſenal, a ſtately town-houſe, an univerſity, a gymnaſium, a ſtately palace belonging to the margrave of Baden-Dourlach, beſides a chamber of curioſities, ſeveral hoſpitals, &c. In the arſenal is ſhewn the armour in which Charles the Bold loſt his life, with the furniture of his horſe, and the kettle-drums and trumpets of his army. On the ſtair-caſe of the council-houſe is a picture of the Laſt Judgment. Over-againſt the French church, on a long covered wall, is painted the dance of Death. St Peter's Square, planted with elm and lime trees, forms a pleaſant work; but a ſpot regularly planted with trees, cloſe by the river, and near the minſter, makes a finer, as commanding a moſt beautiful and extenſive proſpect. The celebrated Eraſmus died here in 1536, in the 70th year of his age, and was buried in the great church. Some of the merchants here are opulent; but the ſumptuary laws are ſtrict, and a ſimplicity of manners ſtill prevails at Baſil. A ſtrange cuſtom prevails here, that the town clocks are always an hour too faſt; ſo that when it is really noon it is one o'clock at Baſil, and ſo on. Several reaſons are aſſigned for this ſingularity; which the magiſtrate cannot yet perſuade the common people to alter. Trade flouriſhes here, eſpecially in ſilk, ribbons, and wines; and the police is under excellent regulations. The two Buxtorffs, father and ſon, and the famous painter Holbein, were natives of this place.

FRIBURG, which is near 40 miles in length, and 20 in breadth, is partly mountainous, and partly champaign; and, beſides ſome wine, yields plenty of paſturage, grain, fruit, cattle, and cheeſe. It is divided into three inner bailiwicks, and 16 outer, beſides the territory of the city. The inhabitants are Papiſts.



View of BALE *principal City of Bale, one of the Cantons of* SWITZERLAND.

View of ZURICH *principal City of Zurich, one of the Cantons of* SWITZERLAND.

View of the City of ZUG, Capital of the Canton of the same name.

View of the Town of GLARIS, Capital of the Canton of the same name.

One part of them ſpeak a corrupt French, the other a baſtard German. The only place of note in it is

Friburg, which gives name to it, and ſtands among rocks, in a valley, on the river Soane, ſix leagues ſouth-weſt from Berne. Here are ſeveral churches, convents, and hoſpitals, with a handſome college, a mint, a granary, an arſenal, a commandery of St. John, and a council-houſe, which ſtands on a rock, and commands a great proſpect. The government is much the ſame as that of Berne, except that here it is confined to 70 families of patricians, excluſive of all others. The town is tolerably well fortified. At the diſtance of a league from Friburg, in a wilderneſs of woods and rocks, is a remarkable hermitage, called la Madelaine, conſiſting of a church and ſteeple, with an oratory, a hall, refectory, kitchen, ſeveral chambers, ſtairs, a cellar, well, and other conveniencies, all hewn out of a rock. This great work was performed by an hermit, named John de Pre, having had no ſort of aſſiſtance from any perſon but his ſervant, in the courſe of twenty-five years.

Solothurn, or Soleure, is about 12 miles long, and 10 broad, and is ſituated on the river Aar. It is tolerably fertile, yielding corn, wine, fine woods, fruits, and paſtures. The religion profeſſed in it is the Roman Catholic, except in one bailiwick; and the government is ariſtocratical. The principal place in it is

Solothurn, or Soleure, which gives name to it, and is ſituated in a pleaſant, fertile country. Here is a collegiate church, a large college, a well furniſhed arſenal, and two convents. The government is much the ſame as that of Berne and Friburg, and the language chiefly ſpoken is French. In 1777 an alliance was concluded here between the king of France, and the Thirteen Cantons and their allies, for fifty years.

Schaffhausen is the moſt ſouthern of all the Swiſs Cantons, and lies entirely on the German ſide of the Rhine. It is about 20 miles long, and 12 broad; and is, in general, fertile, yielding corn, fruit, paſture, plenty of fiſh, mineral ſprings, and good red wine. The inhabitants are Proteſtants, and the government ariſtocratical. The only town in it worth notice is

Schaffhauſen, which is pleaſantly ſituated in a plain on the Rhine, and is very handſome, the ſtreets being broad, and the houſes magnificent. Here are ſeveral handſome churches, an arſenal, an academy, a noble cabinet of rarities, and a good fortreſs. The city carries on a conſiderable trade by the Rhine, over which it has a bridge built entirely of timber, by a common carpenter, and eſteemed a very curious work. As its name, in German, ſignifies a ſheepfold, ſo it has a ſheep for its coat-of arms, as alſo upon its coin. In the ſuburbs of the city is a ſpring of water in a cellar, ſo plentiful, that it ſupplies above 100 pipes; and in the neighbourhood is a fine free-ſtone quarry.

In order to view the famous caſcade of the Rhine, you muſt either go to Lauffen, which is a league from Schaffhauſen, or to Neuhauſen, which is only half a league, and where the fall is ſeen to better advantage; but at the latter you muſt croſs the river, to which ſome perſons have an objection. Hence you have firſt a back view of the caſcade; and when you have walked down the hill, it plays upon you in all forms as you go to the ferry, from a profile to a front view. As you croſs the river you enjoy it in full front all the way, and diſtinguiſh the three ſheets of water rolling down in all their majeſty. You ſee alſo that towards the oppoſite ſide, part of it is daſhed back, and broken into ſpray. The whole is white with foam, except here and there ſome green tints, eſpecially when the ſun ſhines upon it. Having croſſed the river, you mount the hill to a little platform, built on purpoſe to bring you cloſe to the caſcade; and there you ſee it foaming with the greateſt fury, whilſt you are ſafe even from the ſpray, unleſs the wind happens to ſet toward you. If the view of this object be truly pictureſque from the other ſide, from hence it is grand and majeſtic. By aſcending a little higher to the caſtle of Lauffen, you have a fourth view, wherein you look down upon the falling river, and alſo trace its progreſs. In order to ſee the rainbow formed by the ſpray, you muſt be on the ſpot before nine o'clock in the morning. Accounts vary much as to the height of the cataract; but this is chiefly owing to the different ſeaſon at which travellers have viewed it. After all, it is not the height of the fall, but the immenſity of the body of water, broken in a moſt pictureſque manner by the rocks, that conſtitutes the beauty of the caſcade of *Lauffen*.

Appenzel, the laſt of the Thirteen Cantons, is about 30 miles long, and 20 broad. It yields good paſturage, and conſequently is not deſtitute of cattle, milk, butter, or cheeſe. Conſiderable quantities alſo of wheat, rye, barley, oats, beans, peas, flax, and wine, are produced in it; beſides a great deal of fruit, wood and turf, with mineral waters, and warm baths. There are many mountains in the canton, the higheſt of which is that called the Hoheſantis, or the Hohe-Meſzmer, which commands a proſpect of a prodigious extent. There are alſo ſeveral lakes and rivers. The inhabitants ſubſiſt chiefly by their manufactures of linen, crape, fuſtian, and thread, or by bleaching, and the ſale of their cattle, butter, cheeſe, horſes, wool, and coal. Appenzel is the capital of this canton, and divided into twelve communities; ſix, called the interior, are Roman Catholics; the other ſix, called the exterior, are Proteſtants.

We ſhall now proceed to the ſeveral bailiwicks that belong, in common, to certain cantons. And firſt

The Bailiwick of Thurgau, which takes its name from the river Thur, that traverſes it, is very large and populous, and though ſomewhat mountainous, in general tolerably fertile. About one third of its inhabitants are Papiſts, and the reſt Proteſtants. The chief places in it are

Frauenfeld, the capital, which ſtands on the river Murk. Here the Diet of the Swiſs is held. In 1771 the greater part of this town was burnt, but it has been almoſt wholly rebuilt.

Diſſenhoſen, a conſiderable town on the Rhine, over which it has a bridge, enjoys great privileges. The magiſtracy is compoſed partly of Papiſts, and partly of Proteſtants.

The Bailiwick of the Rheinthal is about 20 miles long, and 5 where broadeſt, and is fruitful both in corn and wine, eſpecially the latter. There is a cryſtal pit in it, in which a vaſt deal of yellow, brown, and white tranſparent cryſtal is found. Moſt of the inhabitants are Proteſtants. The ſovereignty of it belongs to nine cantons, viz. Berne, Zurich, Lucerne, Schweitz, Glaris, Uri, Underwald, Zug, and Appenzel, who alternately appoint a bailiff every two years: but the abbot of St. Gall has not only a ſhare of the juriſdiction, but a great revenue from it.

The Bailiwick of Sargans is about 24 miles in length, and 5 or 6 in breadth. Its mountains feed great numbers of cattle, and its vallies produce corn and fruit. The inhabitants are partly Papiſts and partly Proteſtants. It is divided into the Upper and Lower Sargans; but neither of them contain any thing remarkable, except

Pfeffers, a rich Benedictine abbey, whoſe abbot is a prince of the empire. About a mile and a half from the convent is a famous hot bath belonging to the abbey, the water of which is good for many diſtempers, being impregnated with ſpirit of ſulphur, nitre, vitriol, and various metals.

The bailiwick of Gaster is chiefly mountainous, notwithſtanding which it is far from being unfruitful. The inhabitants are Papiſts. This diſtrict has a diet held every two years, and a council, with two courts of juſtice, one for civil and another for criminal cauſes, in all which the bailiff preſides. The only place worth mentioning here is

Schanis, in which there is an abbey for ladies. The abbeſs is a princeſs of the empire, and obliged to lead a ſingle life; though her nuns may marry.

The Bailiwick of UTZNACH was purchaſed by the cantons of Schweitz and Glaris, by whom a bailiff is appointed alternately every two years: but when it is the turn of the latter, he is nominated by the Papiſts alone, the inhabitants being moſtly of that perſuaſion.

The Bailiwick of GAMBS is ſubject to the ſame cantons as the former, and enjoys much the ſame privileges.

The Town of RAPPERSCHWEIL, with its Diſtrict, lies 13 miles ſouth-weſt of Zurich, on the lake. It is a good town, and well fortified. The wooden bridge, which extends from hence toa point of land in the lake, is near two miles in length, yet it is remarkable that it is entirely open, there not being any rails on either ſide. The inhabitants, who are Roman Catholics, enjoy their ancient privileges, under the ſovereignty of Zurich and Berne.

The County and Bailiwick of BADEN is about ſeven leagues in length, and three in breadth; is watered by three navigable rivers; and is ſubject to Berne, Zurich, and Glaris, who ſend a bailiff in turn. The religion is mixed, but the Catholic predominates.

Baden, the *Aquæ Helveticæ* of the Romans, is ſituated on the river Limmatt, in a narrow plain, between two hills. Its baths were famous under Auguſtus, or very ſoon after; and abundance of antiquities have been found here.

The hot baths are at a little diſtance from the town, below it, and on the banks of the Limmatt. The great baths are on the left bank. There are ſixty of them, large and commodious, in the hotels and lodging-houſes: and in the middle of the town are public open baths for the uſe of the poor. They are all ſupplied by ſeven ſprings.

The FREE AMTS, or PROVINCES, are divided into Upper and Lower, in both of which the ſoil is very fruitful. The inhabitants are Roman Catholics. The only place in them worth mentioning is Muri, an opulent and celebrated Benedictine abbey, on the river Bunz, the abbot of which is a prince of the empire, and immediately under the pope.

Under the joint ſovereignty of Zurich, Berne and Glaris, are the towns of Bremgorten and Mellingou; the former of which carries on a good trade, eſpecially in the manufacture of paper; but the latter is inconſiderable.

Of the common bailiwicks in Switzerland, the remaining four, viz. Schwarzenburg, Morat, Grandſon, and Eſchalons, are under the joint ſovereignty of Berne and Friburg. The inhabitants of the three firſt are Proteſtants; but thoſe of the laſt are partly Proteſtants and partly Papiſts.

The ITALIAN BAILIWICKS lie in Italy at the foot of the Alps. They are ſeven in number, namely, Bellenz, Riviera or Poleſe, Valle di Bregno, Lauis, Lugganes, Meyathal or Val Maggia, and Mendin. They are all mountainous, but tolerably fertile. The inhabitants all Papiſts, and ſpeak the Italian language.

Under the protection of Lucerne, Uri, Schweitz, and Underwalden, are Emgelberg Abbey, and the Borough of Gerſau.

Of the Allies of the Cantons.

THE Swiſs allies are thoſe who are united to the cantons by a ſolemn league, in conſequence of which they have a vote in their aſſemblies. They are as follow:

The Abbey of St. GALL, whoſe abbot is ſovereign of that called the Patrimony of St. Gall, is ſituated between Zurich and the lake of Conſtance. The abbey, which is of the Benedictine order, is very ſpacious, and contains a palace, a conventual church, and a library. The number of monks is 60, by and from among whom the abbot is choſen, who is immediately ſubject to the pope, and a prince of the empire. As an ally of the cantons, his deputies have a ſeat and voice in the general diets and meetings of the confederacy. He has the diſpoſal of all benefices in his territories, and the nomination of all judges and officers.

The Town of St. GALL is ſituated in the Upper Thurgua, near the river Steinach. It is very large and populous, and its inhabitants are moſtly Proteſtants, which occaſions diſputes between them and the abbot about religion. Here are ſeveral churches, a gymnaſium, a town-houſe, an alms-houſe, and an arſenal. The town was formerly ſubject to the abbot; but it is now a republic, and ſends deputies to the general diet. The government is ariſtocratical. The inhabitants of St. Gall are uncommonly induſtrious, and have an extenſive commerce in the manufactures of linen, muſlin, and embroidery. The arts and ſciences are cultivated, and literature is in great eſteem. Their library is ample, and well arranged.

The Biſhopric of BASLE is ſituated on the lake to which it gives name. At the famous paſs of the rock, called Pierre Pertuis, the road is carried through a ſolid rock near 50 feet thick. The height of the arch is 26, and its breadth 25. The rock itſelf, and ſpots adjacent, afford a very romantic proſpect.

The Country of the GRISSONS is divided into three parts, called Leagues, and diſtinguiſhed by the ſeveral denominations of the Griſſon or Grey League, the League of the Houſe of God, and the League of the Ten Juriſdictions. The length of the whole is about 70 miles, and the breadth 60. It is, in general, a mountainous country, but produces moſt of the neceſſaries of life. The inhabitants are partly Papiſts, and partly Proteſtants. Each of the Leagues is ſubdivided into ſeveral leſſer communities, which are ſo many democracies, every male above 16 having a ſhare in the government of the community, and a vote in the election of magiſtrates. Deputies from the ſeveral communities conſtitute the general diet of the Griſſon Leagues, which meets annually, and alternately, at the capital of each League; but they can conclude nothing without the conſent of their conſtituents.

The Griſſon, or Grey League, is divided into eight diſtricts, which contain ſeveral ſmall villages; but neither of them merit particular notice.

The League of the Houſe of God is the moſt conſiderable of the three, and contains ſome very high mountains. The chief of it has the title of Preſident, and is elected annually. It is divided into two great communities, and thoſe again into ſmaller, called Juriſdictions. The principal place of note in it is

Coire, or Chur, the capital not only of the League, but of the whole republic. It is large and populous, and its neighbourhood beautifully diverſified with hills, plains, vineyards, corn-fields, and orchards. Here are ſeveral churches, an arſenal, a college, a grammar-ſchool, a granary, and a town-houſe, in which is held, once in three years, the general diet, and alſo the extraordinary diets, and the congreſſes.

The League of the Ten Juriſdictions is the ſmalleſt of the three, and divided into ſeven communities, out of which the chief is annually choſen by turns. The country conſiſts, for the moſt part, of rugged mountains, yielding neither corn or fruit, except on the banks of the Rhine, and a few other places; but abounding in horſes, cattle, fiſh, milk, butter, and cheeſe, of all which there is a conſiderable exportation. The language ſpoken in general is the German.

The countries or territories ſubject to the Griſſon Leagues lie at the foot of the Alps, near the entrance of Italy, and conſiſts of the Valteline, and the counties of Bormio and Chiavenna, all of which are very fertile, but do not contain any thing remarkable. The language is a corrupt Italian, and the religion Popery.

The Barony of HALDENSTEIN is under the protection of the Griſſon Leagues, and takes its name from the village of Haldenſtein, which has a palace in it, and a ſmall caſtle. The inhabitants of this barony are Proteſtants.

The

The country called the VALAIS, in alliance or confederacy with the Swiſs Cantons, is one large vale, bounded by very high mountains. It is divided into Upper and Lower. The ſoil is fertile in corn, wine, and various ſorts of fruits.

In the Upper Valais are the famous hot baths called the baths of Leuck.

In the diſtrict of Rarogne, belonging alſo to the Upper Valais, are the ruins of the caſtle of Chatillon, or Chillon, built upon a rock, with a very narrow road between the caſtle and the mountain. It has galleries, battlements, &c. and was very ſtrong before the invention of artillery; but is entirely commanded by the mountain.

Rarogne, from whence the diſtrict derives its name, with the ruins of the caſtle, of the ſame name, together with the adjacent ſpot, exhibit, among other antiquities, a melancholy proof of the impairing effects of time, while they preſent a view at once dreary and romantic.

In the Lower Valais is the famous mountain of St. Bernard, which has on its top a convent, where the friars maintain all travellers for three days gratis, whether Papiſts or Proteſtants.

The inhabitants are of ſhort ſtature, tawny complexions, and vacant countenances. It is uncommon to find either a man or woman without large ſwellings in the throat. The people exhibited to the public of this metropolis ſome time ago, called "Monſtrous Craws," were no doubt natives of this country; though credulity caught the bait held forth by impoſtors to allure. Thoſe who ſpeak German reſemble the Swiſs; the reſt are like the Savoyards. They are, in general, Roman Catholics.

The town of MUHLHAUSEN is large, well built, populous, and adorned with ſeveral churches, and other good ſtructures. The inhabitants are Proteſtants. Though this town is in alliance with the Proteſtant cantons, yet it ſends no deputy to the general diet.

The Republic of GENEVA is on the confines of Savoy, France, and Switzerland, in 46 degrees 12 minutes north latitude. It is pleaſantly ſituated on the banks of the river Rhone, juſt where it emerges from the lake. The ſtreets are, in general, wide, clean, and well paved. The houſes are moſtly built of free-ſtone, with lime-ſtone baſements. The Maiſon de Ville, or town houſe, is a large plain, ancient building, with great rooms for the councils to aſſemble in, and for public entertainments. In one of them there is a weekly concert by ſubſcription during the winter ſeaſon. There are five churches here, beſides French, Italian, and German chapels. The academy has about 600 ſcholars, and 11 profeſſors. Small medals are annually diſtributed to thoſe who have diſtinguiſhed themſelves in each claſs. The public library has near 40,000 volumes of printed books, beſides a good collection of manuſcripts. The citizens have the liberty both of reſorting here, and borrowing books. The arſenal is in good order, and furniſhed with arms for 12,000 men. The hoſpital is a large handſome building. The public fountains are ſupplied by an hydraulic engine. The fortifications are in the modern ſtile on the ſide of Savoy, but are commanded by ſome of the neighbouring ground. On the ſide of France, they are old faſhioned. They are calculated rather to prevent a ſurpriſe, than to ſuſtain a regular ſiege. They have three gates towards France, Savoy, and Switzerland. All acceſs by the lake is barred by a double jetty and chain. The garriſon conſiſts of 720 men, Swiſs or Germans.

The ſovereign power reſides in the general aſſembly of citizens and burgeſſes, who have attained the age of 25 years. The executive power, and adminiſtration of juſtice, are intruſted, 1. to the council of 25, called the ſenate, or little council. 2. The council of 60. 3. The council of 200, comprehending the other two, and conſiſting now of 250 members. The ſupreme magiſtrates are four ſyndics, elected annually by the general aſſembly. Other officers are, 1. The lieutenant, choſen alſo annually. 2. The treaſurer, elected for three years. 3. The procurator-general, alſo for three years. Inferior departments of government and police are managed by committees, called Chambers.

The eccleſiaſtical conſtitution is purely Preſbyterian, and the moſt tolerating of all the reformed ſtates.

The revenues of government are about 500,000 French livres, or little more than 20,000 pounds ſterling.

The law of the ſtate is the Roman law, with ſome modifications. They have no titles of nobility or hereditary dignities.

Their arts and manufactures are watch-making, jewellery, printed cottons and linens, printed books, dreſſed leather, and ſome other ſmaller articles.

Since the late troubles a theatre has been built within the city. The only public diverſions beſides this are two concerts. Private balls are not unfrequent; and plays are ſometimes performed by gentlemen and ladies. The chief amuſement is cards, at which the women conſtantly play in their ſocieties, tea-drinkings, and aſſemblies. Moſt of the men meet daily in their circles or clubs. The 12th of December is a kind of ſtate holiday, kept in memory of the duke of Savoy's attempt upon the city; and called the day of the *Eſcalade*. In fine weather there is a great reſort to the Treille, and other public walks.

The territory of Geneva contains about ſeven ſquare leagues, and is divided into nine pariſhes. The country round the city is ſo varied, that every village and campagne preſents freſh beauties, ariſing from the different points of view in which the lake, mountains, and the country preſent themſelves.

The lake of Geneva is chiefly a dependent of the canton of Berne. The form of it is that of a creſcent, with the horns blunted. The length, from Geneva to Villeneuve, is eighteen French leagues and three quarters. The greateſt breadth is three leagues and a quarter. It is very ſhallow near Geneva, but off Meillerie is found to be 950 French feet in depth. This lake owes the chief part of its waters to the Rhone, which enters it near Villeneuve, and goes out of it again at Geneva. There are, however, no leſs than thirty-one rivers or torrents, and nine brooks, beſides the Rhone, that furniſh their reſpective little quotas. The great melting of ice and ſnow in the mountains occaſions the lake to be five or ſix feet higher in ſummer than in winter; at which ſeaſon it never freezes. Its extent, the clearneſs of its waters, and the variety and beauty of the country on its banks, make it deſervedly eſteemed one of the fineſt lakes in Europe.

Strangers are no where provided with a greater variety of coin than at Geneva, the money of almoſt every country in Europe being current here. They have alſo different ways of reckoning, by livres, and livres current. The different coins are as follow:

The piſtole of gold, worth ten livres of Geneva, is rarely ſeen. The ecu of ſilver. Pieces of 21 ſols, and $10\frac{1}{2}$ ſols, both ſilver. The livre is nominal, and worth two florins. The florin is worth 10 ſols of France, or 12 of Geneva. Pieces of 6 and 3 ſols, $1\frac{1}{2}$ ſol, $\frac{3}{4}$ ſol, and $\frac{1}{2}$ ſol. This laſt is worth 6 deniers of France, or 2 gros of this country. Theſe are all copper waſhed. The Louis d'or is worth 14 livres 10 ſols of Geneva. The French ecu is worth 3 livres $12\frac{1}{2}$ ſols of Geneva. Three livres current of Geneva are worth from $52\frac{1}{2}$ to 56 pence Engliſh, according to the courſe of exchange.

The dreſs of the men at Geneva is chiefly broad cloth, without lace or trimmings, except frogs. That of the women is ſilk in winter, and printed cottons, which they call Indiennes, in ſummer.

The ſituation of Geneva being extremely healthy and delightful, and ſociety of all ſorts good, it cannot but be

be a desirable place of residence for a stranger. The French language is well spoken here; and there is also the most perfect liberty, both civil and religious.

At Ferney, in the vicinity of Geneva, is the tomb of the celebrated Voltaire.

SECTION III.

Character of the Swiss. Wholesome Laws and Prohibitions. Mechanical Genius. Admirable Effects of the Helvetic Union.

THE inhabitants of Switzerland are universally acknowledged to be a brave, hardy, and industrious people; remarkable for their fidelity and zealous attachment to the liberties of their country. Like the Romans of old, they are equally inured to arms and to agriculture. They are, in general, an enlightened people, a taste for literature being universally prevalent among them; and a genuine and unartful good breeding is conspicuous in their gentry.

Sumptuary laws are in force in most parts of Switzerland; and no dancing is allowed but upon particular occasions. Silk, lace, and several other articles of luxury, are totally prohibited in some of the cantons; and even the head dresses of the ladies are regarded. All games of hazard are also strictly prohibited; and as their diversions are chiefly of the active and warlike kind, and their time is not wasted in games of chance, many of them employ part of their leisure in reading, to the great improvement of their understanding. The youth are diligently trained in all the martial exercises.

The mechanical genius of the Swiss is wonderful; and their progress in all the numerous branches of watch-making almost incredible. The first watch seen in these parts was brought from London in 1679, which excited one of the inhabitants to make one. He accomplished his purpose unassisted. A late intelligent traveller observes, that it is a great singularity to see the mechanical arts flourishing amidst rocks; and such an amazing exportation of watches from spots which not many years since was one continued forest.

Amongst the chief of the literati of this country we mention Calvin, who instituted laws for the city of Geneva, which are held in esteem by the most learned of that country: Rousseau, who gave a force to the French language, which it was thought incapable of receiving; together with M. Bonnet; and Messr. de Saussure and De Luc.

We observe lastly, that there is no part of Europe which contains, within the same extent of regions, so many independent commonwealths, and such a variety of different governments, as are collected together in this remarkable country; and yet with such wisdom was the Helvetic Union composed, and so little have the Swiss of late years been actuated by the spirit of conquest, that since the establishment of their general confederacy, they have scarcely had occasion to employ their arms against a foreign enemy, and have had no hostile commotions that were not soon happily terminated.

CHAP. XVII.

ITALY.

SECTION I.

Situation, Extent, Boundaries, Mountains, Rivers, Climate, Soil, Productions, &c.

THIS country, celebrated for having been once the seat of the Roman empire, of the muses, of arms, and of arts, but now considerable so far only as the vestiges of its former greatness can be traced, is situated between 37 and 46 degrees of north lat. and between 7 and 10 degrees of east long. Its length is about 600 miles, and its utmost breadth about 400. Its boundaries are France, Switzerland, and Germany, on the north; the Adriatic on the east; and the Mediterranean on the south and west. Its figure is generally compared to that of a boot.

The chief mountains of Italy are the Appenines and the Alps; the former run the whole length of the country, from north-west to south-east; the latter extend from the river Var, near Nice, to the Adriatic. The principal rivers are the Po, Adiga, Arno, Adda, &c. Besides these, and some other rivers, a great number of lakes are spread throughout the whole country.

The air of Italy is very different, according to the different situations of the several countries contained in it. In those on the north of the Appenines it is more temperate, but in those on the south generally very warm. The air of the Campania of Rome, and of the Ferrarese, is unhealthful, which is owing to the lands not being duly cultivated, nor the marshes drained. That of the other parts is generally pure, dry, and healthy. In summer the heat is very great in the kingdom of Naples, and would be almost intolerable, if it was not somewhat alleviated by the sea-breezes. The soil of Italy, in general, is very fertile, being watered by a great number of rivers. It produces a variety of wines, and the best oil in Europe, excellent silk in abundance, corn of all sorts, but not in such plenty as in some other countries; oranges, lemons, citrons, pomegranates, almonds, raisins, sugar, mulberry-trees without number, figs, peaches, nectarines, apricots, pears, apples, filberds, chesnuts, &c. Most of these fruits were at first imported by the Romans from Asia Minor, Greece, Africa, and Syria, and were not the natural products of the soil. The tender plants are covered in winter on the north-side of the Appenines, but on the south-side they have no need of it. This country also yields good pasture, and abounds with cattle, sheep, goats, buffalos, wild boars, mules, and horses. The forests are well stored with game; and the mountains yield not only mines of iron, lead, allum, sulphur, marble of all sorts, alabaster, jasper, porphyry, &c. but also gold and silver, with a great variety of aromatic herbs, trees, shrubs, and ever-greens, as thyme, lavender, laurel, and bays, wild olive-trees, tamarinds, juniper, oaks, pines, &c.

SECTION II.

Divisions of the Continental Parts of Italy. Particular Description of the several Ports.

WE shall arrange our description of the continental parts of this country under the following heads, viz. The Ecclesiastical States, or Pope's Dominions; the kingdom of Naples; Piedmont; Montferrat, or Montferrat; Milan; Parma and Piacenza; Modena, Mantua, Venice, Genoa, and Tuscany.

The ECCLESIASTICAL STATE, which is situated in the middle of Italy, is 240 miles long, but its breadth greatly varies. The soil, in general, is excellent, but badly cultivated, the people being remarkably idle, and grossly superstitious. The reformation gave a great blow

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blow to the ſpiritual power of the pope. He, however, ſtill poſſeſſes his temporal dominions.

The Campania of Rome is under the pope's immediate government; but the other provinces are governed by legates and vice-legates. The pope holds a conſiſtory of cardinals on eccleſiaſtical affairs; but the cardinals do not meddle with his civil government. The pope's chief miniſter is the cardinal-patron, who amaſſes an immenſe eſtate, if the reign be of any long duration. The cardinal who is choſen pope muſt be an Italian, and at leaſt 55 years of age.

The ſpiritual power of the pope, though far ſhort of what it formerly was, is ſtill conſiderable. The popes's revenue, as a temporal prince, is eſtimated at 1,000,000l. ariſing principally from the monopoly of corn and duties on wine; but, independent of this, he receives conſiderable ſums for indulgencies, diſpenſations, canonizations, &c. He has a conſiderable body of regular troops, tolerably well clothed and paid.

The territory of Bologna, which was once a republic, and afterwards annexed to the papal dominions, contains only one place worthy of mention, viz.

Bologna, a large, rich, and populous city, ſurrounded only by a wall, without baſtions, ditch or citadel. They have very little good architecture or ſculpture in Bologna; but, next to Rome, it boaſts the moſt capital paintings in the world.

The number of churches is upwards of two hundred, ſome of them well built, and richly decorated, but few without good pictures.

Bologna has been famous for cultivating the ſciences ever ſince the reſtoration of learning. It contains an ample library.

The academy of ſciences and belles lettres, conſiſting of twenty-four members, meet here every Thurſday; and from theſe the profeſſors of chemiſtry, military architecture, phyſics, natural hiſtory, geography, and aſtronomy, are taken, who give public lectures in the Inſtitute.

The botanic garden is a dependance upon the Inſtitute.

With ſuch encouragements and opportunities, it is no wonder that Bologna has always men of learning.

It furniſhes alſo muſicians and ſingers for many of the Italian theatres.

The principal palaces of the nobility are the Aldrovandi, Bovi, Magnani, Ramuzzi, Sampieri, Tanari, and Zambeccari. In all theſe are fine collections of pictures.

The Aſinelli tower, built in 1109, is 327 Engliſh feet and a quarter in height. The Gariſenda tower, which was built the year following, is only 153 feet in height.

The Bologneſe put themſelves voluntarily under the protection of the pope in the year 1506, on condition of being governed by their ſenate; of nominating an auditor of the Rota; and having an ambaſſador at Rome. A cardinal legate conſtantly reſides here, and has for his guards a company of Swiſs halberdiers, and another of light horſe.

Citizens wear a cloak when they walk abroad. Women wear a kind of cloſe gown buttoned, with ſleeves down to their wriſts; when they go out they cover themſelves with the zendado.

The manufactures are damaſks, ſattins, taffaties, velvets, crapes, gauzes, and paper. They export hemp, flax, wax, and honey. Their macaroni, tobacco, and ſnuff, are highly eſteemed; and their breed of lap-dogs has been long and generally known. The markets are plentifully ſupplied with proviſions, good in their kind: hog-meat is particularly excellent; and their hams and ſauſages are generally in repute. They alſo excel in ſoap, perfumes, and artificial flowers. They have abundance of walnuts; and their quinces, grapes, melons, and truffles, are remarkably fine.

The principal place in the duchy of Ferrara (which duchy was annexed to the eccleſiaſtical ſtate in 1597) is Ferrara, once a magnificent city, but now greatly fallen to decay.

Romagna, which was given to the ſee of Rome by Pepin, king of France, is a fertile province. The chief places are

Rovena, now a decayed city, but formerly the moſt celebrated of all the Roman ſea-ports. In the large market-place are two lofty pillars of granate, on which are the ſtatues of St. Victor and St. Apollinaris; and alſo a braſs ſtatue of Pope Alexander VII. ſitting, the uſual attitude of the pope in all ſtatues and public monuments. The cathedral is a ſtately old fabric.

Rimini, the ancient Ariminum, on the Adriatic, is now greatly declined, though ſome remains of its ancient ſplendor are ſtill to be ſeen. Behind the Capuchins convent are ſome remains of an amphitheatre; and over the Marecchia is a ſtately bridge of marble, built or repaired by Auguſtus and Tiberius. In the middle of the area, before the council-houſe, is an elegant fountain. The ſplendid library of count Gabalonga is well worth a traveller's notice.

The duchy of Urbino is one of the leaſt fertile in Italy, and does not contain any remarkable place but Urbino, celebrated for having given birth to Polydore Virgil, the hiſtorian, and Raphael, the painter.

The marquiſate of Ancona, on the Adriatic, has a fertile ſoil, and contains

Ancona, a beautiful and convenient harbour; and being a free port, and the only conſiderable one which the pope has in the Adriatic, there is a flouriſhing trade here. The chief exportation is of grain, wool, and ſilk. Ancona appears well from the ſea, but is a moſt wretched town within, full of trade and ſtench. In the chief ſtreet there is room but for one carriage to paſs. The mole is a very fine work, adorned with an antique triumphal arch, of white marble, of good proportions, and well preſerved, erected in honour of Trajan. There is alſo a modern arch, in honour of pope Benedict XIV. by Vanvielli.

Loretto, a ſmall city, 15 miles from Ancona, is the ſee of a biſhop. The circumſtance which renders this city the moſt particularly famous, is the Santa Caſa, the Holy Houſe or Chapel of Our Lady. The walls of the Holy Houſe (as may be eaſily ſeen on the inſide) are of brick, with ſome flat bits of ſtone intermixed. Towards the eaſt end there is a ſeparation made by a grate-work of ſilver: this they call the ſanctuary; and here ſtands the image of the Virgin in ſilver, in a nich made, as they pretend, of cedar of Lebanon, and carved by St. Luke. She has a triple crown on her head, and holds the image of Our Saviour covered with diamonds. In her left hand ſhe carries a golden globe; and two fingers of her right are held up, as in the act of bleſſing. The ſanctuary is crowded with ſixty-two great lamps, of gold and ſilver. One of the golden ones, which was preſented by the republic of Venice, weighs thirty-ſeven pounds. There are alſo angels attending; one of maſſive gold, and two of ſilver; and the walls are covered with plates of ſilver. All who enter the chapel armed are excommunicated. Poor wretches are continually crawling round it on their knees. If the treaſure within the holy walls be ſurpriſing, the poverty without is no leſs ſo. Such ſhoals of beggars, and ſo exceſſively importunate!

The country is delightful and well cultivated, waſhed by two rivers, and diſtributed into hills and vallies, bounded by mountains.

The territory of Perugia contains the lake near which Hannibal defeated the Romans under the conſul Flaminius; and the town of Perugia is only noted for having been once taken by the Goths after a ſeven years ſiege.

The territory of Orvieto contains a town of the ſame name, which is ſupplied with water from a well cut into a rock 250 cubits deep.

The duchy of Spoleto is tolerably fertile, and contains

Spoleto, anciently one of the moſt celebrated municipal towns in Italy, and even now the capital of the duchy. It has a celebrated aqueduct, by which water is conveyed from mount St. Francis over a valley to the city and caſtle.

Terni is a well built and well inhabited town, and the ſee of a biſhop. The ruins of an ancient theatre are ſtill viſible: and not far from hence is the famous caſcade formed by the fall of the river Velino, which ruſhes down a precipice an hundred yards high.

The principal place in the patrimony of St. Peter is Viterbo, the capital, a pretty town, ſituated in a plain, at the foot of the mountain. Several ſquare lofty towers produce an agreeable effect at a diſtance. It is well built; the houſes are in a good taſte. There are ſome pretty fountains, and ſome fronts of churches, in a good ſtile of architecture. The ſtreets are paved wholly with lava, in pieces from four to eight feet in length. Over a river, called Nera, in this part of Italy, are to be ſeen the remains of the bridge of Auguſtus. According to the account of Mr. Addiſon, it is one of the ſtateſieſt ruins in Italy; for though it has no cement, it looks as firm as one entire ſtone. One of the arches remains unbroken.

The Campagna de Roma, anciently Latium, has many lakes, and a rich cultivated ſoil, and contains the following places:

Rome, the capital and ſeat of the Roman empire, and now the head of the Roman Catholic religion.

Nothing can be more magnificent than the entrance into Rome by the Porta del Popolo. The road is fine, the approach beautiful, and the gate handſome. The traveller immediately enters a large area, from the farther ſide of which he ſees the three principal ſtreets of the city diverging, and flanked by the fronts of two handſome churches. In the middle is a noble Egyptian obeliſk, and a fountain.

Rome is about thirteen miles in circuit, meaſuring round the wall, which is ſingle, and without any ditch, defended only by ſome towers and baſtions. The ancient wall of Aurelian yet in great part remains. The city, therefore, is ſtill of the ſame extent, though the preſent population is only about 160,000.

The ſeven hills are the Aventine, Capitoline, Celian, Eſquiline, Palatine, Quirinal, and Viminal; and, beſides theſe, there are Monte Celiolo and Citoria, the Janiculum and Vatican, the Pincian, and the Monte Teſtaccio.

The inhabitants of modern Rome have, in a manner, left the ſeven hills to villas, convents, gardens, and vineyards, in order to inhabit the lower parts; and the Campus Martius is become one of the moſt populous quarters of the city. Theſe hills are much leſs conſiderable than they were anciently, ſince the vallies have been filled up with enormous quantities of rubbiſh.

It would be difficult to convey any idea of the ſmaller and leſs regular ſtreets. In general, however, we cannot avoid obſerving the ſtrange mixture of intereſting and magnificent with common and beggarly objects: palaces, churches, fountains, and the fineſt remains of antiquity, with rags, poverty, and filth.

There are many Piazze, or Places, as the French call them. The principal ornaments of theſe Piazze, or open areas of Rome, are the fountains. That in the Piazza Navona is the moſt magnificent in the whole world. It is a vaſt rock, pierced through and through, ſo as to be divided into four parts, which unite at the top, where the obeliſk is placed. Towards the bottom of each part of the rock is ſeated a coloſſal figure, repreſenting the principal rivers with their attributes.

The abundance of fountains in Rome gives an air of coolneſs, life, and motion, to the whole city: but it is a great miſtake to conclude from thence, as many have done, that it is plentifully ſupplied with good water; for the reverſe is really the caſe.

The river Tibe divides the city, properly ſo called, from the Tranſtevere, or quarter wherein is the church of S. Peter, and the palace of the Vatican. This river is about 315 feet wide, at the bridge of S. Angelo, and is navigable for great barques. The water is yellow and turbid.

There are now three bridges at Rome, viz. that of S. Angelo, anciently Pons Aelius, leading to the caſtle; Ponte Ceſtio, or of S. Bartolomeo, anciently Pons Fabricius; and Ponte Siſto, anciently Pons Janiculenſis. Rome formerly had ſix bridges.

Of the antiquities of Rome the amphitheatre claims the firſt rank. There are conſiderable remains of that which was begun by Veſpaſian, and finiſhed by Domitian, called the Coliſæum. Twelve thouſand Jewiſh captives were employed by Veſpaſian in this building, which is ſaid to have been capable of containing upwards of 60,000 ſpectators. It has been ſtripped of all its magnificent pillars and ornaments at various times, and by various enemies. There are the arches of Conſtantine, Titus, and Septimus Severus. In the Campo Vaccino are the venerable remains of ſeveral ſtately buildings.

The baths of Titus, Caracalla, and Dioclefian, retain ſome veſtiges of their ancient grandeur. Theſe edifices were not merely deſigned for bathing, but for academies, and the gymnaſtic exerciſes; and alſo contained libraries and cabinets of curioſities.

There were ſeveral ſpacious circuſes at Rome. The two noble columns of Trajan and Antoninus are well known; as are the Roman, and ſeveral other Forums in the city. The Mauſoleum of Auguſtus, and that of Adrian, claim the notice of travellers; as do nine Egyptian obeliſks ſet up, and three on the ground.

Of the temples, and, indeed, of all the buildings which ancient Rome has left us, the pantheon is certainly the moſt noble and perfect. The portico has eight pillars in front, and three pillars, with one pilaſter, on the ſides, all of granite, with Corinthian capitals and baſements; but none of them exactly of the ſame ſize. The inſcription is on the frieze. The outſide of the whole building was encruſted with marble. The portico and body of the edifice were probably built at different times. The dome is very plain, but in its glory was probably covered with plates of ſilver. The inſide is handſomely fitted up. Oppoſite to the door is the great altar; and on each ſide of that four other altars. It is at preſent converted into a modern church, which, from its circular figure, is commonly called Rotunda. Here are alſo the ruins of ſeveral temples, theatres, and palaces. The catacombs, or repoſitories for dead bodies, in the neighbourhood of Rome, are curious.

With regard to the modern curioſities of Rome, they are as various and ſingular as the remains of antiquity. It contains 300 churches, filled with all that is rare in architecture, painting, and ſculpture. The church of St. Peter, at Rome, is the moſt aſtoniſhing, bold, and regular fabric, that perhaps ever exiſted; and when examined by the rules of art, the beſt judges aver it may be termed faultleſs.

The Vatican is a vaſt palace, but very irregular, having been built at many different times. It is adorned with the moſt maſterly productions of the pencil; contains a library, compoſed of the choiceſt books and manuſcripts, together with a cabinet replete with all that can gratify the virtuoſo. The pope's ſummer palace is on Monte Cavallo, on the Quirinal Hill. The garden is almoſt a mile round. There are ſome ſtatues in it, a grotto, and a caſſino, called the coffee-houſe. There are ſeveral other palaces, magnificently built, and ſuperbly ornamented.

For the promotion of literature, there are three colleges, and many public libraries, in Rome.

Rome is not a place of amuſement for the gay and diſſipated; no public ſpectacles being allowed, except during the time of the carnival, which laſts from the ſeventh of January to Aſh-wedneſday. Then, indeed, they are attended with an ardour unknown in capitals where the inhabitants are under no ſuch reſtraint. Seven or eight theatres are open; the principal

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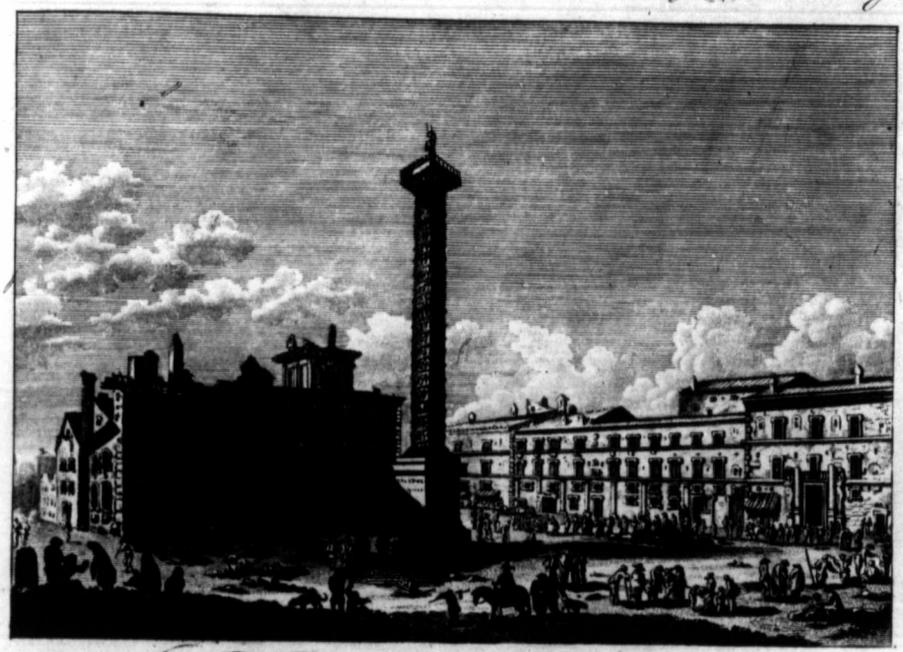

The Pillar of Antonine at Rome.

Trajan's Pillar at Rome.

Grainger sculp.

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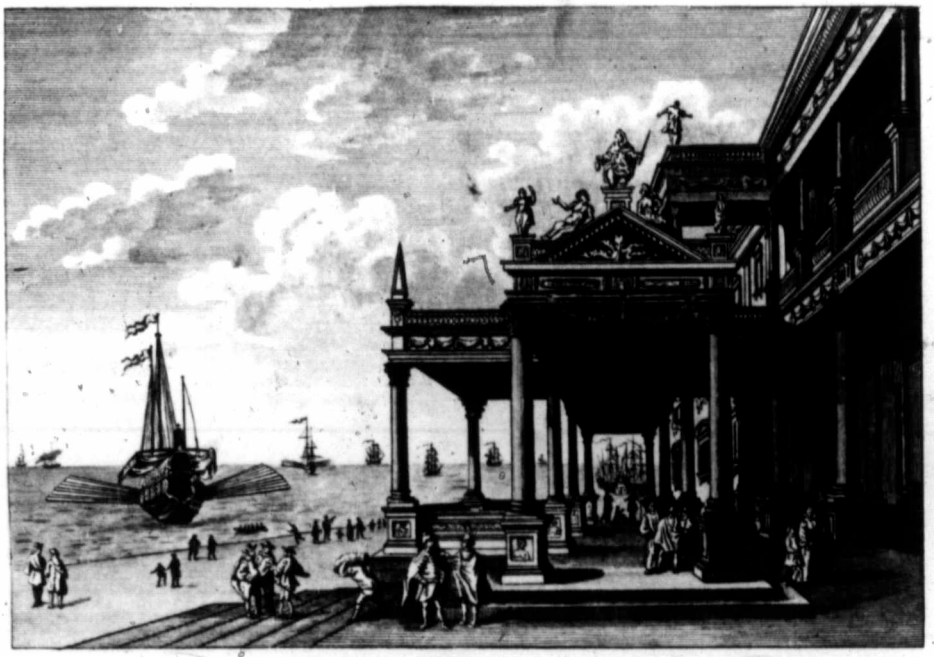

The Palace of Mont Alto at Naples.

The Palace of the Vice Roy at Naples.

cipal of which are the *Argentina*, *Aliberti*, *Tordinone*, and *Capranica*. The two firſt are appropriated to ſerious operas, the third to plays, and the laſt to burlettas. No women are permitted to appear upon the ſtage, but caſtrati play the female parts. During the carnival there are alſo feſtoons or balls, maſquerades, and horſe races.

But though public diverſions are not uſually allowed, except in carnival time, yet the frequency and pomp of religious functions, in ſome degree, make a ſtronger amends.

The common people are in a ferment during all the time of the lottery, which is drawn eight times a year. Such is the rage for it, that the quantity of bread baked in the city is at theſe ſeaſons conſiderably leſs than uſual. In ſhort, it is the locuſt which conſumes what the caterpillar had left.

Rome has ſome manufactures of ſilk, but the material is bad, and, when wrought, it is neither ſightly nor ſerviceable. The only articles of exportation are vitriol, muſical ſtrings, beads, artificial flowers, perfumed powders, pomatums, eſſences, gloves, combs, fans, and ſuch trifles. Medals, ſtatues, buſts, paintings, and *ſtadii* of marbles, make an article of commerce.

Proviſions are plentiful and good. Their *vitella mongana* is particularly excellent, as is alſo their ſwine's fleſh. The worſt meat is mutton. They have capretti, or kid; and the veniſon of wild deer, or capreole, but very lean. Porcupine is alſo ſometimes ſold in the markets. Poultry and wild fowl are fine and plentiful. They eat all ſorts of ſmall birds, down to the wren; and ſeveral birds which we never touch; as hawks, jays, magpies, and woodpeckers. They have a good variety of fiſh, both of the freſh water and of the ſea.

The air of Rome is reckoned good for aſthmatic people in winter. The climate is mild, the froſts ſlight, and the ſnow generally melting as it falls. There are ſometimes thick, ſtinking fogs, but they are not very frequent, and generally diſperſe before noon. In ſummer ſome parts of the city are ſuppoſed to be unwholeſome; nor will the moſt indigent perſon ſleep on a ground floor during this ſeaſon. The country about Rome is moſtly flat, and burnt, being covered with volcanic aſhes, and the hills are calcareous.

Tivoli is about 18 miles from Rome. The ſituation is high; but the town itſelf is a wretched place, made more diſagreeable by a number of forges. The cathedral is built upon the ruins of a temple of Hercules. The ancient name of the place was Tibur. The principal beauty of Tivoli ariſes from the river Anio, now called the Teverone, which, falling headlong about 50 feet down the rock, forms a noble caſcade, and ſeveral leſſer ones, called le Caſcadelle. The latter are extremely pictureſque; as is alſo a deep ravine in the hill, called la Grotta di Nettuno, into which the great caſcade falls. To enrich the view here are ſome fine remains of ancient buildings, as the villa of Mecænas; and particularly the little round temple of the Sibyl, as it is commonly called, but rather of Veſta, one of the moſt elegant remains of Grecian architecture.

The naturaliſt will here take pleaſure in obſerving the continual formation of new Tiburtine ſtone from the depoſite of water deſcending from the calcareous Apennines.

The little republic of St. Marino conſiſts only of a mountain, which yields good wine; but the inhabitants have no other than rain or ſnow water. In the whole territory are only three caſtles, three convents, and five churches. The largeſt of the churches is dedicated to the ſaint, and contains his aſhes and his ſtatue.

The Kingdom of NAPLES is the largeſt ſtate of Italy. It was called formerly Sicily on this ſide the Pharo of Meſſina, whence the king, who likewiſe poſſeſſes Sicily, is called king of the Two Sicilies. The air is hot, and the ſoil fertile; but the number of inſects, reptiles, &c. and the frequent earthquakes, render the country, in general, unpleaſant.

One of the inſects almoſt peculiar to the kingdom of Naples is the *tarantula*, a kind of ſpider, with which it abounds. The perſons bit by this inſect are called by the Italians *tarantolati*. Few of ſuch unhappy perſons can bear the ſight of black or blue; but ſeem delighted with red and green objects. They are alſo ſeized with an averſion to eating fruit or vegetables. A melancholy ſilence, and a fixed eye, are the firſt ſymptoms by which the bite of the tarantula diſcovers itſelf, and the muſic is immediately called in to rouze the patient to a violent motion, and by that means to promote perſpiration and a copious ſweat. The inſtruments chiefly uſed are the guittar, hautboy, trumpet, violin, and Sicilan kettle drum. The country people, who are more or leſs ſkilled in all theſe inſtruments, enforce the operation of their muſic by grimaces and odd geſticulations. The tarantolati, on their ſide, vigorouſly exert themſelves, regulating their motions according to the muſic, till the venom is quite expelled. This exerciſe and cure ſometimes takes up five or ſix days; not that they are kept continually dancing all that time, but, when nature ſeems to be exhauſted, the muſic is ſuſpended, and the patient put to bed, well covered, and a ſudorific cordial adminiſtered. It is remarkable, that the patient, on recovery, remembers nothing of what paſſed during the prevalence of the diſorder; and that if the cure be not perfectly effected, and the poiſon entirely expelled, the ſame ſymptoms return the ſucceeding year, eſpecially during the ſummer heats; and ſome have laboured under this terrible diſorder, at intervals, for ten, twenty, or thirty years.

The king of Naples, or of the Two Sicilies, is an hereditary monarch. The high colleges are the council of ſtate, the privy-council, the treaſury, the Sicily council, the council of war, &c. The title of the king's eldeſt ſon is prince of Calabria.

The city of Naples is one of the moſt agreeable places in the world to reſide in. The climate is mild, the ſituation admirable, the city gay and populous, and the environs beautiful and intereſting. It is about nine Engliſh miles in circuit. The principal ſtreet (Strada Toledo) is about 1170 yards long, wide, ſtraight, and well built. In the heart of the city the ſtreets are narrow, and, becauſe the houſes are high, they are gloomy and cloſe. The pavement of all is a dark lava. The ſquares are generally ſmall and irregular. The fountains are in the ſame bad taſte.

To repel an enemy by ſea, there is, to the weſt, Caſtel del Uovo. Towards the eaſt are ſome batteries, the baſtions of the arſenal, and Caſtel Nuovo. A block-houſe and batteries defend the mouth of the harbour.

The dock-yard and magazines are ſpacious. The harbour is rather too confined. It is entirely the work of art.

Architecture is by no means in a good taſte at Naples. Of 300 churches and upwards, there is not one, with a front or portico, which has any merit: many of them, indeed, preſent nothing but a bare wall.

The civil architecture of Naples is in no better a ſtile than the eccleſiaſtical. Their buildings are heavy, and crowded with gigantic prominences.

The king's palace has a handſome front, decorated with three orders, Doric, Ionic, and Corinthian, a magnificent ſtaircaſe, and apartments ſuitable to the inhabitants. The pictures in it are but few.

The palaces of the nobility are large, with long ſuits of apartments, and a great gallery for the reception of company.

I Studii Publici are the buildings of the univerſity, made from deſigns of Fontana. The front is adorned with antique ſtatues, found at Cuma. Profeſſors read lectures here in theology, medicine, politics, law, mathematics, phyſic, hiſtory, the humanities, and languages.

The principal libraries are the king's; that of the Seggio, or St. Angelo á Nido; S. Philippo Neri; the prince

prince of Tarſia; the convents of Monte Oliveto, S. Giovanni di Carbonara, &c.

There are near forty hoſpitals and conſervatories at Naples, and yet no where more beggars and idle people in the ſtreets. There is an annual proceſſion at Naples, made with the double view of exhibiting ſigns of penitence in the proſtitutes, and of collecting money for their ſupport, or, as ſome are of opinion, for the emolument of the prieſt who attends upon the occaſion; but candour ſhould lead us to ſuppoſe that a part only of the charitable donations are appropriated to the uſe of the prieſt.

The great theatre of St. Carlo, adjoining to the royal palace, is vaſt, noble, and elegant.

Beſides the great theatre, there is Teatro de' Fiorentini, and Teatro Nuovo, leſs, and, notwithſtanding its name, older than the laſt.

There are three conſervatories in this city, for the education of boys in the profeſſion of muſic.

The carnival begins on S. Charles's day, and continues till Lent.

The common people of Naples are very devout, or rather ſuperſtitious.

Naples, with reſpect to its municipal police, is divided into ſix ſeggii, or wards, five of which are governed by a committee of nobles. The laſt belongs excluſively to the plebeians, who are diſtributed into 29 ottine, or quarters, under the direction of an eletto, or mayor, with his aſſiſtants.

This city has neither watchmen or lamps; but of late years darkneſs has been diſpelled in many ſtreets, by the piety of a Dominican, who has perſuaded the people to ſubſcribe oil for lamps, to burn before images. He fixes them up in the moſt convenient places, and thus turns their devotion to public account.

Proviſions are plentiful and cheap: poultry, game, and fiſh, are abundant; fruits and garden-ſtuff are to be had all winter in ſo favourable a climate. The nobility are fond of ſplendor and ſhow. About an hundred of them have the title of prince; a ſtill greater number bear that of duke.

In the midſt of idleneſs fewer riots or outrages happen than might be expected. This is owing partly to the national character of the Italians, and partly to the common people here being univerſally ſober. Their great luxury is iced water; and nothing would be ſo likely to raiſe a mutiny in Naples as a ſcarcity of ice. It all comes from the mountains about eighteen miles off, where pits or reſervoirs are made to preſerve it; and it is ſent to the city only as it is wanted.

The environs of Naples are highly intereſting to the claſſical ſcholar, the naturaliſt, and the antiquary.

In order to ſurvey Mount Veſuvius you go either to Portici or Reſina, a little more than four miles from the extremity of Naples; and there you may hire mules and guides. When you have rode as far as you can, you will proceed on foot, the guides aſſiſting you in the aſcent, by faſtening a girdle round you, and pulling you along; unleſs you prefer truſting to your own ſtrength, aided by a good ſtaff, which you will find much better. The cone of the mountain is covered with looſe aſhes and cinders: it is therefore very fatiguing to aſcend it, for you ſink up to the knees, and go two ſteps backwards for every three that you ſet. The way to get forwards is not to be in a hurry, but to go on gently, and often to take breath. After all, you will find it great labour, without much inſtruction or amuſement; for, in general, you will not be able to diſcern much of the crater. However, favourable circumſtances may, perhaps, allow you a peep into the fiery gulph; or, at leaſt, if the weather ſhould be fine, the view of the ſurrounding country may pay you for your trouble. To a naturaliſt, a ſurvey and ſcrutiny of the ſeveral ſtreams of lava that have flowed from this volcano will be much more to the purpoſe. Some of theſe ſtreams are ſix or ſeven miles in length, and have loſt themſelves in the ſea; whilſt others, arreſted in their courſe, have accumulated in the vallies. There are ſhops, both at Portici and Naples, where ſpecimens of all the varieties of lava, and of the other ſubſtances, which are thrown out in the eruptions, both rough and poliſhed, may be ſeen and purchaſed. It will take an hour and a half to go from Portici to the foot of the cone; a little more than an hour to aſcend it; and about half that time to come down again.

Veſuvius is computed to meaſure 24 miles round at its baſe, and to be 3694 feet perpendicular height above the level of the ſea.

In the road leading from the ſuburbs of Chaia to the grotto del Monte di Pauſilipo, are the remains of a tomb or mauſoleum, ſuppoſed to be that of Virgil, but without any foundation. It was originally in the form of a pyramid, but now reſembles a large oven. "It is certain (ſays Mr. Addiſon) that Virgil was buried at Naples, but almoſt as certain that his tomb ſtood on the other ſide of the town."

The cave of Pauſilipo is a broad, ſtrait, ſubterraneous road, hewn through a mountain. At coming out the road leads to the lake Agano, which is circular, and a mile in circumference. In the midſt are the ſudatories of St. Germano, or ſtone apartments, where the hot ſtreams which ariſe produce a profuſe perſpiration. Hence they are much frequented in various diſorders. In a rock near the banks of the lake is the Dog's Grotto, ſo called becauſe a dog is always made uſe of to ſhew ſtrangers the aſtoniſhing effects of the vapour in this cavity; for if a dog's noſe be held in the vapour, which floats within a foot of the ſurface of the grotto, the animal looſes all ſigns of life; but, on being taken out of the grotto, or thrown into the lake, he revives.

Puzzoli, or Puteoli, glories in being the place where the firſt Chriſtian community in Italy was formed; for St. Paul, in his journey to Rome, we are told, found brethren in it. The earth of Puteoli has this peculiar property, that it hardens in the water, and, after lying in it ſome time, looks more like ſtone than earth. In the neighbourhood is what the ancients called the Elyſian Fields, from the ſweetneſs of the climate, the verdure, and fertility of the ſoil, &c.

Baiæ, the celebrated winter retreat of the Old Romans, ſtood on a bay about two miles and a half weſt-north-weſt from Puzzuoli, but not the leaſt veſtige of it is now to be ſeen.

Salerno, the capital of the Principato Citra, or Principality on this ſide the Appennines, is well fortified, has a pretty good harbour and caſtle, but little trade. Here, however, is the ſee of an archbiſhop, with an univerſity, and ſeveral annual fairs, which are much reſorted to, and very profitable to it.

Otranto, anciently called Hydruntum, is a well fortified city, and the ſee of an archbiſhop, on an iſland at the mouth of the Adriatic, which is joined by a bridge to another iſland, and that by a bridge to the continent.

PIEDMONT, part of the ancient Lombardy, is a very fruitful country; and the Piedmonteſe ſilk is deemed the beſt in Italy. From the mountain Rochemelon, which takes a whole day to aſcend, is a moſt extenſive and romantic proſpect. Annually, on the fifth of Auguſt, vaſt crowds go up to hear maſs ſaid before a ſtatue of the Virgin Mary on the ſummit. The inhabitants, and even the horſes and dogs, are ſubject to the ſame kind of wens in the throat as the people about the Alps.

Turin, the capital of Piedmont, and reſidence of the king of Sardinia, ſtands at the conflux of the Po and Dora. It is ſmall, but ſtrong, and very populous. Within the city are 48 churches and convents, and ſome very fine ſtreets, particularly Rue Neuve, and Rue de Po. Here are likewiſe many fine ſquares, ſeveral magnificent palaces, beſides that of the king, a ſuperb opera houſe, an arſenal, a royal printing houſe, an univerſity, which is a quadrangle, and one of the fineſt buildings in

in the city. The king's palace is elegant. The apartments contain a great collection of pictures, amongſt which ſome are excellent. From a canal cut from the river Dora, water is conveyed by an aqueduct into the city, and afterwards diſtributed at pleaſure through every ſtreet. Here are a fine citadel, an univerſity, library, and many charitable foundations. In the neighbourhood of Turin are many beautiful villas, convents, and other buildings.

Suſa, on the Dora, contains the remains of a triumphal arch, erected in honour of Auguſtus Cæſar. About a quarter of a league from it ſtands Fort Brunette, hewn out of a rock, with all its outworks.

Nice is a ſmall ſea-port on the Mediterranean, at the mouth of the Paulon. It has an indifferent harbour, is a free port, and the ſee of a biſhop.

MONTSERRAT, or MONTFERRAT, a duchy ſituated weſt of Milan, is 62 miles long, 48 broad, and very fertile. It contains a few fortified towns, not remarkable. The principal of them, Caſal, on the Po, 42 miles eaſt of Turin, is the ſee of a biſhop, ſuffragan to Milan. Aleſſandria has a ſtrong citadel, and a garriſon conſiſting of five regiments of infantry, and a detachment of cavalry. There is an opera here during the two fairs, in April and October; but the place is neither large or remarkable. The principal building is the town-houſe in the great ſquare, by the cathedral, a gothic edifice, which contains nothing to amuſe a ſtranger.

Savoy is a duchy; the heir apparent to the crown of Sardinia always having the title of duke of Savoy, and prince of Piedmont. It is ſituated between France, Piedmont, and the lake of Geneva, being near 90 miles long, and upwards of 70 broad. It lies among the Alps, and conſequently is mountainous and ſterile. The roads over the Alps are diſagreeable and dangerous, eſpecially as huge maſſes of ſnow, called by the Italians avalanches, and the fragments of rocks, frequently roll down into them from the impending precipices. The way of travelling is either in ſledges, chairs, or on the backs of mules. In ſome places the path on the brink of the precipices is ſo narrow, that there is but juſt room for a ſingle perſon to paſs. It begins to ſnow on theſe mountains commonly about the beginning of October. In the months of July, Auguſt, and September, many of them yield very fine graſs, with a great variety of flowers and herbs; and others box-wood, walnuts, chelnuts, and pines. The height and different combinations of theſe mountains, their towering ſummits riſing above one another, and covered with ſnow, the many cataracts or falls of water, the noiſe and rapidity of the river Arc, the froth and green tincture of its water, the echoes, and the numerous ſtreams tumbling from cliff to cliff, form altogether a very romantic ſcene. The ſurface of the glaciers, or ice vallies, appears like a ſea, or lake; and the air here, even in July and Auguſt, is exceeding cold.

The inhabitants of Savoy (the better people excepted) ſpeak a corrupt French. In their diſpoſitions, however, they reſemble the Germans more than the French. Great numbers of the mountaineers, of both ſexes, are deformed, and particularly diſfigured with wens in the throat, which is the only inconvenience they ſuffer from this ſtrange diſorder, as the wens are not in the leaſt painful.

Chambery, though the capital of Savoy, affords nothing worth ſeeing. The ſituation, indeed, is fine, in a wide, delightful valley, where there is the greateſt variety of objects that a fine country and mountains can produce: but it is a poor dirty town; the houſes dark, the ſtreets narrow, and the convents and other public buildings miſerable. The remainder of the ducal palace is a caſtle: over the gate-way are the governor's lodgings, commanding the town and adjacent country.

MILAN, one of the fineſt provinces of Italy, is ſituated to the north of the Appennine Mountains, being near 100 miles long, and about 100 broad. It is fertile and well watered, containing, independent of ſeveral rivers, ſome lakes, particularly lake Lago-Maggiore, which contains the Baromean Iſlands, viz. Itolo Bella, and Itolo Madre, the beauty of which almoſt exceeds imagination. Art and nature ſeem to have vied with each other in embelliſhing them. In each of them is a palace, with beautiful gardens, belonging to the Baromean family. The water of the lake is clear, of a greeniſh colour, and abounds with fiſh. The hills, with which it is ſurrounded, preſent a moſt charming landſcape, being planted with vines and cheſnut trees, interſperſed with ſummer-houſes. This province belongs to the emperor.

Milan, the capital, is a large walled city, with a rampart and citadel. It is governed by a preſident and council. Here are many churches, palaces, convents, hoſpitals, &c. The cathedral is a vaſt pile, all of marble. The dome, by Brunelleſcho, is in the middle of the croſs; and immediately under it is an opening, ſurrounded with rails, to give light to the ſubterraneous chapel, where repoſes the body of S. Carlo Barromeo, in a caſe of cryſtal, ſet in ſilver gilt. In the Ambroſian college, founded by Frederick Baromeo, 16 profeſſors teach gratis. In the ſame college is alſo an academy of painting, with a muſeum, and a library, containing a vaſt number of printed books and manuſcripts; among the laſt of which is a tranſlation of Joſephus's Hiſtory of the Jews, done by Ruffinus about 1200 years ago, and written on the bark of a tree. The ſeminary for ſciences, the college of the nobles, the Helvetian college, and the mathematical academy, are noble foundations, and ſtately buildings. Of the hoſpitals the moſt remarkable are the Lazaretto, and that called the Great Hoſpital. In a void ſpace in one of the ſtreets of Milan, where ſtood the houſe of a barber, who had conſpired with the commiſſary of health to poiſon his fellow-citizens, is erected a pillar, called Colonna Infame, with an inſcription, to perpetuate the memory of the execrable deſign. The environs of this city are very pleaſant, being adorned with beautiful ſeats, gardens, orchards, &c.

Pavia, on the Teſſin, over which it hath a ſtone bridge of ſix arches, is an old, ſpacious, but thinly inhabited city. Not far from the city is a magnificent Carthuſian monaſtery, called Certoſa, founded by John Galeazzo Viſconti, who died in the year 1494, and has an elegant monument of white marble erected to his memory in the church. The park, in which the convent ſtands, is of great extent. There is an univerſity at Pavia, conſiſting of ſeven colleges.

Cremona, on the Po, is the ſee of a biſhop, and ſtrongly fortified. It has a bridge of boats over the river, an univerſity, a ſuperb cathedral, many other churches, convents, chapels, &c.

PARMA and PIACENZA are united Duchies. Parma is about four miles in circuit, and contains 37,000 inhabitants. There is no church, palace, or convent, that is worth ſeeing, and no appearance of a court. The cathedral is a curious, heavy, dark, gothic building. The famous painting, by Corregio, in the dome, is much damaged. The ducal palace is now in great part pulled down. The theatre is all of wood, and, in general, finely imagined

Piacenza is about 200 yards from the Po; a town of great note and antiquity, but of late much decayed and depopulated. It has no architecture, long ugly ſtreets, and paltry ſquares. Moſt of the churches are embelliſhed with paintings of the Bologna ſchool, the Caracci and their diſciples. The Palazzo Publico, or town-hall, on the piazza, is a curious building. In the ſame ſquare are the equeſtrian ſtatues in bronze, of Aleſſandro I. and his ſon Ranuccio Farneſe; either by Giovanni Bologna, or his pupil Moca. The ducal palace is by Vignola: it is of brick, and only a third of it finiſhed. The theatre adjoins to it.

The duchies of Parma and Piacenza have ever undergone the ſame revolutions, and are now in the Spaniſh family, by their marrying the heireſs of Farneſe. Their extent is 56 Engliſh miles from eaſt to weſt, and 44 from north to ſouth. The ſoil is fertile; the paſtures and cattle fine; ſalt-works and minerals abound; as alſo mines of copper and iron in the Appennines.

Theſe duchies are noted for the number and quality of their cheeſes, called Parmeſan, and much eſteemed for their excellent flavour.

MODENA, which is ſituated eaſt of Parma, abounds with all the neceſſaries of life, many minerals, petrefactions, &c. It is well watered, and the duke is a vaſſal of the German empire.

Modena, the capital, is large, populous, and fortified, but not handſome. It is the ſee of a biſhop, and has a large unwieldy cathedral. This city hath given birth to ſeveral celebrated perſons, particularly Taſſo, the poet; Correggio, the great painter; Sigonius, the civilian and hiſtorian; da Vignola, the architect; and Monte uculi, the Imperial general. The ducal palace is a noble edifice, in which, among the other fine pictures, the birth of Chriſt, by Correggio, called la Notte Felice, is much celebrated. The only manufacture for which this city is noted is that of maſks, of which great numbers are exported.

Mirandola is the ſee of a biſhop, and the capital of the principality to which it gives name, and which, for a long time, belonged to the noble family of Pico. Of this family and city was the famed Picus de Mirandola, whoſe works are well known among the learned; and being printed in a large and ſmall character, give name to the types which printers call double and ſingle pica.

The little principalities of Maſſa and Carrara were, for a conſiderable time, under the Genoeſe juriſdiction. Afterwards they belonged to the houſe of Malaſpina, then to that of Cibo, the daughter and heireſs of which was married to the hereditary prince of Modena, who thereby became lord of theſe countries, which are contiguous to one another, and very fruitful. They both have their names from their capitals, and lie on the Tuſcan Sea. Maſſa, ſituated on the river Frigido, about three miles from the ſea, is the ſee of a biſhop, ſuffragan to the archbiſhop of Piſa, and has a ducal palace. Carrara is a ſmall, neat town, on the little river Lavenza, four miles from Maſſa, and as many from the ſea, at the foot of ſome high mountains, which yield a fine ſort of marble, that brings in a conſiderable income to the duke.

MANTUA is about 60 miles long, but not above ſeven broad. It is well watered, fertile, and belongs to the houſe of Auſtria.

Mantua, the capital, is very ancient, having been founded prior to Rome. It is ſurrounded by a moraſs, formed by the overflowing of the Mincio, and can be approached only by long bridges or cauſeways. It is about four miles in circumference. Some of the ſtreets are wide and ſtrait, with a few good houſes; but they are generally unequal, and moſtly indifferent.

There are 18 pariſh churches at Mantua, and 14 convents. The cathedral is ſpacious, and has five ailes. Giulio Romano was the architect, and alſo painted the tribuna, with a part of the cieling. In the upper ſacriſty is a night piece of the temptation of S. Antony, by Paolo Veroneſe.

A little way from Mantua is Pietola, formerly Andes, the village where Virgil was born; and near it is a grotto, to which that great poet is ſaid to have often retired for ſtudy.

VENICE roſe from a very ſmall beginning to great conſequence That cluſter of little iſlands, where the city of Venice now ſtands, was originally inhabited only by fiſhermen: but, when Italy was invaded firſt by Alaric, the Goth, and afterwards by Attali, the Hun, great numbers of the people fled thither for ſhelter with all their wealth. From that time a city gradually roſe, grew powerful from its ſituation, and opulent from commerce. A republic was formed; trade furniſhed the people with riches, riches gave birth to ambition, ambition urged them to conqueſt, and conqueſt procured them additional territories.

The government of Venice, after many revolutions, was at laſt ſettled in an ariſtocratical form, and the ſupreme authority veſted in the nobles. Theſe have the title of Excellency, and wear, as a mark of diſtinction, black furred gowns, reaching to their heels, with long caps and perriwigs. At the head of the government is the doge, whoſe office was once hereditary, and power abſolute; but the former is now elective, and the latter very much circumſcribed. Though the power of the doge is ſmall, his ſtate and retinue are ſplendid. His title is that of Serenity, and his office for life. He is ſaid to be a king with regard to his robes, a ſenator in the council-houſe, a priſoner in the city, and a private man out of it. Though he may be depoſed, he cannot reſign his dignity. The inquiſition is under great reſtrictions here. The principal Venetian order of knighthood is that of St. Mark, the badge of which is a large gold medal pendant from the breaſt. The order of Conſtantine knights wear a croſs hanging from a gold chain.

The Venetians can equip a formidable fleet. The army conſiſts of between 20,000 and 30,000 men, principally Swiſs and Dalmatians; and the commander in chief, ſtiled Capitano, is always a foreigner of diſtinction. The ordinary revenues of the ſtate amount annually to about 1,200,000l. ſterling, and ariſe chiefly from the cuſtoms, and duties on ſalt.

Venice, the capital, is one of the fineſt cities in the world; and certainly the moſt ſingular, with reſpect to its ſituation; being built on piles, in the midſt of ſhallows, called the Lagunes. The great canal, which divides the city into two almoſt equal parts, in the form of an S, is generally about an hundred paces over. The famous bridge of the Rialto is nearly in the middle: it is of one arch, 89 feet wide; and a double row of ſhops is built upon it. They reckon 400 canals forming communications all over the city; and bridges many more in number. The main city is ſurrounded with a multitude of iſlands, many of them occupied by convents.

The buildings, pictures, public entertainments, riches, and government of Venice, are all intereſting objects to a ſtranger. The ſingular approach to this fine city muſt be always ſtriking, both from its novelty and beauty. A conſiderable time is required to ſee all that is curious in Venice: almoſt all the churches and ſchools, and many of the palaces, have ſomething to attract notice. Every body knows the rank which the Venetian ſchools of architecture and painting hold with perſons of taſte.

The churches are remarkable for pictures and good architecture.

The palace of S. Mark, or the ducal palace, is very ſpacious. Beſides the apartments of the doge, there are alſo halls and chambers for the ſenate, and all the different councils and tribunals. The treaſury of S. Mark is very rich in jewels and relics. To have leave to ſee it, you muſt apply to one of the procurators of S. Mark. The palaces of the nobility at Venice are in an elegant ſtile of architecture: the fronts are enriched with columns to each ſtory; the orders conſequently are ſmall, but then each ſtory is ſupported in a diſtinct and natural manner. One of the ſingularities of this ſingular city is its conſervatories, and muſical ſchools or academies, for inſtructing young women in muſic: of theſe there are four.

The Piazza di S. Marco is the only open area in Venice large enough for a conſiderable number of people to aſſemble in, and walk about at their eaſe. This being the only place of public reſort, there is a great

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A View from the Column of S.t Mark to the Dalmatian Wharf in the City of Venice.

A View from the Column of S.t Theodore to the entrance of the great Canal in the City of Venice.

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great variety of objects aſſembled in it. In the evening it is crowded with all ſorts of people; and in fine weather numbers paſs the greateſt part of the night there. The nobles and wealthy people ſometimes prefer little apartments of their own, neatly fitted up, but without magnificence, where they may receive a few friends in a more eaſy manner than they could do at their palaces. Theſe are their caſſinos; where, inſtead of going home to a formal ſupper, and returning to this place of general reſort, they order refreſhments, and amuſe themſelves with cards. That theſe caſſinos may be occaſionally uſed for the purpoſes of intrigue is not improbable; but that this is the general purpoſe for which they are frequented is certainly falſe.

There are no leſs than ſeven theatres at Venice; one for the ſerious opera, two for comic operas, and four play-houſes. It is the cuſtom to go maſked during the carnival, in autumn, and at the Aſcenſion: with a maſk, and a ſilk cloak, a man is then ſufficiently dreſſed for any aſſembly in Venice. Maſks in character are uſed only three or four weeks before Lent.

The Arſenal is on an iſland, about three miles in compaſs. Here are docks for the gallies and men of war, and repoſitories for all ſorts of military and naval ſtores. Here alſo they build their men of war under cover; caſt cannon; make cables, ſails, anchors, &c. The arms are arranged in the armories, as in other arſenals. The Bucentoro, or ſtate galley of the republic, is laid up here. It never goes out but when it carries the doge to the eſpouſals of the Adriatic. When the weather is favourable, the ceremony of the eſpouſals is performed on Aſcenſion-day. The ſolemnity is announced in the morning by ringing of bells, and firing of cannon. About noon the doge, with the pope's nuncio and the patriarch on each ſide of him, attended by a numerous party of the ſenate and clergy, goes on board. The veſſel is rowed a little way into the ſea, accompanied by the ſplendid yachts of the foreign ambaſſadors, the gondolas of the Venetian nobility, and an incredible number of ſmall veſſels of every kind, many of them covered with canopies of ſilk or rich ſtuffs, with the gondoliers in ſumptuous liveries. A band of muſic plays, while the Bucentoro, and its train, ſlowly move towards the Lido. The doge drops a ring into the ſea, pronouncing theſe words; "*Deſponſamus te mare in ſignum veri perpetuique diminii.*" He then returns in the ſame ſtate, inviting thoſe who accompany him in the galley to dinner. The day following the fair begins at S. Mark, which laſts ten days.

One of the great ſingularities of Venice is its gondolas, or long narrow boats, which have a room in the middle, ſix feet by four, covered with black cloth, and with ſliding windows. Two perſons ſit very commodiouſly at the end and two others may ſit on each ſide. They are rowed either by one or two gondoliers ſtanding. Theſe gondolas are the only carriages at Venice, and there are ſtands of them every where, as there are of hackney coaches at London. The gondoliers are robuſt, good humoured, and lively; pique themſelves upon the quickneſs of their repartees, and are eſteemed for their fidelity and attachment.

In fine weather they frequently challenge one another to a conteſt. They put up a little flag, or a bough for a prize, which they diſplay the greateſt ardour to obtain. If any perſon of conſequence, or a ſtranger, ſhows any deſire to ſee the conteſt, arrangements are made for a more orderly courſe, and the city is amuſed with a regata. But, on particular occaſions, a grand regata is ſometimes exhibited, under the direction, and at the expence of government. On theſe public occaſions the competitors are choſen from families of the firſt reputation among the gondoliers. When the day arrives their relations encourage them, by calling to mind the triumphs of their families: the women preſent the oar; and religion has its ſhare in the preparations. The courſe is about four miles, along the great canal, and back again. The prizes are four, marked by flags of different colours. The great canal, upon theſe occaſions, is covered with barges, boats, and gondolas; and on each ſide are placed bands of muſic.

One of the principal manufactories at Venice is that of glaſs, on the iſland of Murano. They blow large mirrors, and make abundance of trinkets (*margaritine*) and flowers to decorate luſtres, and for noſegays to adorn the churches. They export little now but to the Levant.

Printing alſo ſtill makes one of the chief branches of trade. Few countries make better velvets or ſilk ſtockings. The wax brought from Dalmatia, Greece, and all the Levant, employs ſeveral manufactories. Jewellery forms a conſiderable branch of foreign commerce. Drugs are imported from the Levant, and are eſteemed excellent: their Theriaca is in great reputation. Their maraſquin, or cherry water, and their liquors, are famous. Though they have nothing within themſelves, yet no city is better furniſhed with the neceſſaries and luxuries of life from the Paduan and Poleſin.

The territory of Padua is 35 miles long, 28 broad, and exceeding fertile.

Padua, the capital, is ſituated on the Brenta, 34 miles eaſt of Venice, and has many churches, hoſpitals, and convents; but the ſtreets are narrow and dirty. The univerſity, with the public ſchools, muſeum, &c. is one of the firſt objects of curioſity. The chemical laboratory, with a collection of minerals, has been lately eſtabliſhed by the preſent profeſſor of chemiſtry. The anatomical theatre is curiouſly fitted up, to hold a multitude of ſpectators in a little compaſs; but it is ſmall and dark. The muſeum of natural curioſities was collected by Antonio Valliſnieri. The botanic garden is a very good one, and arranged according to the ſyſtem of Tournefort. The œconomical garden, inſtituted for experiments in huſbandry, is in very good condition, under the care of an active naturaliſt. Padua has always had men of learning and eminence. It was the birth place of Livy: Petrarch was a canon of the cathedral: Galileo lived here: and it lately poſſeſſed Tartini.

There is a cloth manufactory in the city for home conſumption. But the great number of beggars with which the place ſwarms is a ſtrong indication that trade and manufactures are not in a flouriſhing condition.

In the environs of Padua the Euganean mountains will attract the notice of the naturaliſt: they are extinct volcanos, and full of all the productions of ſubterraneous fires. A very intereſting excurſion alſo may be made to the hot baths of Abano, four or five miles from Padua; and to Petrarch's villa and monument at Arqua.

Verona, on the Adige, is a large, ſtrong, finely ſituated city. Over the river are four bridges, of which that which leads to the caſtle is much admired. The caſtles are three in number. The ſtreets are narrow and dirty, and the houſes mean. The beſt ſtreet in the city is that called the Corſo, where horſe and foot races are ſometimes run. The largeſt ſquare is that called Piazza d'Armi, where the annual fairs were formerly kept, in April and Autumn. The Scaliger family were formerly lords of Verona; and in the church of St. Maria Antica are ſome monuments of the family, with their arms. In the town-houſe are the ſtatues of five celebrated perſons, natives of Verona, viz. the poets Catullus and Æmilius Marcus, the hiſtorian Cornelius Nepos, Pliny the elder, and Vetruvius the architect. Here are ſeveral academies for the improvement of muſic, polite exerciſes, &c. an elegant theatre, and a Roman amphitheatre in fine preſervation.

The Vicentine territory is well watered, fertile, and healthy, and the wine is admirable.

Vicenza, the capital, is charmingly ſituated between two mountains on a large plain. Though but four miles round, it contains between thirty and forty thouſand ſouls. It is the native place of Palladio; and the beſt works of this celebrated architect make the great ornament of the city.

Teatro

Teatro Olympico is one of the fineſt ſpecimens of modern architecture: it was begun early in 1588, the very year that Palladio died. The houſe in which the architect himſelf lived was built by him, and is no leſs modeſt than elegant.

Vicenza, though of no extraordinary extent, has above ſixty churches, convents, and hoſpitals.

A naturaliſt will viſit the Grotta de Cavoli, the mineral waters of Recoaro, the tepid waters of S. Pancrazio di Barbarano, the hills of Bretto, and the mountains to the north of the city, in which are abundance of ſhells, petrefactions, &c.

In the volcanic mountains near Vicenza are nodules of chalcedony, from the ſize of a pea to the diameter of an inch, bedded in the lava: they are commonly hollow; and that hollow ſometimes has water in it, and they are then called enhydri.

Theſe Vicentine hills are calcareous, furniſhing fine red, yellow, and variegated marbles; and have been ſhattered by violent volcanos.

Breſciano territory, which is tolerably fertile, and well watered, contains no place worth obſerving, but

Breſcia, its capital, ſtanding in a pleaſant plain on the little river Garza. It is very populous, and drives a conſiderable trade in fire-arms, ſwords, knives, and other cutlery wares. They make here alſo linen cloth, and deal in many other kinds of merchandize. The caſtle ſtands on a rock, and commands the whole town; and the arſenal is well furniſhed with warlike ſtores.

The diſtrict of Bergamaſco is, in general, barren, though well watered; and the inhabitants are ſubject to the ſame kinds of wens in the throat as the Savoyards. It only contains Bergama, a fortified town at the foot of the Alps.

Crema, in the territory of Cremano, which is fruitful and pleaſant, is ſituated on the Serio, ſtrong, handſome, the ſee of a biſhop, and famed for a linen manufactory.

Marca Trevigiana is ſo fertile a diſtrict as to have obtained the name of a continued garden. Treviſo, the capital, is an ancient, ſtrong, neat, but populous place.

Patria del Friuli is the northern verge of Italy, and belongs partly to the Venetians, and partly to the Auſtrians. It is very fertile, but does not contain any remarkable place, except

Udino, a conſiderable city on the river or canal La Roia. It hath a fine caſtle, with ſeveral handſome churches, palaces, and convents; beſides a college for law, and an academy for martial exerciſes.

Iſtria is a fruitful peninſula on the Adriatic, belonging partly to the Venetians, and partly to the Auſtrians. It is fertile, though hilly; but the air is unwholeſome.

Capo de Iſtria is a ſtrong town on an iſland in the gulph, ſo near the continent as to be joined by a bridge. It is the ſee of a biſhop, contains many convents, and has a conſiderable trade in ſalt.

Lucca is intereſting as being the capital of a little republic, which, for its extent, is the richeſt and beſt peopled ſtate of Italy. The territory is forty miles in length, and fifteen in breadth, containing about 400 ſquare miles. An air of chearfulneſs and plenty appears among the people, and their ſcanty ſoil is improved to the utmoſt. The mountains are covered with vines, olives, cheſnuts, and mulberries: their olives and oil are in great eſteem. Towards the ſea much cattle is fed in the meadows and marſhes. No beggars or idle people are to be ſeen in this republic; nor has luxury yet corrupted their manners. The habit of ceremony is black; and the Gonfaloniere is the only perſon who wears lace. There are no titles, and nobody wears a ſword.

The capital city has neither good ſtreets, or handſome buildings. Round the ramparts is a pleaſant walk or drive, of three miles in extent; and here the company aſſemble after dinner, or in the evening. The climate is temperate, and the country round delightful, ornamented with abundance of charming country houſes.

GENOA is greatly degenerated from its former ſplendor. The government is ariſtocratical. The doge, or duke, is choſen only for two years. The legiſlative power is lodged in the great council. The adminiſtration is veſted in a doge, and a proper council. The doge has the title of Serenity during his office. The great council make laws and raiſe money; the leſſer declare war, proclaim peace, and form alliances.

The Genoeſe territories are 160 miles in length, but do not exceed 25 in breadth. They extend along that part of the Mediterranean called the Gulph of Genoa, and are divided into two diſtricts, viz. the eaſtern coaſt and the weſtern coaſt. The former contains

Genoa, the capital, which ſtands on the coaſt of the Mediterranean. As it is partly ſituated on a declivity, it appears to great advantage from the ſea. It is defended on the land ſide by a double wall. The New and Balbi Streets conſiſt each of a double row of magnificent palaces; the other ſtreets are crooked and narrow; but the ſuburb of San Pietra d' Arena contains many noble buildings. Here are ſeveral palaces, churches, convents, hoſpitals, &c. many of which are ſuperbly built of marble. The palace where the doge reſides, and where the great and little council, and the two colleges of the procuratori and governatori aſſemble, is a large ſtone building in the centre of the city: it contains ſome fine paintings in freſco, two ſtatues of Andrew and John Doria in white marble, and an arſenal amply ſtored. Of the churches the fineſt are thoſe of the Annunciation, St. Mary Carignan, St. Dominic, and St. Martha. In the cathedral is a diſh made of a ſingle emerald. All the inhabitants here except the principal ladies, who are carried in chairs, walk on foot on account of the narrowneſs or ſteepneſs of the ſtreets. The fortifications of the city towards the ſea are remarkably ſtrong. There are two fine ſtone bridges over the rivers Bonzevera and Biſagno; the firſt whereof waſhes the weſt, and the other the eaſt ſide of the city, within which there is alſo a ſurpriſing ſtone bridge, joining two hills. The harbour, though large, is far from being ſafe; but no care or expence have been ſpared to render it as ſafe and commodious as poſſible. On a rock, on the weſt ſide of the harbour, is the fanal, or light-houſe. The trade of Genoa is chiefly in velvets, damaſks, pluſh and other ſilks, brocades, lace, gloves, ſweetmeats, fruits, oil, anchovies, and medicinal drugs from the Levant; but the badneſs of the harbour, and the price of commodities, greatly check its commerce.

The weſtern coaſt contains

Savona, a large town, with a ſtrong citadel, and a harbour capable of receiving large ſhips, but partly choaked up.

St. Remo, a ſmall town, with a good harbour, 17 miles eaſt of Nice. Mr. Addiſon ſays, he ſaw ſeveral perſons here, that, in the midſt of December, had nothing over their ſhoulders but their ſhirts, without complaining of the cold.

Between the Genoeſe territories and the county of Nice is the ſmall principality of Monaco, where the late duke of York died. The only place worth mentioning in the principality is that which gives name to it, viz.

Monaco, a ſmall town, containing about eight or nine hundred ſouls, beſides the garriſon, built on a rock, which projects into the ſea, and making a very romantic appearance.

TUSCANY is encompaſſed by that part of the Mediterranean called the Tuſcan Sea, Modena, Lucca, and the Popedom. It is 116 miles long, 80 broad, well watered, mountainous in ſome parts, but fertile in others. The great duke is an abſolute prince. The only order of knighthood is that of St. Stephen, inſti-

tuted

tuted in 1554. The duke is always grand maſter; and the badge of the order is an octangular red croſs, with a golden border worn on the breaſt.

Florence, on the Arno, the capital, is 26 miles ſouth from Venice. It gives name to a populous and fertile diſtrict. Here are four ſtone bridges over the Arno. The number of churches, palaces, hoſpitals, and convents, are great, but the ſtreets are crooked and narrow. The old and new ducal palace contain rich collections of natural and artificial curioſities, both ancient and modern. The chapel for the interment of the great dukes, in the church of St. Loxenzo, is magnificent. Here is an academy for the improvement of the Tuſcan language, called Della Cruſca, another for agriculture, and another for riding. The principal trade, beſides wine, oil, fruits, and other produce of the country, conſiſts in wrought ſilks, and gold and ſilver ſtuffs. The nobility and gentry do not think it below them to trade: though, at the ſame time, they look upon it as a great diſparagement to educate their children in the profeſſion of phyſic. They write the Italian here very well; but their pronunciation is guttural and diſagreeable. Florence is adorned with ſeven fountains, ſix columns, two pyramids, and about 160 ſtatues. Moſt of the Florentines are ſhort-ſighted, and hence the Florentini Ciechi, or Blind Florentines, has paſſed into a proverbial jeſt. As the Tuſcan order, and ruſtic work, owe their origin to this country, the architects take care to give them a place in all the ſtructures they rear in this duchy. The great piazza, or ſquare, is very ſpacious and magnificent, with a noble fountain in the midſt of it. The arſenal is well worth a traveller's notice, being a ſtately building, and well furniſhed with all ſorts of weapons of war, kept in good order. The cathedral is a very magnificent edifice, the whole outſide being of poliſhed marble, and enriched with the moſt exquiſite architecture and ſculpture; and from the ball, over the cupola, you have a delightful proſpect of all the churches, palaces, monaſteries, &c. within the walls, and of near 2000 villas, or country ſeats, without. Hard by the church ſtands the much celebrated Campanile, or ſquare ſteeple, which is 180 feet high, all of fine marble, of ſeveral colours, and curiouſly wrought.

Piſa, on the Arno, formerly a republic, was ſubdued by the Florentines in 1406, ſince which it has greatly declined. The houſes and ſtreets are handſome. The univerſity is in a flouriſhing condition, and the exchange is magnificent, but little frequented. The great duke's gallies are built, and commonly ſtationed, here. This city is alſo the principal reſidence of the order of St. Stephen, and the ſee of an archbiſhop. The cathedral, a large Gothic pile, contains a great number of excellent paintings, and other curioſities. Near the cathedral is the city burying ground, called Il Campo Santo; and in that the famous leaning tower; the inclination of which is ſo great, that a plumb line let down from the top touches the ground at the diſtance of near 15 feet from the bottom. The city has a moat, walls, a caſtle, fort, and citadel. The Arno is of conſiderable breadth, and has three bridges over it, one of them of marble. Two leagues below the town it falls into the ſea. The phyſic garden is very ſpacious, contains a great number of plants, and is decorated with water works. Over the door leading into it are theſe words; *Hic Argus ſed nos Briareus eſto*: i. e. "Employ the eyes of Argus, but not the hands of Briareus."

Leghorn *(Liverno)* is only fourteen miles from Piſa. It is a free port, fortified on the land ſide with good baſtions, and wide ditches filled with water: the garriſon is 2000 men. The town is about two miles in circuit: the general form is ſquare: part of it has the convenience of canals, one of which is five miles in length, and joining the Arno, merchandiſe and paſſengers are thus conveyed to Piſa. The ſtreets are ſtraight; the chief ſtreet very broad: the ſquares ſpacious and handſome, but not regular: the great church magnificent. Coſmo and his two ſons fortified the city, drained the marſhes, eſtabliſhed the freedom of the port, and formed two moſt commodious harbours, which, however, have not depth of water ſufficient for men of war. There is nothing to be ſeen beſides theſe, with the mole, lazaretto, coral manufactory, and ſtatue of Ferdinand I. with the four ſlaves chained to the pedeſtal: the firſt by Giovanni dell'Opera, the ſlaves by Pietro Tacca Carrareſe.

The inhabitants are about 45,000, of which at leaſt 15,000 are Jews, who have engroſſed the coral manufactory, have a conſiderable trade, and poſſeſs the chief riches of the place.

Sienna, a large ancient city, 38 miles ſouth of Florence, has a fertile pleaſant territory of near 65 miles ſquare. The city is clean, neat and healthy, but not populous. The inhabitants are polite, and ſpeak the Italian language in its utmoſt purity. The cathedral is a very magnificent Gothic pile. Fronting the cathedral is a ſpacious and well-endowed hoſpital, founded by a ſhoe-maker, who is interred in the church, and, as a reward for his liberality, hath been canonized. Over the ſtatue erected to his memory is this appoſite inſcription, *Suter ultra crepidam*; i. e. "The ſhoemaker went beyond his Laſt."

SECTION III.

General Obſervations reſpecting the Perſons, Genius, Diſpoſitions, Language, &c. of the Italians.

HAVING taken occaſion to deſcribe the manners, cuſtoms, &c. of the inhabitants of this country as they reſpectively occurred, in the courſe of our diviſion, we have only to add the following general remarks.

The Italians are uſually well proportioned, and have expreſſive countenances. As to dreſs, they follow the faſhions of the countries on which they border, or to which they are ſubject, namely, thoſe of France, Spain, and Germany. With reſpect to their genius and taſte in architecture, painting, carving, and muſic, they excel moſt other nations of Europe. They are affable, courteous, ingenious, ſober, and ready witted; but jealous, vindictive, ceremonious, and ſuperſtitious. In their tempers the Italians ſeem to be a good medium between the French and Spaniards; neither ſo gay and volatile as the one, nor ſo grave and ſolemn as the other. The women admire yellow hair, as the Roman ladies and courtezans formerly did. They alſo uſe paint and waſhes, both for their hands and faces. The day here is reckoned from ſun-ſet to ſun-ſet, as the Athenians did of old.

The Italian language is corrupted Latin; but ſince the revival of arts in Italy, it hath been ſo much refined, that it is now deemed elegant, ſoft, and ſmooth. The pureſt Italian is ſpoken in Tuſcany. The Roman Catholic religion here predominates. The exports are chiefly wine, oil, perfumes, fruits, and ſilks. Travellers expend large ſums of money in Italy, in purchaſing pictures, curioſities, antiquities, relics, &c.

SECTION IV.

HISTORY OF ITALY.

ACCORDING to the accounts of moſt hiſtorians Italy was firſt peopled from Greece. In thoſe early ages, when the Romans firſt began to extend their territories, like moſt other countries it was parcelled out into a great number of ſmall ſtates, who were all gradually ſubdued by the Romans. On the declenſion of the Roman empire, the Huns, Goths, Vandals, Heruli, and other northern nations, paſſed the Alps, and ſeized on the greateſt part of it. After them came the Lombards, or Longbeards, and erected a kingdom in the northern part of it, which was overturned by Charlemagne, who founded a new empire in the weſt.

The ſucceſſors of Charlemagne claimed, and for ſome time poſſeſſed, the ſovereignty of Italy; but their civil wars at home ſoon gave an opportunity to their governors either to aſſume or purchaſe the ſovereignty of the ſeveral ſtates over which they preſided.

Savoy and Piedmont, in time, fell to the lot of the counts of Maurienne, the anceſtors of his preſent Sardinian majeſty, whoſe father became king of Sardinia by virtue of the quadruple alliance, concluded in 1718.

The Milaneſe went through ſeveral hands; but was at length poſſeſſed by the emperor Charles V. about the year 1525, who gave it to his ſon Philip II. king of Spain. It remained with that crown till the French were driven out of Italy, by the Imperialiſts, in 1706. Theſe were diſpoſſeſſed of it in 1743; but, by the emperor's ceſſion of Naples and Sicily to the preſent king of Spain, it returned to the Houſe of Auſtria, who governs it by a vicerov.

The duchy of Mantua was formerly governed by the family of Gonzaga, who adhering to France, the territory was forfeited, as a fief of the empire, to the houſe of Auſtria, which now poſſeſſes it, the laſt duke dying without male iſſue; but Guaſtella was ſeparated from it in 1748, and made part of the duchy of Parma.

The firſt duke of Parma was natural ſon to pope Paul III. the duchy having been annexed to the holy ſee, in 1545, by pope Julius II. The deſcendants of the houſe of Farneſe terminated in the late queen dowager of Spain, whoſe ſon, his preſent Catholic majeſty, obtained that duchy, and his nephew now holds it with the duchy of Piazencia.

The Venetians were formerly the moſt formidable maritime power in Europe. In 1193 they conquered Conſtantinople itſelf, and held it for ſome time, together with great part of the continent of Europe and Aſia. The diſcovery of a paſſage to India, by the Cape of Good Hope, gave the firſt blow to their greatneſs, as it loſt them the Indian trade. By degrees the Turks took from them their moſt valuable poſſeſſions on the continent; and ſo late as the year 1715 they loſt the Morea.

The Genoeſe, for ſome time, diſputed the empire of the Mediterranean Sea with the Venetians, but were ſeldom or never able to maintain their own independence by land, being generally protected, and ſometimes ſubjected, by the French and Imperialiſts. At preſent they are poſſeſſed of a revenue barely ſufficient to preſerve the appearance of a ſovereign ſtate.

The great duchy of Tuſcany belonged to the emperors of Germany, who governed it by deputies, till the year 1240, when the famous diſtinction of the Guelphs, who were the partizans of the pope, and the Gibellines, who were in the emperor's intereſt, took place. The popes then perſuaded the Imperial governments in Tuſcany to put themſelves under the protection of the church; but the Florentines in a ſhort time formed themſelves into a free commonwealth, and bravely defended their liberties againſt both parties by turns. Faction at laſt ſhook their freedom; and the family of Medici, long before they were declared princes or dukes, in fact governed Florence, though the rights and privileges of the people ſeemed ſtill to exiſt. The Medici, particularly Coſmo, who was deſervedly called the father of his country, being in the ſecret, ſhared with the Venetians in the immenſe profits of the Eaſt India trade, before the diſcoveries made by the Portugueſe. His revenue, in ready money, which exceeded that of any ſovereign prince in Europe, enabled his ſucceſſors to riſe to ſovereign power; and pope Pius V. gave one of his deſcendants Coſmo, (the great patron of the arts,) the title of great duke of Tuſcany, in 1570, which continued in his family to the death of Gaſton de Medicis, in 1737, who left no iſſue. The great duchy was then claimed by the emperor Charles VI. as a fief of the empire, and given to his ſon-in-law the duke of Lorrain, and late emperor, in lieu of the duchy of Lorrain, which was ceded to France by treaty. Leopold his ſecond ſon, brother to the preſent emperor, is now grand duke, and Tuſcany aſſumes a new face. Leghorn which belongs to him, carries on a great trade; and ſeveral ſhips of very conſiderable force are now ſtationed on the Tuſcan coaſts, to prevent the depredations of the Infidels.

Few countries have undergone greater viciſſitudes of government than Naples or Sicily, chiefly owing to the inconſtancy of the natives. Chriſtians and Saracens conquered it by turns. The Normans, under Tancred, drove out the Saracens, and by their connections with the Greeks, eſtabliſhed there (while the reſt of Europe was plunged in monkiſh ignorance) a moſt reſpectable monarchy, which flouriſhed in arts and arms. About the year 1166, the popes being then all-powerful in Europe, their intrigues broke into the ſucceſſion of Tancred's line, and Naples and Sicily at laſt came into the poſſeſſion of the French; and the houſe of Anjou, with ſome interruptions and tragical revolutions, held it till the Spaniards drove them out in 1504, and it was then annexed to the crown of Spain.

The government of the Spaniards was ſo oppreſſive, that it gave riſe to the famous revolt, headed by Maſſanaillo, a young fiſherman, without ſhoes or ſtockings. His ſucceſs was ſo ſurprizing, that he obliged the haughty Spaniards to aboliſh the oppreſſive taxes, and to confirm the liberties of the people. Before theſe could be reeſtabliſhed perfectly, he turned delirious, through his continual agitations of body and mind, and was put to death at the head of his own mob. Naples and Sicily continued with the Spaniards till the year 1706, when the arch-duke Charles, afterwards emperor, took poſſeſſion of the kingdom. By virtue of various treaties, which had introduced Don Carlos, the king of Spain's ſon, to the poſſeſſion of Parma and Piazencia, a new war broke out in 1733, between the houſes of Auſtria and Bourbon, about the poſſeſſion of Naples, and Don Carlos was received into the capital, where he was proclaimed king of both Sicilies. This was followed by a very bloody campaign; but the farther effuſion of blood was ſtopped by a peace between France and the emperor, to which the courts of Madrid and Naples at firſt demurred, but afterwards acceded in 1736, and Don Carlos remained king of Naples.

Upon his acceſſion to the crown of Spain, in 1759, it being found that his eldeſt ſon was by nature incapacitated for reigning, he reſigned the crown of Naples to his third ſon, Ferdinand VI.

The papal power is now evidently at a low ebb. The order of jeſuits, who are not improperly called its Janiſſaries, has been exterminated out of France, Spain, Naples, and Portugal; and is but juſt tolerated in other Popiſh countries. The pope himſelf is treated by Roman Catholic princes with very little more ceremony than is due to him as biſhop of Rome, and poſſeſſed of a temporal principality. This humiliation, it is reaſonable to believe, will terminate in a total ſeparation from the holy ſee of all its foreign emoluments, which even, ſince the beginning of the preſent century, were immenſe, and to the reducing his holineſs to the exerciſe of his eccleſiaſtical functions as firſt biſhop of Chriſtendom.

CHAP.

CHAP. XVIII.

HUNGARY, and its Incorporated PROVINCES.

HUNGARY received its name from the Huns, a Scythian nation, who poſſeſſed themſelves of it in the ninth century. It lies between the 18th and 22d degree eaſt long. and 45th and 49th deg. north lat. is 300 miles long, and 200 broad; has the Carpathian mountains north; Servia ſouth; Moravia, Auſtria, and Stiria weſt; and Walachia and Tranſylvania eaſt. The northern parts are mountainous and barren, but wholeſome. The ſouthern diſtricts are level and fertile, but unwholeſome. The mountains contain a great variety of minerals, and even diamonds. Corn is very plentiful; and the Hungarian wines, particularly Tokay, exceeds all others in Europe. Horſes, cattle, fiſh, and all kinds of vegetables abound, as do wild beaſts, and various kinds of game; and tobacco, ſaffron, buckwheat, millet, melons, cheſnuts, &c. are cultivated with ſucceſs. The principal rivers are the Danube, Drave, Save, Teyſſe, Meriſh, and the Temes.

Hungary is divided into Upper and Lower. The former contains

Zemplin, which gives name to a county that contains ſeveral inconſiderable towns, and many vineyards, that yield excellent wine, particularly that which takes its name from Tokay.

Skepus is a caſtle, which gives name to a county of great extent, abounding in ſome parts with fruitful corn-fields, rich paſtures, pulſe, and flax, and in others with woods and mountains. No wine is made in any part of it, but it has ſome iron and copper mines. Near the caſtle of Skepus is a cavern, in which, during the winter, the water is fluid; but in ſummer large quantities of ice are brought from it for cooling their liquors. Vitriol, or copperas, not only guſhes out from the mines of this county, but breaks forth alſo from the ſurface of the ground. The village of Vockotz is famous for its medicinal ſprings.

Erlau is the capital of the county of Heves, in which are ſeveral other towns.

Great-Varadin, or Waradin, in the county of Bihar, has a ſtrong caſtle on the eaſt ſide, and the epithet of Great, to diſtinguiſh it from Little-Waradin, in the county of Chege.

Temes-Var is a ſtrong town on the river Beg, the capital of the Bancat, or territory to which it gives name, has ſeveral times been in the poſſeſſion of the Turks; but the Auſtrians gaining poſſeſſion of it, it was incorporated into the kingdom of Hungary in 1778.

In Lower Hungary the principal places are

Preſburg, ſituated on the Danube, about 46 miles eaſt from Vienna. In it the regalia were kept; but they were lately removed to Vienna; and, in the cathedral, dedicated to St. Martin, the ſovereign is crowned. The town is ancient, pleaſantly ſituated, and enjoys a good air.

Lepto-Ujvar-Hradek is a caſtle which gives name to a county every where full of mountains and rocks. They abound in metals, minerals, and medicinal ſprings, with caverns, in which are many curious figures in drop-ſtone.

Gran is a royal free town on the Danube. Here are ſome natural warm baths. The neighbouring country is very pleaſant and fruitful, and yields excellent wine.

There are two towns of the name of Buda, the Old and the New. Old Buda is a mean place; but the New is a royal free town, ſtanding on the Danube, well fortified, and was the capital of the kingdom, and reſidence of the king, until it was ſeized by the Turks in 1529, in whoſe hands it continued till 1689. Here are ſeveral warm baths. The town has conſiderable ſuburbs. The neighbouring country yields good red wine, and excellent melons. A few miles below Buda is an iſland, called Eſepel, which formerly belonged to prince Eugene, who had a ſeat in the neighbourhood.

Schemnitz, the principal mine town in Hungary, is chiefly inhabited by Proteſtants. The gold and ſilver mines produce a conſiderable quantity of ore.

Cremnitz, the capital of the county of Beps, contains a mint; but the mines are ſo exhauſted as ſcarce to deſerve working.

The Hungarians are fierce, cruel, proud, and revengeful; better ſoldiers than mechanics, and huntſmen than ſcholars. The men are ſtrong and well made; they ſhave their beards, leave whiſkers on the upper lip, wear furs on the head, a cloſe bodied coat girt with a ſaſh, and a ſhort cloak buckled under the arm, in order to leave the right hand at liberty. The horſe, who carry a broad ſword and battle-ax, are called huſſars, and the foot are named heydukes. Here are five languages ſpoken, viz. Hungarian, Sclavonian, Wallachian, German, and Latin. Though not above a fourth part of the people are Roman Catholics, yet that religion is the eſtabliſhed one. Proteſtants, and particularly thoſe of the Greek church, are tolerated; and Jews are doubly taxed.

The ordinary revenue of this kingdom is very conſiderable. Hungary can eaſily bring into the field a very formidable army.

TRANSYLVANIA, anciently Dacia, had its modern name from its ſituation Trans-Sylvas, that is, Beyond the Woods or Foreſts. It is ſituated on the ſouth of Hungary, being about 160 miles long, and 150 broad. Its mountains yield ſilver, iron, lead, copper, quick-ſilver, rock ſalt, cinnabar, ſulphur, vitriol, ſalt-petre, antimony, red ochre, iſinglaſs, and other minerals; and ſeveral of them are clothed with vines. Many petrifying, ſalt, and medicinal ſprings, cold and hot, with a great variety of plants, are alſo found among them. The fields and valleys are rich and fertile, yielding corn, pulſe, and fruits; and the foreſts abound with buffaloes, elks, ſtags, wild goats, bears, foxes, martins, lynxes, ermines, beavers, wild-aſſes, wolves, bees, &c. Vaſt numbers alſo of black cattle and horſes are bred here. Of the latter there is a wild ſort, with manes hanging down to the ground. The principal rivers are the Szamos, the Maros, and the Aluta. The inhabitants are of ſeveral ſorts, as Hungarians, Saxons, Walachians, Arminians, Bulgarians, Greeks, Raſcians, or Servians, and a people called Sekli. Here are alſo Jews and Zigduns, or Gypſies, as in Hungary. Roman Catholics, Proteſtants, Greeks, and Armenians, are all tolerated here. The Proteſtants are much more numerous than the Roman Catholics. The ſtates, like thoſe of Hungary, conſiſt of the prelates or clergy, nobility, gentry, and royal towns.

SCLAVONIA extends from the Adriatic to the Black Sea. It takes its name from the Sclavi, a Scythian nation. The inhabitants are a mixture of Sclavonians, Croats, Wallachians, Germans, Venetians, Turks, Servians, or Raſcians, and Hungarians. Sclavonia was long ſubject to the Venetians, afterwards to the Turks; but in 1746 it was united to Hungary. The ſtates ſend repreſentatives to the diets of Hungary, and have alſo diets of their own. The air is pleaſant and temperate; the face of the country level; and the ſoil fruitful in corn, wine, and paſture. The only religion, publicly tolerated, is the Roman Catholic; yet there are many of the Greek church.

CROATIA

CROATIA, ſituated weſt of Sclavonia, is 80 miles long, and 70 broad. The Croats, or inhabitants of this country, derive their origin from the Sclavi, and ſpeak the Sclavonian language. Both horſe and foot are good ſoldiers, eſpecially the former, ſerving for much the ſame purpoſes as the huſſars, pandours, and other irregulars. The ſoil where cultivated, is fruitful in wine and oil, and many other products.

DALMATIA belongs to the Venetians, Auſtrians, Turks and Raguſans; that is, the former have the maritime places, and the three other powers the reſt. The language is Sclavonian, the religion Romiſh. The mountains are clad with olives, vines, myrtles, and ſheep, and lined with gold, ſilver, and other ores; and the plains are fertile. There is a people in this country and Carmola, called Uſcocks, a rough ſavage race, much addicted to rapine, and noted for their agility. Their language is Wallachian, and their religion the Greek.

At Lara is a capacious harbour, and a citadel. To ſupply the want of freſh water the rain is carefully preſerved in ciſterns. The city is ancient, and contains magnificent ſtructures.

Raguſa is a ſmall republic under the protection of the Turks and Venetians.

Raguſa, the capital, is a ſmall, but well built town, ſtanding on the ſea-coaſt, in a wholeſome air, but barren ſoil, and having a good harbour, with ſeveral manufactures, and a conſiderable trade.

CHAP. XIX.

TURKEY IN EUROPE.

HAVING already deſcribed the various parts of the Turkiſh Empire in Aſia and Africa, in our account of thoſe quarters of the globe, we have now only to treat of Turkey in Europe, which we ſhall do under the diſtinct heads of the Danubian Provinces, Little Tartary, and Greece.

DANUBIAN PROVINCES.

ROMANIA, the ancient Thrace, is about 280 miles in length, and 180 in breadth. The whole is well watered. The mountainous parts are cold; but the level parts, towards the ſea, warm and fertile. This province is governed by a beglerbeg, and three ſangiacs; and contains the following places:

Conſtantinople, the capital of the whole Ottoman empire, and the reſidence of the grand ſeignior. This city is admirably ſituated, and has not only a fine proſpect, but a water communication with various parts of the empire. It was anciently called Byzantium; afterwards Conſtantinople, from Conſtantine the Great; and ſometimes the Porte, on account of its being the fineſt port in Europe. It ſtands in 41 deg. north lat. and 24 deg. 40 min. eaſt long. It is ſeparated from Aſia by a canal, is of a triangular form, and, including the ſuburbs, covers a great deal of ground. The ſtreets are narrow, the houſes mean, and the fortifications decayed. The innumerable bagnios, bazars, ſeraglios, and moſques, with their miranets, make a fine appearance at a diſtance. Fires are frequent; and the only method of preventing the conflagration from ſpreading is to blow up a number of them. The moſques, of which there are ſeven called royal, are handſome buildings, in detached ſituations, ſurrounded by lofty trees, and adorned by fountains. Near the harbour ſtands the ſeraglio, which is a collection of royal buildings, a mile and a half in circumference. Below the palace are the gardens, from whence the coaſt of Leſſer Aſia preſents a fine proſpect. The hall of Audrerice, for foreign ambaſſadors, is amazingly magnificent, and contains a moſt ſuperb throne. The moſt magnificent moſque is that of St. Sophia, which ſtands oppoſite to the great gate of the ſeraglio, upon an eminence, from whence there is a gentle deſcent to the ſea ſhore. There are upwards of 100 pillars in this moſque, of the moſt curious marble, ſome of them porphyry and Egyptian granate; and the whole building is lined or wainſcoted with marble. Beſides this moſque are ſeveral others little inferior to it. Theſe, and the reſt, have uſually hoſpitals, and endowed ſchools, belonging to each of them; but no painting or imagery are ſuffered in any of them. Here are ſeveral Greek and Arminian, a few Roman Catholic, and one Lutheran church. The Atmeidan, or Hippodrome, where horſe-races were anciently run, is ſtill put to the ſame uſe almoſt as it was formerly; for here the Turks throw the gerit, or dart, riding full ſpeed at the mark. At the ſouth end of the city is the caſtle of ſeven, or rather eight, towers; for an eighth hath been lately added; the whole ſerving as a ſtate priſon.

In the markets for live cattle ſlaves of all ages and ſexes are ſold, and theſe are generally Chriſtians; but where any of the girls have a good ſhare of beauty, that may recommend them to men of figure, they are kept in handſome lodgings by their maſters, and provided with good cloaths, and whatever elſe may recommend them to the purchaſers.

The circumference of this city, including gardens, ſuburbs, &c. is very great, and the inhabitants exceeding numerous, conſiſting not only of Turks, but a great number of Greeks and other Chriſtians, Armenians, Jews, &c. but the plague often makes dreadful havock among them. In Auguſt, 1784, a fire broke out in the quarter ſituated towards the harbour, and ſpreading into other quarters, about 10,000 houſes were conſumed. The environs are pleaſant, and afford beautiful proſpects.

Adrianople, the ſecond city in this empire, is about eight miles in circumference. It received its name from the emperor Adrian, who rebuilt it after it had been deſtroyed by an earthquake. It ſtands on a fine plain in a fruitful country, well watered by rivers and rivulets, the chief of which is Mariza.

Philippopoli is inhabited chiefly by Chriſtians of the Greek communion, and is the ſee of one of their archbiſhops.

Gallipoli is a ſea port town, ſituate on the Thracian Cherſoneſe.

BULGARIA is governed by the beglerbeg of Rumelia, with four ſubordinate ſangiacs. The country is, in general, mountainous, but has ſome fertile ſpots, abounds in cattle, and contains a few iron mines, and medicinal ſprings.

Scopia, a populous town on the Bojane, is the principal place.

SERVIA has the rivers Save and Danube on the north. It is 250 miles in length, and upwards of 100 in breadth from north to ſouth. The capital city is Belgrade, ſituated at the confluence of the Danube and the Save. It was a very large and important place, and has been ſeveral times taken and retaken by the Chriſtians and Turks. It was taken by prince Eugene in Auguſt, 1717, and kept till 1739, when it was ceded to the Turks,

Turks, after demoliſhing the walls. They are now in poſſeſſion of all Seryia.

Bosnia is 40 Turkiſh miles in length, 15 in breadth, and conſiſts of 3 ſangiacſhips, in which are ſeveral inconſiderable towns.

Wallachia, ſituated to the ſouth of Moldavia, is of a triangular form. The air is temperate, and the ſoil fruitful. Cattle abound, and wood is ſcarce. The whole is well watered. The eſtabliſhed religion is the Greek church; and the common people are extremely ignorant. The waywode, prince, deſpot, or hoſpodar of Wallachia, is a vaſſal of the Ottoman Porte, paying a yearly tribute, and furniſhing a body of troops in time of war. The principal places are Terves, the capital, on the river Jalonitz, 60 miles north of the Danube, which has a tolerable trade, with ſome fortifications; and Buckereſt, a ſtrong town, and archbiſhop's ſee, 40 miles north of the Danube, which has ſome trade, and is the reſidence of the waywode.

Moldavia, ſituated to the eaſt of Tranſylvania, is, in general, a barren ſpot, and the inhabitants are a mixture of various neighbouring nations. The principal place is Jaſſy, the capital, and reſidence of the waywode; and Choczim, a ſtrong town on the Nieſter, near the borders of Podolia.

LITTLE TARTARY.

THE principal parts of Tartary in Europe are the following:

Bessarabia, which borders on the Black Sea. The inhabitants are called White Hordes: they rove from place to place, along the Nieſter, and live on the fleſh of horſes, oxen, cheeſe, milks, particularly that of mares, &c. The chief place is Bender, which, in the Turkiſh language, ſignifies a ſtrong paſs. It was here that Charles XII. of Sweden, reſided after his defeat at Pultowa.

Budziac Tartary is inhabited only near the ſea, and along the banks of the river. Ockzakow, the chief place, ſituated at the influx of the Nieper into the Black Sea, is very ſtrong. Notwithſtanding the force of Ruſſia has repeatedly been directed againſt it, the Turks ſtill continue maſters of it.

GREECE.

THIS country, with reſpect to arms and arts, was once the moſt celebrated in the world. It is ſituated to the north of the Mediterranean, being 400 miles in length, and 240 in breadth. The air is temperate, but fluctuating; the ſoil fruitful, but uncultivated; and the religion Chriſtianity, but mixed with ſuperſtition. The provinces are

Macedonia, ſituated to the weſt of the Archipelago. It has a ſharp, clear, and wholeſome air, and produces corn, wine, and oil. It is well watered, but mountainous. The only conſiderable place is the town called Karais, the reſidence of the Turkiſh aga.

Salonichi, or Theſſalonica, is ſituate at the bottom of a bay of the Egean Sea. Here St. Paul preached, and we have ſtill two of his epiſtles, written to the Theſſalonians. It is a populous town, and has a good foreign trade.

Albania, comprehending Illyricum and Epirus, is ſituated to the eaſt of the gulph of Venice, being 190 miles long, and 96 broad. The ſoil is fertile, but little cultivated; and the inhabitants robuſt, but ignorant. The principal places are Scutari, which carries on a conſiderable trade; and Durazzo, which has a good harbour and caſtle.

The diſtrict called Lower Albania, or Epirus, is fruitful, and the inhabitants are well adapted for a military life. The towns are totally decayed.

Thessaly, now Janna, is bounded by Macedon on the north, by the Archipelago on the eaſt, by Achaia on the ſouth, and Epirus on the weſt. The chief town is Lariſſa, ſaid to be the birth-place of Achilles. Philip, the father of Alexander the Great, reſided here. It carries on a conſiderable trade, and is pleaſantly ſituated on the river Peneus.

Livadia, formerly Achaia, is fruitful though mountainous, being well watered. The principal place, Sentines, the ancient Athens, ſituated near the bay of Engia, ſtands almoſt in the middle of a plain, being a barren, but healthful ſoil, the river Iliſſus almoſt ſurrounding it.

Athens, once renowned as the ſeat of the arts and ſciences, is ſtill a ſource of the moſt magnificent and celebrated antiquities in the world. Among theſe are the remains of the temple of Minerva. The architrave is adorned with baſſo-relievos, admirably executed, repreſenting the wars of the Athenians. To the ſouth-eaſt of the citadel are 17 beautiful columns of the Corinthian order, thought to be the remains of the emperor Adrian's palace. Juſt without the city ſtands the temple of Theſeus. On the outſide of the porticos are repreſented the feats of Theſeus. On the ſouth-weſt of Athens is a beautiful ſtructure, commonly called the Lanthorn of Demoſthenes. On the frieze are beautifully repreſented the Labours of Hercules. Here are alſo to be ſeen the temple of the winds, the remains of the theatre of Bacchus, of the magnificent aqueduct of the emperor Adrian, of the temples of Jupiter Olympus and Auguſtus, and of ſeveral other noble ſtructures.

Lepanto, the ancient Naupactus, is ſurrounded by fruitful fields and vineyards, producing corn, rice, olives, oranges, lemons, and citrons, in great plenty. The wine is eſteemed the beſt in Greece. Near the entrance of the bay the Venetians, and their allies, commanded by Don John of Auſtria, natural ſon of Charles V. obtained a compleat naval victory over the Turks, in the year 1571.

Livadia, ſituated on the gulph of Lepanto, is a populous trading town, inhabited by Turks and Greeks.

The Peloponnesus, or Morea, is a large peninſula, joined to Greece by the iſthmus of Corinth. It is 120 miles long, and 155 broad, tolerably fertile, except in the mountainous parts, and, in general, well watered. The principal places are

Corinth, the modern Gerame, ſituated between the bays of Lepanto and Engria, 50 miles weſt of Athens. The buildings are not now contiguous, but intermixed with fields and gardens, which make it look like a village. The caſtle is ſituated on a high ſteep rock above it, of very difficult acceſs. The country about it abounds with corn, wine, and oil. From the caſtle there is one of the fineſt proſpects in the world, having the ſea in full view on the eaſt and weſt, and a fine country north and ſouth. The narroweſt part of the iſthmus is about ſix miles over.

Patras, eight miles weſt of Corinth, is the ſee of an archbiſhop, formerly contained a temple of Diana, and is at preſent a place of ſome trade. Lacedemon, or Sparta, now named Miſtra, is famous for a code of laws received from Lycurgus.

Napoli di Romana is a ſtrong town, with a good harbour, and a conſiderable trade.

Olympia, now Langanico, once famous for the games celebrated on the neighbouring plains, every fifth year, from whence the computation of time by Olympiads took its riſe, is now an inconſiderable place.

In our ſurvey of Aſiatic Turkey we have given an ample account of the character, cuſtoms, manners, &c. of the Turks in general; and as thoſe of Europe differ in no eſſential points, we have only to refer the reader to the ſame as contained in the firſt volume of our work.

CHAP. XX.

EUROPEAN ISLANDS.

ICELAND.

THIS iſland, which received its name from the great maſſes of ice that are ſeen near it, is ſituated in the Atlantic Ocean, between 63 and 68 deg. north lat. and between 10 and 26 deg. weſt long. It is about 400 miles in length, and 150 in breadth. For two months together the ſun never ſets; and in the winter it never riſes for the ſame ſpace, at leaſt not entirely. The greater part of the iſland is mountainous, ſtoney, and barren; but in ſome places there are excellent paſtures, and the graſs has a fine ſcent. The ice, which gets looſe from the more northern country in May, brings with it a large quantity of wood, and ſeveral animals, ſuch as foxes, wolves, and bears.

The whole country is well watered with large and ſmall rivers, that flow from the mountains; beſides rivulets and large lakes, all of which abound with excellent fiſh. There are no foreſts in any part of the iſland; but this defect is in a great meaſure compenſated by large quantities of fine timber, that come floating aſhore in different parts of the ſea-coaſt.

With reſpect to the natural productions of this iſland, ſuch as quadrupeds, birds, inſects, and fiſh, they are ſo much alike with thoſe of Norway, Greenland, &c. that their deſcriptions may be found by referring back to the natural hiſtory of thoſe countries.

The moſt remarkable phænomena for which this iſland is famous are the mountains, ſeveral of which are exceeding lofty, and always covered with ice and ſnow. In the vallies between them the inhabitants live; and in thoſe near the coaſt are plains covered with verdure. But notwithſtanding the amazing coldneſs of this iſland, earthquakes and volcanos have been more known here than in many countries in much warmer climates. Mount Hecla is the moſt noted mountain, and is a volcano, which ſometimes throws out ſulphurous torrents. The laſt eruption of this mountain happened in 1766. It began on the 5th of April, and continued to the 7th of September following. Among the curioſities of Iceland, none are more worthy of attention, than the hot ſpouting water ſprings with which this iſland abounds. Some of theſe ſprings ſpout columns of water, of ſeveral feet in thickneſs, to the height of many fathoms. Theſe ſprings are of unequal degrees of heat. The cows that drink of the cooler ſprings yield an extraordinary quantity of milk. They are alſo deemed ſalutary to the human ſpecies.

Stones of various colours are found in this country, but no marble. It likewiſe produces a kind of chryſtal, a large quantity of pumice-ſtones, and, near the volcanos, two ſorts of agate. It is rich in minerals, though there are no mines worked in the country. The principal article of this iſland is ſulphur.

The Icelanders are, in general, well made, and poſſeſs a conſiderable ſhare of bodily ſtrength; though they ſeldom live to a very old age. In general they are ſober, honeſt, docile, and induſtrious; but, like all others who dwell in cold countries, they are fond of drinking ſpirituous liquors. They are ſubject to various diſorders, particularly the rhumatiſm, fevers, aſthma, and conſumption; but the leproſy, or rather a kind of hereditary ſcurvy, is the prevailing diſeaſe. Their chief employment is fiſhing, to which they bring up their children as ſoon as they have ſtrength enough to row a boat. The dreſs both of the men and women is much the ſame as that worn by the Norwegians. The men, in fiſhing, wear a garment of ſheep-ſkin over their cloaths, and this they frequently ſoften by rubbing it over with fiſh liver.

The houſes in Iceland nearly reſemble thoſe of Norway; with this difference, that as they are not ſo well ſupplied with timber, they make more uſe of ſtones, turf, and mud-walls. The better ſort poſſeſs tolerable houſes, well furniſhed. The roofs are either boarded or thatched, and their walls are thick and warm.

The Icelanders are remarkably ingenious and docile. The country not only affords a great number of able boat-carpenters, and handicraftſmen, but has likewiſe produced men of ſome learning. As there are no public ſchools in the country, the children are taught to read, and inſtructed in the articles of religion, at home, by their parents, or by the miniſters of the different pariſhes, in the courſe of their viſitations. They do not reckon time by the clock or hour, but take their obſervations from the ſun, ſtars, or tide, and parcel out the day into different diviſions, each of which has its own appellation; ſuch as midnight, twilight, broad-day, forenoon, noon, afternoon, evening, mid-evening, &c.

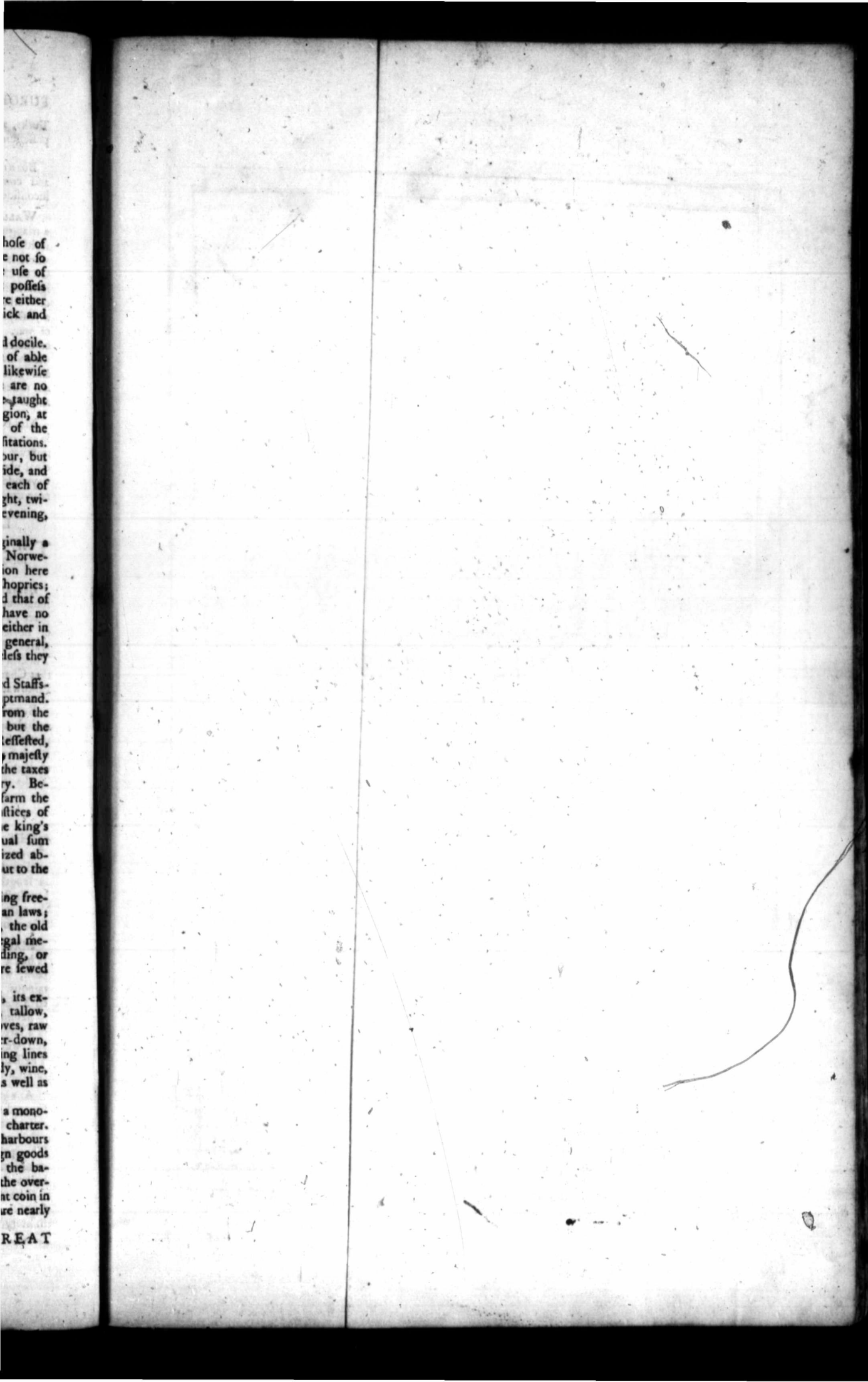
As the inhabitants of this iſland were originally a colony from Norway, they ſtill ſpeak the old Norwegian dialect. The Lutheran is the only religion here tolerated. The country is divided into two biſhoprics; namely, the ſee of Skalholt for the ſouth, and that of Hoalum for the north. The clergy here have no tythes; but ſome ſmall dues are paid to them either in merchandize or money. The churches are, in general, low, and but indifferently decorated; nevertheleſs they are clean, decent, and commodious.

The Icelanders are ruled by a governor, called Staffsamptmand, or rather by his deputy, the Amptmand. The former is generally choſen by the king from the Daniſh nobility, and reſides at Copenhagen; but the latter lives in Iceland, at the king's palace of Reſſeſted, on a ſalary of 400 rix-dollars per annum. His majeſty likewiſe appoints a receiver, who collects all the taxes and revenues, and tranſmits them to the treaſury. Beſides the ſtewards, there are Syſſelmen, who farm the king's taxes in certain diſtricts, and act as juſtices of the peace, each within his own province. The king's revenues ariſe from taxes and dues, an annual ſum payed by the company of merchants, ſecularized abbey lands, and other royal demeſnes farmed out to the natives.

Law ſuits, in ſpiritual matters, or concerning freehold property, are determined by the Norwegian laws; but in every diſpute relative to *meum* and *tuum*, the old Iceland laws take place. There is no other legal method of puniſhing men with death than beheading, or hanging. The women, condemned to die, are ſewed in a ſack and drowned.

With reſpect to the commerce of this iſland, its exports conſiſt of dried fiſh, ſalt meat, butter, tallow, train-oil, coarſe woollen cloth, ſtockings, gloves, raw wool, ſheep-ſkins, lamb-ſkins, fox furs, eider-down, and feathers. The imports are timber, fiſhing lines and hooks, tobacco, bread, horſe-ſhoes, brandy, wine, ſalt, linen, ſilk, and a few other neceſſaries, as well as ſuperfluities for the better ſort.

The whole trade of Iceland is engroſſed by a monopoly of Danes, indulged with an excluſive charter. This company maintains factories at all the harbours in the iſland, where they exchange the foreign goods for the merchandize of the country; and as the balance is in favour of the Icelanders, they pay the overplus in Daniſh money, which is the only current coin in this iſland. The weights and meaſures here are nearly the ſame with thoſe uſed in Denmark.



GREAT BRITAIN.

THIS iſland, known by the general name of Great Britain, is not only the largeſt in Europe, but one of the moſt populous, rich, and fruitful. It includes England, Wales, and Scotland, the latter having been united to the former in 1707. Great Britain is ſituated between 50 and 59 deg. of north lat. and between 1 deg. 42 min. and 6 deg. long. Its length is about 625 miles, and its utmoſt breadth 338.

We ſhall treat of Great Britain under two diſtinct heads, South and North; the former comprehending England and Wales, the latter Scotland.

SOUTH BRITAIN.

SECTION I.

ENGLAND.

Boundaries, Situation, Climate, Soil, Mountains, Foreſts, Rivers, Medicinal Springs, Vegetable and Animal Productions, &c.

THIS kingdom is bounded on the north by Scotland, on the eaſt by the German Ocean, on the ſouth by the Engliſh Channel, and on the weſt by the Iriſh Sea.

England, from its ſituation, is liable to great uncertainty of weather. The climate, however, is far preferable to that of any part of the continent near the ſame latitude, the ſummers being neither ſo hot, nor the winters ſo cold. The air, in many places, is ſubject to vapours; but theſe vapours nouriſh the vegetable ſyſtem, and, by that means, produce good effects. Upon the whole, the air is healthy, the ſoil fertile, the face of the country beautifully diverſified, the proſpects admirable, and the lands well cultivated.

England, except in a few places, exhibits to the view an enchanting variety of gently ſwelling hills, level plains, corn fields, meadow grounds, wood and water, intermingled in the moſt agreeable manner. The champain country is parcelled out into beauteous incloſures, ſurrounded with quick-ſet hedges, intermixed with ſtately oaks and elms. The farm houſes, ſcattered about in great numbers all over the face of the kingdom, appear large, neat, and convenient, in the midſt of their offices or out-houſes. The uncultivated part of the ground is cloathed with a perpetual verdure; and the lands, in general, diſplay the perfection of agriculture. The ſeats of noblemen and gentlemen riſe like enchanted caſtles on every hand. Populous villages, thriving towns, and flouriſhing cities, abound in every part of the kingdom, which excels all the ſtates of Europe in beauty, opulence, and cultivation.

The moſt noted mountains in England are, the Peak in Derbyſhire, the Wreken in Shropſhire, the Endle in Lancaſhire, the Wolds in Yorkſhire, and the Cheviot Hills on the borders of Scotland.

The remarkable foreſts are thoſe of Windſor, Epping, Dean, Sherwood, and that called New Foreſt.

The principal rivers are the Thames, the nobleſt perhaps in the world; the Severn, the Medway, the Trent, the Tyne, the Avon, and the Humber, beſides ſeveral others of leſs note. The bridges over the Thames, at Weſtminſter and Black-friars, for commodiouſneſs, architecture, and workmanſhip, ſtand unparalleled. The rivers, in general, not only fertilize the ground, but conduce to the improvement of commerce.

To enumerate the medicinal ſprings would be needleſs; ſuffice it, therefore, to obſerve, that the principal are thoſe of Bath, Buxton, Cheltenham, Dulwich, Epſom, Harrowgate, and Scarborough, each of which have been recommended by the faculty for their ſpecific qualities.

Of minerals, England produces tin, lead, copper, and iron. The pits, in the northern parts, furniſh immenſe quantities of coals. Other places produce much allum and ſalt; and there is abundance of fuller's earth, which is of the utmoſt importance in the cloth manufactory.

England produces corn, not only ſufficient for the inhabitants, but to bring in large ſums of money from the exports. It is difficult to aſcertain the quantities of barley, rye, peas, beans, vetches, oats, and other grain, that grow in the kingdom. The moſt uninformed reader cannot be ignorant that the moſt excellent fruits, as apples, pears, plumbs, cherries, peaches, apricots, nectarines, currants, gooſeberries, &c. abound here, nor that great quantities of cyder and perry are made in ſome counties, particularly thoſe of Devon and Hereford. Our kitchen gardens are ſtocked with all ſorts of greens, roots, and ſallads. Wood for dying is cultivated in Bucks and Bedfordſhire; and in many parts is clover, cinquefoil, trefoil, and other meliorating graſſes for the ſoil. It is the province of a botaniſt to recount the various kinds of uſeful and ſalutary herbs, ſhrubs, and roots, that grow in different parts. The ſoil of Kent, Eſſex, Surry, and Hampſhire, is moſt favourable to the culture of hops, which is become a conſiderable article of trade. The timber is various and excellent.

The Engliſh oxen are large and fat, and the beef has a delicious flavor. The ſheep are large, and even more valuable for their fleece than their fleſh, as vaſt numbers of fleeces are annually ſhorn and manufactured in the kingdom. The horſes for the ſaddle and chace are finely proportioned, and full of mettle; thoſe for draught are amazingly ſtrong; and the war horſes have the greateſt ſpirit imaginable. Among the animals peculiar to England we muſt not omit mentioning the maſtiffs and bull dogs, whoſe ſpirit is ſo great that they will ſingly attack any animal whatever. But it muſt be remembered that this ſurprizing ſpirit degenerates when they are tranſported to any other country.

Tame fowls are pretty much the ſame in England as in other countries, and there is plenty and variety of wild fowl. The feathered choir is alſo numerous; and whether we reſpect the gratification of the palate or the ear, each is amply provided for. We ſhall only add that the Engliſh game cock is remarkable for his courage, but, like the maſtiff and bull dog, degenerates if carried to any other country.

Few countries are better ſupplied than England with river and ſea fiſh. Of the former are ſalmon, trout, pike, perch, carp, tench, flounders, ſmelts, &c. There is a delicate lake fiſh called char. The chief ſea fiſh are cod, haddock, mackarel, whiting, herrings, ſkaite, ſoles, plaiſe, &c. The John Dory, found towards the weſtern coaſt, is reckoned a great delicacy, as is the red mullet. As to ſhell fiſh, there are lobſters, oyſters, muſcles, cockles, &c. The beſt fiſh that comes to the tables of the great in London is the turbot, ſold to the Engliſh by the Dutch, who take them upon the Engliſh coaſt. Attempts have been made to carry on a fiſhery for that ſpecies, but they have hitherto proved abortive.

With reſpect to reptiles, ſuch as adders, vipers, ſnakes, and worms; and inſects, ſuch as ants, gnats, waſps, and flies, England is peſtered with them as well as other parts of Europe.

SECTION II.

Grand Diviſions of England. Deſcriptions of the Counties included in each Diviſion.

WHEN the Romans added England to their other provinces, they divided it into three parts. The Saxons afterwards erected ſeven kingdoms in it, under the title of the Saxon Heptarchy, viz. thoſe of Kent, South Saxons, Eaſt Angles, Weſt Saxons, Northumberland, Eaſt Saxons, and Mercia.

Since

A
New and Correct
MAP OF
GREAT BRITAIN
from the most accurate
SURVEYS.
By Thos Bowen

British Statute Miles
5 10 20 40 60 80 100 150

GERMAN OCEAN

IRISH SEA

ST GEORGE'S CHANNEL

ENGLISH CHANNEL

FRANCE

DUBLIN

Western Islands

ORKNEY ISLES

SUTHERLAND SHIRE

ROSS SHIRE

INVERNESS SHIRE

ARGYLE SHIRE

PERTH SHIRE

ABERDEEN SHIRE

FORFAR

KINCARDINE SHIRE

ANGUS

FIFE

CLACKMANNAN SHIRE

STIRLING SHIRE

EDINBURGH LOTHIAN

HADDINGTON SHIRE

BERWICK SHIRE

CLYDESDALE LANARK

RENFREW

AYR SHIRE

GALLOWAY WIGTON SHIRE

KIRKUDBRIGHT

DUMFRIES

ROXBURGH SHIRE

SELKIRK SHIRE

PEEBLES SHIRE

TWEEDDALE

NORTHUMBERLAND

NEWCASTLE

DURHAM

CUMBERLAND

WESTMORELAND

LANCASTER SHIRE

YORK

LINCOLN

NOTTINGHAM SHIRE

DERBY

CHESHIRE

STAFFORD SHIRE

SHROP SHIRE

LEICESTER SHIRE

NORFOLK

CAMBRIDGE SHIRE

HUNTINGDON SHIRE

BEDFORD SHIRE

BUCKINGHAM SHIRE

NORTHAMPTON SHIRE

RUTLAND

WARWICK SHIRE

WORCESTER SHIRE

HEREFORD SHIRE

RADNOR

BRECKNOCK

MONTGOMERY SHIRE

CARDIGAN

CARMARTHEN

PEMBROKE

GLAMORGAN

MONMOUTH

GLOCESTER

OXFORD

BERKS

SUFFOLK

ESSEX

MIDDLESEX

HERTFORD SHIRE

HAMPSHIRE

SURREY

SUSSEX

KENT

WILTS

SOMERSET

DORSET

DEVON

EXETER

CORNWALL

Isle of Man

Isle of Wight

Anglesey

Bristol Channel

Irish Sea

Edinburgh

Glasgow

Dublin

Liverpool

Manchester

London

Bristol

Plymouth

Portsmouth

Dover

Calais

Boulogne

Lizard Pt

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Since the Norman invaſion England has been divided into counties, a certain number of which, excepting Middleſex and Cheſhire, are comprehended in ſix circuits, or annual progreſs of the judges, for adminiſtering juſtice to the ſubjects who are at a diſtance from the capital. They are as follow. The home circuit, the Norfolk circuit, the Oxford circuit, the midland circuit, the weſtern circuit, and the northern circuit. Each of theſe comprehends a certain number of counties. The home circuits are Eſſex, Hertford, Kent, Surrey, and Suſſex. In the Norfolk, Bucks, Bedfordſhire, Huntingdonſhire, Cambridgeſhire, Suffolk, and Norfolk. In the Oxford, Oxon, Berks, Glouceſterſhire, Worceſterſhire, Monmouthſhire, Herefordſhire, Salop, and Staffordſhire. In the midland, Warwickſhire, Leiceſterſhire, Derbyſhire, Nottinghamſhire, Lincolnſhire, Rutlandſhire, and Northamptonſhire. In the weſtern, Hants, Wilts, Dorſetſhire, Somerſetſhire, Devonſhire, and Cornwall. In the northern, Yorkſhire, the biſhopric of Durham, Northumberland, Lancaſhire, Weſtmorland, and Cumberland. In England we number 40 counties, containing 25 cities, 172 boroughs, and 8 cinque-ports, which are Haſtings, Dover, Sandwich, Hythe, Romney, Rye, Winchelſea, and Seaford.

We ſhall now enter upon a deſcription of the ſituation of, and the principal places in, each county.

CORNWALL is the moſt weſtern county of England, and, in ſhape, reſembles what its name implies, a horn. It abounds in tin and lead; produces mundic, which affords copper as good as the Swediſh; is famous for the beſt kind of ſlate tiles; and furniſhes the builder with moor ſtone, which, when poliſhed, looks like Egyptian granate. It has the title of a duchy, and the king's eldeſt ſon is duke of Cornwall.

Launceſton is a corporation town, and ſends two members to parliament. It was formerly defended by a caſtle, which is now in ruins.

Falmouth is the richeſt and beſt trading town in the county. The harbour is ſo commodious that ſhips of the greateſt burthen come up to its quay. It is guarded by the caſtles of St. Mawes and Pendennis. There is a ſufficient ſhelter in many creeks for the whole royal navy to ride here ſafe from any winds. The town is well built, and its trade very conſiderable.

Penzance, the fartheſt town in the weſt of England, is well built and populous, and has many ſhips belonging to it. Veins of lead, tin, and copper, are ſeen here even to the utmoſt extent of low water mark.

DEVONSHIRE is naturally ſterile, but rendered fertile, in many parts, by art, and contains the following principal places.

Exeter, the capital of the county, and one of the principal cities of the kingdom. It is ſituated on a riſing ground, watered by the river Ex, has ſix gates, and, with the ſuburbs, is two miles in circumference. The cathedral, called St. Peter's, is a magnificent and curious fabric. This city had ſeveral charters, confirmed by moſt of our kings, many of which have honoured it with their royal preſence. Its bridge over the Ex is of great length, and has houſes on both ſides towards the ends. It has four principal ſtreets (the chief of which is called High-ſtreet) all centering in the middle of the city, which is well ſupplied with water. There is an old caſtle here, called Rougement, ſuppoſed to have been built by the Weſt Saxon kings. It is now much decayed, only a part being kept up for the aſſizes, &c. The city is remarkable for a fair at Lammas, at which the goods ſold in the woollen manufactory are numerous.

Totneſs ſtands on the river Dart. Here are a ſpacious church, a town hall, and a ſchool-houſe. Its chief trade is the woollen manufacture. There is a fine ſtone bridge over the river, which abounds with delicate trout, and other good fiſh. It is diverting to ſee them catch ſalmon peele here, with a ſpaniel trained to drive them into a ſhove net. Sometimes a man will take up 20 ſalmon at a time, from 14 to 20 inches long, for which they aſk only two-pence a-piece.

Plymouth, 216 miles from London, at the influx of the rivers Plym and Tamar into the channel, contains near as many inhabitants as Exeter, and is one of the chief magazines in the kingdom, owing to its port, which is one of the largeſt and ſafeſt in England. It conſiſts of two harbours, capable of containing 1000 ſail of ſhips; and is defended by ſeveral forts, particularly a ſtrong citadel, of large extent. It is the general rendezvous of ſhips outward bound; and is very convenient for homeward bound ſhips to provide themſelves with pilots up the channel.

About two miles up the mouth of the river Tamar, in an inlet of the ſea, diſtinguiſhed from Cat-water by the name of Hamouze, and commanded by the caſtle on St. Nicholas Iſland, is a royal dock for building and repairing ſhips. Here is a charity-ſchool, four hoſpitals, and a work-houſe. Off the entrance of the bay lies the Edyſtone rock, which is covered, at high water, and on which the ingenious Mr. Winſtanley built a light-houſe, that was blown down in that terrible hurricane in November 1703, and himſelf, with thoſe that were in it, never more heard of.

Dartmouth ſtands on the ſide of a craggy hill, and is about a mile long. The ſtreets are irregular, and the houſes generally high. The harbour is good, and 500 ſail of ſhips may ride ſafe in the baſon. Here is a large quay, and a ſpacious ſtreet before it, where many conſiderable merchants live. Here are three churches, and a large meeting houſe. Dartmouth caſtle is very ancient.

DORSETSHIRE, ſituated on the ſouth eaſt of Devonſhire, is, like the two laſt, a maritime county. It is one of the pleaſanteſt and moſt fertile in the kingdom, abounding in corn, cattle, ſheep, &c.

Dorcheſter is the county town, and was the moſt conſiderable ſtation of the Romans in thoſe parts. They had a camp near it, with five trenches, encloſing ten acres, the veſtiges of which are ſtill viſible at a place called Maiden Caſtle, about a mile from the town. It is ſituated on an aſcent, on the banks of the river Frome. St. Peter's, Trinity, and All Saints churches, and the ſhire-hall, are the principal buildings in the town. The Ikenild ſtreet of the Romans is plainly traced here; and the foundations of the old Roman wall appear quite round the town, except toward the eaſt, where the ditch is filled up, and a ſtreet built upon it; yet the place is ſtill called the Walls. The Romans had an amphitheatre in the neighbourhood, now called Maumbury, the terrace of the top of which is a noted place for the inhabitants to walk on, having an elegant proſpect of the town and country round it.

Weymouth is a well built town, and has a good harbour, defended by two forts. Many ſubſtantial merchants reſide here, and carry on an extenſive trade. It is joined to Melcomb-Regis by a wooden bridge, over the little river Wey. The united towns have a church, and about 400 houſes.

Portland is a peninſula. It is ſcarcely ſeven miles in circumference, and but thinly inhabited. The inland parts are famous for quarries of the fineſt free ſtone, and moſt durable, with which St. Paul's church, Weſtminſter-bridge, &c. were erected.

At Purbeck is found the beſt tobacco pipe clay in England.

SOMERSETSHIRE, ſituated to the north eaſt of Devonſhire, is a very fertile county, and more celebrated for its mineral waters than any other county in the kingdom.

Briſtol, 12 miles from Bath, is the ſecond city in the Britiſh dominions, for trade, wealth, and number of inhabitants. Though it lay in two counties, before it was made a county of itſelf, which was in the reign of Edward III. it was by the parliament rolls reckoned in Somerſetſhire. The cathedral was formerly the collegiate church of St. Auguſtin's monaſtery, which, when diſſolved by Henry VIII. and erected into the ſee of a biſhop, he applied its revenues to the maintenance of a biſhop, dean, prebendaries, &c.

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There are in this city 18 churches. The chief is St. Mary Redcliff's, without the walls, built in the reign of Henry VI. by William Cannings, alderman of this city. This is a magnificent ſtructure, in the Gothic taſte. Here are a ſtately bridge of three arches over the Avon, a ſquare, a cuſtom-houſe, three excellent market places, beſides a fiſh market, near 20 hoſpitals, and other benevolent foundations, a guildhall, an exchange, two fine quays, ſeveral docks, a corn market, and three gates.

This city, which, with the ſuburbs, lies compact, being almoſt as broad as long, is about ſix miles in circumference on the Glouceſter ſide, and three miles on the Somerſet ſide, which, in the whole, make nine miles in circumference. The houſes are cloſe and crowded, eſpecially towards the bridge and the heart of the city, where many of them are five or ſix ſtories high. The aſcent to St. Michael's Hill is very ſteep.

Bath was famous in the time of the Romans for its medicinal waters, called, by Ptolemy, the Hot Waters; by Antoninus, the Waters of the Sun; by the Britons, Caer Baden, the City of Bath; and by the Saxons, Akmanchefter, or the City of Valetudinarians. The names of the ſeveral baths are, the King's-bath, the Queen's-bath, the Croſs-bath, and the Hot-bath. In the King's-bath is a ſtatue of Bladud, eighth king of the Britons, with an inſcription under it, importing that he diſcovered the uſe of theſe baths 863 years before Chriſt. That this place was of old a reſort of cripples and diſeaſed perſons, appears from the crutches hung up at the ſeveral baths, as the thank-offerings of thoſe who came hither lame, and went away cured: but the city of Bath is now more frequented by the ſound for their pleaſure, than by the ſick for their health. The ſprings were doubtleſs ſeparated from the common ſprings by the Romans, and fenced in with a durable wall. The company aſſemble in the pump-room every morning between the hours of eight and ten to drink the waters, a band of muſic always attending to entertain them. A fine marble ſtatue of the late Richard Naſh, Eſq; executed at the expence of the corporation, perpetuates the memory of a man, under whoſe government the city of Bath roſe to its preſent degree of ſplendor.

Bath has amazingly increaſed of late years in the extent and elegance of its buildings. The firſt improvement was the erection of Queen's-ſquare, began in 1729, in the center of which is a garden, and an obeliſk 70 feet high, in honour of his late Royal Highneſs Frederick, Prince of Wales. When the ſquare was finiſhed, Mr. Wood (an eminent architect) planned ſeveral ſtreets contigous to it; and, in 1739, began the North and South Parades, Pierrepoint-ſtreet, Duke-ſtreet, and others. In 1754 he planned the Circus, a beautiful circular pile of buildings, uniformly conſiſting of the Doric, Ionic, and Corinthian orders. Grey-ſtreet, Brook-ſtreet, Bennet-ſtreet, and the Creſcent, ought not to be here omitted. The laſt mentioned is a moſt magnificent and much admired pile of buildings, in the elliptical form, conſiſting of one order only of Ionic pillars ſupporting the upper cornice, and commanding a proſpect beyond all deſcription.

Wells has its name from the wells and ſprings about the city, which is but of ſmall extent, though well inhabited. The buildings are neat, and the cathedral is ſtately.

Cheddar is famed for fine cheeſe. It is common here for three or four dairies to join their milk, and to make what is called a Cheddar Cheeſe.

Frome is ſituated 10 miles from Bath. The woollen manufacture is reckoned more conſiderable here than in any part of England.

Bridgewater is ſeated on the river Parret, over which there is a ſtone bridge. Ships of conſiderable burden come up to its quay; and, from its convenient ſituation for commerce, the inhabitants have a pretty good coaſting trade.

Glaſtonbury is famous for its abbey, ſome magnificent ruins of which are ſtill remaining.

Taunton is a handſome town, and has ſeveral large woollen manufactories.

WILTSHIRE, ſituated to the north-eaſt of Somerſetſhire, is rather unfertile, but abounds in ſheep. The principal place is

Saliſbury, or New Sarum, an epiſcopal ſee, and a large well built pleaſant city, near which four rivers join their ſtreams, and flow through every ſtreet. The cathedral is conſidered as the moſt elegant and regular in the kingdom, particularly for its lofty ſtone ſpire. The number of windows, pillars, and doors, in this fabric, alſo add to its celebrity. There are three other churches beſides the cathedral. The market-place, in which is a fine town houſe, is a ſquare ſo ſpacious that three or four battalions of foot may be muſtered without being crowded. There are ſome remarkable monuments in the cathedral and other places.

HAMPSHIRE, ſituated to the north eaſt of Dorſetſhire, is famous for hogs, ſheep, and timber. The principal places are

Winchefter, on the Itching. It reſembles an amphitheatre, and is ſurrounded by chalk hills. On St. Catherine's Hill, near the city, are the remains of a camp; and on the weſt gate was a caſtle, where the Weſt Saxon kings kept their court. The cathedral is venerable and large, but not elegant. Here are ſix other churches, two hoſpitals, a college, ſeveral public ſchools, &c.

Southampton, 12 miles from Winchefter, ſtands between two large rivers, the Itching and the Teſe, that fall here into that called Southampton Water. It has a wall almoſt round it, of a hard kind of ſtone. Henry VI. made it a county of itſelf, which renders it independent of the lord lieutenant. The chief ſtreet is one of the broadeſt and longeſt in England. It has one large quay, and one other called Weſt-Quay, where the Guernſey and Jerſey veſſels always anchor, with which iſlands they carry on a conſiderable trade. The approach to the town, from the London road, is extremely pleaſant.

Portſmouth, the great key of England, is regularly fortified, and ſtands at the entrance of a creek, on the iſland of Portſea. It is alſo defended by South-Sea-caſtle, Blockhouſe-caſtle, and a chain that goes acroſs the harbour from the round tower to the oppoſite ſhore. This is the narroweſt point of entrance to a large and ſafe harbour. The dock-yard is as convenient as can be imagined, capable of docking 25 or 30 ſhips in a fortnight. In the dock is likewiſe a royal academy. The Common, as it is called, is the reſidence chiefly of the artificers and officers of the dock. Here is one very magnificent church, having on the top of the ſteeple a ſhip for a weather-cock.

BERKSHIRE, ſituated to the north of Hampſhire, has a fertile ſoil, and contains

Windſor, 21 miles from London, a pleaſant and ancient town on the Thames, and has a fine caſtle, built by William the Conqueror. Edward III. who was born here, enlarged and beautified it; built the royal palace and chapel, together with St. George's hall and its chapel, and inſtituted here the Order of the Garter. Queen Elizabeth added the noble terrace, faced with free-ſtone ramparts, like thoſe of a fortified city, which is ſcarce to be equalled in Europe. King Charles II. laid out great ſums in repairing, new modelling, and furniſhing this palace; and there is a fine equeſtrian ſtatue of him, erected in 1680, over a great well in the inner court. St. George's hall is eſteemed one of the fineſt in Europe. The royal chapel is beautifully adorned with curious paintings. The round tower is built like an amphitheatre, very high, with elegant apartments. On the north ſide is St. George's, or the chapel of the garter, one of the moſt elegant Gothic ſtructures in the univerſe. In the choir are the ſtalls of the knights of the order, and their banners over them, with a throne for their ſovereign.

Here are two parks; the little park, about three miles, and the great park 14 miles, in circumference, ſtocked with all kinds of game, and laviſhly embelliſhed by the hand of nature. In the foreſt, which is 30 miles round, are ſeveral ſeats; particularly Cranbourn Lodge, which ſtands on the top of a hill, and has a view not only of Windſor and its parks, but of London and the adjacent country.

Reading, the principal town of the county, ſtands on the river Thames, near the influx of the Kennet, and has three pariſh churches, built of flint and ſquare ſtone. An hoſpital was founded here, and liberally endowed, by archbiſhop Laud. It had anciently a monaſtery, equal to moſt in England, both for riches and beauty. The gate-houſe is ſtill pretty entire; and there are ſome remains of its walls eight feet thick. The moſt remarkable curioſity of natural hiſtory is a continued bed of oyſter-ſhells, which, for many generations, has been found near this place, extended through the circumference of five or ſix acres of ground.

SURREY, ſituated to the ſouth of Middleſex, is a pleaſant, healthy, fertile county. The principal place (excluſive of the borough of Southwark) is

Guildford, a large well-built town, on the river Wey, which is navigable from thence to the Thames. Not far from the river are ruinous walls of an old caſtle, this place having, in the Saxon times, been a royal villa, where many of our kings kept their feſtivals. Here are three pariſh churches. The road to Chicheſter and Portſmouth lies through this town, which has long been famous for good inns and accommodations. Here are alms-houſes, liberally endowed, and the remains of a once famous manufactory of cloth. In the neighbourhood are the walls of what was formerly called St. Catherine's Chapel, built with a ſort of tile, which, when broken, has the appearance of iron, and the cement of them is in a manner impenetrable. The road leading from Guildford to Farnham is remarkable for running along upon the ridge of an high chalky hill, called St. Catherine's, no wider than the road itſelf, from whence there is a delightful proſpect.

Richmond, anciently called Shene, is remarkable for its beautiful ſituation and royal palace, in which are many curious paintings by the moſt eminent maſters. Queen Caroline took great delight here; and his preſent majeſty has made great improvements in the gardens of this delightful place. The town runs up the hill a full mile to the park, with ſmall gardens declining all the way to the Thames, over which has been erected a very neat bridge.

SUSSEX, a maritime county, ſituated to the ſouth of Surrey, abounds in ſheep, wool, &c. The chief place is

Chicheſter, ſituated on a plain near an arm of the ſea. It is a very neat ſmall city, walled about in a circular form; with four gates opening to the four principal ſtreets, which meet in the center, where is a beautiful croſs. All the ſpace or quarter between the weſt and ſouth gates is taken up with the cathedral, the biſhop's palace, the dean's, prebendaries, and vicars houſes. The church itſelf is not large, but very neat, with a high ſtone ſpire of an octagonal form, eſteemed a complete piece of architecture.

KENT, ſituated to the ſouth-eaſt of Middleſex, abounds in hops, wood, and fruit. The principal places are

Canterbury, the chief of the county, and the metropolitan ſee of all England. The cathedral is a noble pile of Gothic architecture. Seven kings have been interred in this church; and St. Auguſtine, with the ſeven archbiſhops that ſucceeded him, lie in one vault. Here was the ſhrine of Thomas-a-Becket, ſo famous for its riches offered by votaries and pilgrims from moſt parts of the univerſe. Among the ruins of the Roman and Saxon buildings, and of many religious houſes, are the walls of a chapel, ſaid to have been a Chriſtian temple before St. Auguſtine's time. Two gates of the monaſtery, built by Ethelbert, king of Kent, about the year 600, at the requeſt of Auſtin the monk, are ſtill remaining. Here are ſix wards, denominated from its ſix gates, fifteen pariſh churches, and ſeven hoſpitals.

Rocheſter lies in a valley on the eaſt ſide of the river Medway, and, except Canterbury, is the oldeſt ſee in England. Its cathedral is ſaid to have been built by Ethelbert, king of Kent. Here is a ſtone bridge, conſiſting of 25 arches, which is eſteemed one of the fineſt in England. Rocheſter appears to have been a Roman ſtation, from the Roman Watling-ſtreet running thro' the town.

Tunbridge, or Town of Bridges, is ſo called from the river Ton, and four other ſtreams of the Medway, which riſe in the Weald, runing hither, over each of which is a ſtone bridge. The river Medway is made navigable up to the town. Five miles from Tunbridge town are Tunbridge Wells, much frequented on account of their mineral waters.

Margate, or St. John's, is ſituated on the north ſide of the Iſle of Thanet, and is a member of the town and port of Dover, to which it is ſubject in all matters of civil juriſdiction. The principal ſtreet is near a mile in length, and built on an eaſy deſcent, by which means the upper part is clean and dry, but the lower end much otherwiſe. The pier is maintained and preſerved by certain payments for all goods and commodities ſhipped or landed. The bathing-rooms are not large, but convenient. There are ſome of theſe rooms that employ ſeveral machines till near the time of high water, which, at the ebb of the tide, ſometimes runs two or three hundred yards into the bay. The ſands are ſo ſafe and clean, and every convenience for bathing is carried to ſuch great perfection, that it is no wonder this place ſhould be frequented by multitudes of people, who bathe in the ſea either for health or pleaſure.

Greenwich is noted for its magnificent hoſpital for decayed ſeamen, its delightful park, and its aſtronomical obſervatory. The hoſpital is thought to be one of the fineſt ſtructures of the kind in the world, and its noble hall is finely painted. It was formerly noted for its palace, where Queen Elizabeth was born; but that was pulled down, and what is ſo called now ſerves for apartments for the governor of the hoſpital, and the ranger of the park.

MIDDLESEX takes its name from its ſituation between the kingdoms of the ancient Eaſt, Weſt, and South Saxons. Amongſt other places it contains

LONDON, the metropolis of Great Britain. This city is very ancient. It is mentioned by Tacitus as a place of conſiderable trade in the reign of Nero, and hence we may conclude it was founded about the time of Claudius, and the year of Chriſt 42.

The city of London has undergone great calamities of various kinds; but the two laſt were moſt remarkable; that is, the plague in 1665, which ſwept away 68,596 perſons; and the fire in 1666, which burnt down 13,200 dwelling-houſes.

London, in it's large ſenſe, comprehending Weſtminſter, Southwark, and part of Middleſex, is a city of ſurprizing extent, prodigious wealth, and moſt extenſive trade. It is delightfully and advantageouſly ſituated on the banks of the Thames, from which it riſes with a gradual aſcent. Nothing can be more beautiful than the ſurrounding country, conſiſting of rich corn fields, fertile meadows, large tracks of garden grounds, parks, and elegant villas, belonging to the nobility, and perſons of opulence.

The irregular form of this city renders it difficult to aſcertain its extent. The beſt idea that can be formed of it is from the number of the people, who are computed to be near a million, and from the multiplicity of edifices devoted to the ſervice of religion. To deſcribe the various ſtructures with which this city abounds would require a volume. The moſt remarkable, therefore, will only be attended to under this article.

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Weſtminſter-bridge is reckoned one of the moſt complete and elegant ſtructures of the kind in the known world. It is built entirely of ſtone, and extended over the river at a place where it is 1,223 feet broad, which is above 300 feet broader than at London-bridge. On each ſide is a fine balluſtrade of ſtone, with places of ſhelter from the rain. This magnificent ſtructure was begun in 1738, and finiſhed in 1750.

Blackfriars-bridge, which, in magnifience or workmanſhip, is allowed to fall nothing ſhort of that of Weſtminſter, was begun in 1760, and finiſhed in 1770. It is ſituated almoſt at an equal diſtance between thoſe of Weſtminſter and London, commands a view of the Thames from the latter to Whitehall, and diſcovers the majeſty of St. Paul's in a very ſtriking manner.

The cathedral of St. Paul is one of the moſt capacious, magnificent, and regular Proteſtant churches in the world. It is built of Portland ſtone, according to the Greek and Roman orders, in the form of a croſs, after the model of St. Peter's at Rome, to which, in ſome reſpects, it is deemed ſuperior. This edifice is the principal work of Sir Chriſtopher Wren, and undoubtedly the only work of the ſame magnitude that ever was completed by one man. He lived to a great age, and finiſhed the building 37 years after himſelf laid the firſt ſtone. The expence of rebuilding it after the fire of London was defrayed by a duty on coals, and is computed at a million ſterling.

Weſtminſter-abbey is a venerable pile of building in the Gothic taſte. It was firſt built by Edward the Confeſſor. King Henry III. rebuilt it from the ground; and Henry VII. added a fine chapel to the eaſt end of it. This is the depoſitory of the deceaſed Britiſh kings and nobility, and here are alſo monuments erected to perpetuate the memories of poets, philoſophers, heroes, and patriots.

The inſide of the church of St. Stephen, Walbrook, is admired for its lightneſs and elegance. The ſteeples of St. Mary-le-Bow and St. Bride's are ſuppoſed to be the moſt complete in their kind of any in Europe. Few churches in or about London are without ſome beauty. Several of the new ones are built in elegant taſte; and even ſome of the chapels have gracefulneſs and proportion to recommend them.

Weſtminſter-hall, though on the outſide it makes no very advantageous appearance, is a noble Gothic building, and deemed the largeſt room in the world, whoſe roof is not ſupported with pillars. Here are held the coronation feaſts of our kings and queens: alſo the courts of chancery, king's bench, common pleas, and exchequer.

That beautiful column, called the Monument, erected at the charge of the city to perpetuate the memory of the dreadful fire of London in 1666, is worthy of notice. This monument was begun by Sir Chriſtopher Wren in 1671, and finiſhed by him in 1677.

The Royal Exchange is a large and noble edifice, calculated for the tranſaction of commercial buſineſs between the merchants of London and other places.

To theſe may be added the Tower of London, Bank of England, Guildhall, the College of Phyſicians in Warwick-lane, Chriſt's Hoſpital, the College of Heralds, New Treaſury, the Admiralty-office, the Horſe Guards at Whitehall, the Manſion-houſe, or the houſe of the lord mayor, the Cuſtom-houſe, Exciſe-office, India-houſe, Inns of court, a great number of other public buildings, beſides the magnificent edifices raiſed by the nobility and gentry.

In the center of the town, and upon the banks of the nobleſt river in Europe, was a chain of inelegant ruinous houſes, known by the names of Durham-yard, the Savoy, and Somerſet-houſe. The firſt being private property, engaged the notice of an ingenious architect, who opened the way to a piece of ſcenery which no city in Europe can equal. On the ſite of Durham-yard was raiſed upon arches the pile of the Adelphi, celebrated for its enchanting proſpect, the utility of its wharfs, and its ſubterraneous apartments, anſwering a variety of purpoſes of general benefit.

Contiguous to the Adelphi ſtands the Savoy, the property of government, hitherto a nuiſance; and adjoining to the Savoy, towards the Temple, ſtood Somerſet-houſe, where, being the property of government alſo, a new pile of buildings for public offices has been erected; and here, in a very magnificent edifice, are elegant apartments appointed for the uſe of the Royal Society, the Royal Academy of Painting and Sculpture, and the Society of Antiquaries.

Among the liſt of improvements worthy notice may be included the Six Clerks-Office in Chancery-lane; and that very ſubſtantial building in the Old Bailey, which does honour to a people celebrated for their cleanlineſs and humanity. Here the unfortunate debtor will no longer be annoyed by the dreadful rattle of chains, and by the more horrid ſounds iſſuing from the lips of thoſe wretched beings who ſet defiance to all laws, human and divine; and here alſo the offender, whoſe crime is not capital, may enjoy a free open air.

In the metropolis, and its environs, are many excellent charitable foundations; particularly St. Bartholomew's Hoſpital near Smithfield; the Small-pox Hoſpital in Coldbath-fields, and another near Battle-bridge-Wells; the Lying-in Hoſpital in Brownlow-ſtreet, Long-acre; another in the City Road; and a third near Weſtminſter-bridge; St. Thomas's and Guy's hoſpitals in Southwark; St. George's and the Lock, near Hyde-Park-corner; the Middleſex Hoſpital in Tottenham-Court-Road; the London Hoſpital at Mile-end; the Magdalen, for the reformation of proſtitutes, and the Aſylum, for the reception of female orphans, in St. George's Fields. To theſe muſt be added, Bedlam, or Bethlem Hoſpital, for lunatics, in Lower Moorfields; and St. Luke's, lately in Upper Moorfields, but now erected upon a large and extenſive plan in Old-ſtreet Road. The Foundling Hoſpital merits equal notice, as its plans and erections are equally laudable and liberal.

The new buildings in the liberty of Weſtminſter have, within theſe few years, increaſed to a prodigious degree. Among them are ſeveral magnificent ſquares, as thoſe of Hanover, Berkeley, Groſvenor, Cavendiſh, Portman, and Manchester. To the eaſt of this laſt is Portland Place, the buildings in which are deemed ſuperior in grandeur to any in Europe. Beſides the above ſquares there are St. James's, Soho, Leiceſter, Golden, Bloomſbury, and Bedford; to which may be added the magnificent ſquare called Lincoln's-Inn-Fields, and ſeveral others of leſs note, both in the city and ſuburbs.

The number of pariſhes in London are, 97 within the walls, 16 without, 19 in the out-pariſhes of Middleſex, and 11 in the city and liberties of Weſtminſter. The number of meeting-houſes, for Proteſtant diſſenters of all denominations, is very great; beſides which there are three Jews Synagogues. The public ſchools are, that of St. Paul; Merchant-Taylors ſchool in Suffolk-lane, near Cannon-ſtreet; the Charter-houſe; the Royal ſchool in Weſtminſter; and St. Martin's ſchool near the King's Mews.

The very elegant method of paving and enlightening the ſtreets is felt in the moſt ſenſible manner by all ranks and degrees of people. The roads are continued for ſeveral miles around upon the ſame model, and, excluſive of lamps regularly placed on each ſide, at ſhort diſtances, are rendered more ſecure by watchmen ſtationed within call of each other. Nothing can appear more brilliant than the lights when viewed at a diſtance, eſpecially when the roads run acroſs; and even the principal ſtreets, ſuch as Pall-Mall, New-Bond ſtreet, Oxford ſtreet, &c. convey an idea of elegance and magnificence.

The trading part of the city of London is divided into a number of companies. Of theſe there are 12

principal; the mercers, grocers, drapers, fiſhmongers, goldſmiths, ſtationers, merchant-taylors, haberdaſhers, ſalters, ironmongers, vintners and clothworkers. The city magiſtrates are the lord-mayor, 26 aldermen, 236 common-councilmen, a recorder, two ſheriffs, a chamberlain, a common-ſerjeant, and town-clerk.

The city and liberties of Weſtminſter are governed by a high-ſteward, a head-bailiff, a high-conſtable and 14 burgeſſes.

Learned bodies of men, beſides the clergy, are, the Royal Society, the College of Phyſicians, and the Society of Antiquarians. The fineſt repoſitory of rarities is Sir Hans Sloane's Muſeum, kept in Great Ruſſel-ſtreet, Bloomſbury.

ESSEX, which is ſituated to the eaſt of Middleſex, is extremely fertile, and abounds in cattle, ſaffron, &c.

Colcheſter, the chief town of the county, is a large populous place, on the river Coln, which paſſes thro' it, and is made navigable for ſmall craft up to the Hithe, a long ſtreet, which may be called the Wapping of Colcheſter, where there is a convenient quay; and at Vennoe, within three miles of it, is a good cuſtom-houſe. This, and all the towns round it, are noted for making baize, of which great quantities are exported. Colcheſter is alſo noted for excellent oyſters.

Chelmsford ſtands in a beautiful plain, having the little river Chelmer running through it, over which there is a bridge. It is a large populous town, almoſt in the center of the county. Its ſituation renders it the moſt frequented; and it is called the ſhire town.

Harwich, a ſea port town, contains one of the fineſt harbours in Europe. Here is alſo a good dock yard, in which many ſhips are built.

HERTFORDSHIRE, or Hartfordſhire, which received its name from the great number of harts with which it formerly abounded, is ſituated weſtward of Eſſex. It is a county particularly fertile in corn and wood.

Hertford is the ſhire town, though inferior either to Ware or St. Alban's in opulence. It is pleaſantly ſituated on the river Lea, and built in the form of a Roman Y. It has two churches, All Saints and St. Andrew's.

BEDFORDSHIRE, ſituated north weſt of Hertfordſhire, is fruitful in corn and paſture.

Bedford, the county town, is a clean, well-built, populous place. Here are five churches, of which the chief, and indeed the principal ornament of the town, is St. Paul's, which had once a college of prebendaries. The priory, now belonging to the earl of Aſhburnham, was founded before the Norman conqueſt, for ſecular canons. The buildings of this town are pretty good, and the ſtreets broad. The north and ſouth parts are joined by a ſtone bridge over the Ouſe. A famous caſtle here was demoliſhed in the reign of Henry VIII. and the ſite is now a bowling green, reckoned one of the fineſt in England.

BUCKINGHAMSHIRE, ſouth weſt of Bedfordſhire, is a pleaſant fruitful county, and abounds particularly in phyſical plants.

Buckingham, the county town, ſtands in a low ground, encompaſſed on all ſides, but the north, with the river Ouſe. The caſtle, now in ruins, was built in the middle of it, and divides it into two parts. In the north part ſtands the town hall, a very handſome convenient ſtructure. The town was, for many years, a ſtaple for wool, and ſeveral of its wool halls are yet ſtanding; but that trade is now loſt. It is populous, and has three ſtone bridges over the Ouſe. Its church, which is in the weſt part of the town, is very large. The lace manufacture is the principal buſineſs here, as well as in other parts of the county. There is a road from this town leading to the Marquis of Buckingham's (late Earl Temple's) celebrated ſeat at Stowe. It runs in a ſtraight line, about two miles up to the Corinthian arch; which, however, ſometimes diſappears, owing to the riſing and falling of the ground. The temple, pavilions, pyramids, obeliſks, monuments, ſtatues, buſts, &c. which adorn the elegant villa at Stowe, are all highly finiſhed; and the many inſcriptions are deſigned for the information and inſtruction of the beholder.

OXFORDSHIRE, ſituated to the weſt of Buckinghamſhire, is a pleaſant, healthful, and fertile county.

The city of Oxford ſtands on the conflux of the Charwell and Iſis. It enjoys a ſweet air, in a plentiful country, on a fine plain, and has every way a delightful proſpect. The private buildings are near, the public ones ſumptuous; and the river navigable for barges. But that which gives it a conſequence above all other places in this kingdom, is the oldeſt and moſt noble univerſity in Europe. It is of ſo great antiquity as to have been an univerſity between eight or nine hundred years. The conſtitution is ſo regular, the endowments ſo plentiful, the manſions ſo convenient for ſtudy, and every thing ſo agreeable to the education of youth, and the accompliſhment of ſtudents, that it is no wonder ſuch numbers of learned men are daily ſent abroad for the ſervice of the church and ſtate. It contains 20 colleges; five halls; a ſtately pile, called the ſchools, wherein exerciſes for the ſeveral degrees are performed; the theatre, the moſt magnificent building of the kind in the world; the Clarendon printing-houſe, which likewiſe ſurpaſſes every thing of a ſimilar nature in the univerſe; the muſeum, containing a chemical elaboratory; a repoſitory of natural and artificial curioſities and antiquities; a library; a phyſic garden, &c. It is governed by a chancellor, vice-chancellor, &c.

GLOUCESTERSHIRE, ſituated to the weſtward of Oxfordſhire, is tolerably pleaſant, but indifferently fertile.

Glouceſter is a well built, clean, healthy city, ſecured by the river on one ſide, a branch of which brings up veſſels of a conſiderable burthen to its walls. It has a beautiful cathedral, five churches, and is well provided with hoſpitals. The cathedral is an antient but magnificent fabric, and has a tower, which is one of the neateſt and moſt curious pieces of architecture in England, and a whiſpering place, as in the cupola of St. Paul's. Here is an elegant ſtone bridge over the river, with a key, wharf, and cuſtom-houſe. Abundance of croſſes, and ſtatues of the kings of England, are diſperſed in different parts of the city, and large remains of monaſteries. Its town-hall, for the aſſize, is called the Booth-hall. Under the bridge is a curious machine, which raiſes water to ſerve the town; though it is alſo ſupplied from Robin Hood's Well, which is a mile or two out of the city. Cheltenham is noted for its mineral waters, for which it has been much frequented, and is now more ſo, having obtained the ſanction of a viſit from their majeſties, and a part of the royal family.

MONMOUTHSHIRE, which was formerly part of Wales, is the moſt weſtern Engliſh county towards South Wales.

Monmouth, 12 miles from Hereford, gives name to the county, and has its own from the mouth of the river Minway, at which it is ſituated. It ſtands pleaſantly between that river and the Wye, over each of which it has a bridge. It has been a place of note ever ſince the conqueſt; for the caſtle, now in ruins, was a ſtately edifice at that time. There are ſtill remaining ſuch parts of its fortifications as ſhew that it was formerly very ſtrong. The town is, in a manner, ſurrounded by water, there being another river, the Trothy, over which it has alſo a bridge. It has a ſtately church, the eaſt end of which is curiouſly built. The place carries on a conſiderable traffic with Briſtol by means of the Wye.

HEREFORDSHIRE, north of Monmouthſhire, is one of the moſt fertile counties in England, and particularly celebrated for its cyder.

Hereford, the only city in this county, has a good ſtone bridge of eight arches over the Wye, and is encompaſſed with rivers on all ſides but the weſt. Its name ſignifies the ford of an army, it having been for ſeveral hundred years the head quarters of the Saxons be-

fore the conqueſt, and of the Engliſh afterwards, who were ſtationed here to keep the Welſh in awe. Before the civil wars it had ſix, but has now only four churches. The cathedral is a magnificent ſtructure, and contains monuments of its antient prelates. The biſhop's caſtle, the cloſe with the dignitaries houſes, and the college of the vicars and choriſters, are pleaſantly ſituated. It is a large, but not very populous city; the houſes old and mean, and the ſtreets dirty, by reaſon of its low ſituation.

Worcestershire, north-eaſt of Hereford ſhire, is a well watered and very fruitful county.

Worceſter, on the Severn, over which it has a fine ſtone bridge, is the capital. The remarkable battle in 1651, when Charles II. was defeated by Cromwell, was fought near the ſouth gate of the city, where bones of the ſlain are frequently dug up. The chief manufactures of the place are broad cloth, gloves, and porcelaine, which is a compoſition of a middle nature, between fine earth and glaſs. The public buildings make a grand appearance, eſpecially the guildhall, and the workhouſe. It had formerly a caſtle, and walls with three gates, and five watch towers; all long ſince deſtroyed. The cathedral, which is exactly the model of that of Bruſſels, is a large edifice, but not very elegant, except the choir of the chapel, on the ſouth ſide, which is of curious workmanſhip. A handſome library belongs to the cathedral, ſupported by one ſingle pillar in the middle. Here are the monuments of king John; prince Arthur, brother to Henry VIII. the counteſs of Saliſbury; and other illuſtrious perſons. Beſides the cathedral, there are nine pariſh churches. The ſtreets are broad and well paved; the Foregate-ſtreet is regular and beautiful. The hoſpitals deſerve notice, eſpecially that noble one erected by Robert Berkley, of Spetchley, who laid out 2000l. in the building, and 4000l. in endowing it for 12 poor men. Beſides this, there are ſix or ſeven others. The Severn, though generally rapid elſewhere, glides by Worceſter very gently. Here is a good water-houſe and quay.

Warwickshire, to the eaſt of Worceſterſhire, is very fertile, and particularly famous for its iron works.

Coventry is united with Litchfield in Staffordſhire, as a biſhopric. There are many traditional ſtories relating to this city, particularly that of lady Godina, who, to obtain and perpetuate ſome privileges, rode naked through the ſtreets; and an annual proceſſion is ſtill made through the town in commemoration of it. This city is large and populous, but the buildings are old; and ſome of them, which are built of timber, project out ſo much, that in the narrow ſtreets the tops of the oppoſite houſes almoſt touch. The chief churches are St. Michael's and Trinity. The Proteſtant diſſenters are a conſiderable body here. The town-houſe is worth ſeeing, the windows being of painted glaſs, repreſenting ſome of the old kings, &c. who have been benefactors to this city. Its chief manufactures are tammies, and the weaving of ribbons.

Warwick, on the Avon, the county town, ſtands on a ſituation remarkably rocky. It is of great antiquity, and may be approached by four ways, anſwering to the points of the compaſs, and cut through rocks. Theſe lead to four ſtreets, which meet in the center of the town. The walls and cellars are made in the rock. It is ſupplied with water by pipes from ſprings half a mile off, and has a noble ſtone bridge of 12 arches over the Avon. Here is a caſtle, the principal ornament of the place, ſtrong both by art and nature. The rock on which it ſtands is 40 feet from the river; but on the north ſide it is even with the town. From its terrace, which is above 50 feet perpendicular above the Avon, there is a proſpect of the river, and a beautiful country beyond it. The apartments of the caſtle are well contrived, and many of them adorned with original pictures by Van Dyke. It was built originally by William the Conqueror. Near the town is Guy's Cliff, a high perpendicular rock, where Guy, earl of Warwick, is ſaid to have lived a hermit, after his defeating the Daniſh giant Colbrand. His ſword and other accoutrements are ſtill ſhewn in the caſtle.

Birmingham is a very large populous town, the upper part of which ſtands dry on the ſide of a hill, but the lower is watery, and inhabited by the meaner ſort of people. They are employed here in the iron works, in which they are ſuch ingenious artificers, that their performances, in the ſmall wares of iron and ſteel, are admired both at home and abroad. It is much improved of late years, both in public and private buildings. Near this town is a ſeat belonging to Sir Liſter Holt, bart. but converted into public gardens, with an organ and other muſic, in imitation of Vauxhall, which is the name it now goes by.

Northamptonshire, eaſt of Warwickſhire, has leſs waſte ground than any other county, and conſequently is exceeding rich and fertile.

Northampton ſtands upon the Nen, over which it has two bridges. The buildings were handſome, and the town large (having ſeven pariſh churches within the walls, and two without) when it was reduced to aſhes by a dreadful fire in 1675. Liberal contributions from all parts of the kingdom reſtored it in a great meaſure to its original ſize; and for neatneſs, beauty, and ſituation, few towns equal it. It has four churches, of which the great one, viz. Allhallows, is a handſome edifice, with a ſtately portico of 12 lofty Ionic columns, and a ſtatue of king Charles II. on the baluſtrade. It ſtands near the center of the town, and at the meeting of four ſpacious ſtreets. The ſeſſions and aſſize houſe is a very beautiful building of the Corinthian order. The market place is one of the fineſt in Europe. The horſe market is thought to exceed any other of the kind in England. Its moſt conſiderable manufacture is ſhoes, of which great numbers are exported; the next to that ſtockings. A county hoſpital is built here after the manner of the infirmaries of London, Briſtol, Bath, &c. and the river Nen has lately been made navigable up to the town.

Huntingdonshire, to the eaſt of Northampton-ſhire, is a great corn and paſture county, and abounds in fiſh and wild fowl.

Huntingdon, near the Ouſe, over which it has a ſtone bridge, is the conſtant place for the aſſize, as well as the county goal, and is a populous trading town, conſiſting chiefly of one large ſtreet, well-built, with a handſome market-place, and a good grammar ſchool. More beautiful meadows are not to be ſeen any where than on the banks of the river, which, in the ſummer, are covered with numerous herds of cattle, and flocks of ſheep. The bridge, or rather bridges, with the cauſeway, are ornaments, as well as benefits to the town.

Cambridgeshire, including the Iſle of Ely, is ſituated to the weſt of Suffolk, and is in general very fertile.

Cambridge is ſo called from its ſituation on the banks of the Cam, which forms ſeveral iſlands on the weſt ſide, and divides the town into two parts, which are joined by a large ſtone bridge. It is very ancient, being well known in the time of the Romans by the name of Camboritum. William the Conqueror built a caſtle here, of which the gate-houſe is ſtill ſtanding, and uſed for the county goal. The town is divided into 10 wards, has 14 pariſh churches, contains upwards of 1200 houſes, for the moſt part irregularly built, and about 6000 inhabitants.

This univerſity contains 12 colleges and four halls, is a corporation of itſelf, and governed by a chancellor, high-ſteward, vice-chancellor, &c.

Stourbridge, a large ſpot of ground near Cambridge, is famous for one of the greateſt annual fairs in England. The chief articles ſold here conſiſt of woollen cloth, hops, iron, wool, leather, and cheeſe.

Ely, an ancient city, ſituated in the fenny country, called the Iſle of Ely, and being ſurrounded by the Ouſe and other ſtreams, is unhealthy, though it ſtands on a riſing ground. It was made an epiſcopal ſee by

Henry I. The cathedral and the biſhop's palace are its chief ornaments: the former has a remarkable dome and lanthorn.

Newmarket, a handſome, well built town, conſiſting of one long ſtreet, the north ſide of which is in Suffolk, is famous for horſe-races, and much frequented by perſons of all ranks. The town is not modern, as the name imports; for it was of note in Edward III's. time; but being burnt down in 1683, was afterwards rebuilt. Beſides the pariſh church of St. Mary's, there is alſo a ſmall church, All-Saints, which is, properly ſpeaking, only a chapel of eaſe to Wood-Ditton, in Cambridgeſhire. It is a healthy place, and on a ſpacious heath, which is the fineſt courſe in England. Here are ſeveral very wide, ſteep, and long ditches, which were cut by the Eaſt Angles, to keep out the Mercians; one of which, being a ſtupendous work, much ſuperior to the reſt, has obtained the name of the Devil's Ditch; which runs many miles over the heath.

SUFFOLK, a maritime county, ſituated weſt of the German Ocean, has but an indifferent ſoil, but is well watered.

Ipſwich was once in a flouriſhing ſtate, as appears from the great number of ſhips that belonged to it, when its harbour was more commodious; and it had 21 churches, of which now only 12 remain. The tide riſes here 12, and ſometimes 14 feet. The town is populous, about a mile long, and ſomething more in breadth, forming a ſort of half moon on the banks of the river, over which it has a good bridge of ſtone. It is a corporation; and its chief manufactures are linen and woollen. Here are a convenient quay and cuſtom-houſe.

NORFOLK, a maritime county, to the north of Suffolk, is exceedingly fruitful.

Norwich is a large city, near the conflux of the rivers Venſder and Yare. It ſtands on the ſide of a hill, and is near two miles in length, and one in breadth. The town is irregular; though the buildings, both public and private, are neat and handſome. The manufactures, for the greateſt part, are crapes and ſtuffs, of which vaſt quantities are ſent from Yarmouth (a neighbouring ſea port) to Holland, Germany, Sweden, and other parts in the Baltic. It has 12 gates, and ſix bridges over the Yare; 36 churches, beſides the cathedral, and chapels and meeting-houſes of all denominations. The roof of the cathedral, a large, venerable, and handſome ſtructure, is adorned with the hiſtory of the bible. The choir is large and ſpacious. Here are two churches for the Dutch and French Flemings, who enjoy ſingular privileges.

Yarmouth is a ſea port of great ſtrength, both from art and nature. It is eſteemed the key of this coaſt; but though the harbour is a fine one, it is dangerous in windy weather. This place is noted for its herrings.

LINCOLNSHIRE is a large plentiful maritime county, ſituated to the weſt of the German Ocean, and divided into three parts, viz. Holland, Keſteven, and Lindſey. The principal place in the firſt is

Boſton, on the Witham, which is navigable to Lincoln. This town was formerly made a ſtaple for wool, and the merchants of the Hans Towns fixed their guild here. It is a pleaſant, well built town, and has a good foreign and inland trade. Its church is reckoned the largeſt pariſh church without croſs ayles in all the world. Its tower, or ſteeple, is famous for its height and workmanſhip. It has a beautiful octagon lanthorn on the top, which is ſeen near 40 miles every way; but eſpecially on the ſea, as far as the entrance of the dangerous channels called Lynn-deeps and Boſton-deeps; ſo that it is the guide of mariners, as well as the wonder of travellers, and is a magnificent ſpecimen of a fine Gothic taſte. The town has a commodious haven, and is plentifully ſupplied with freſh water by pipes from a pond, encloſed in the great common called the Weſt Fenn.

The principal place of Keſteven is Stamford, on the Welland, which is navigable for barges. The town is finely ſituated on the declivity of a hill, has a ſtone bridge of five arches, a town hall, ſix pariſh churches, and a conſiderable trade in malt, coals, and free-ſtone.

Grantham, an ancient town on the river Witham, has ſeveral good inns of great reſort. It is well built. Here is a fine large church, with a handſome ſpire, which, by a deception of the ſight, ſeems to ſtand awry. A good free-ſchool was built and endowed here by Biſhop Fox, where Sir Iſaac Newton received his firſt education.

Lindſey diviſion contains

Lincoln, built on the ſide of a hill, at the bottom of which runs the river Witham in three ſmall channels, over which are ſeveral bridges. The cathedral was eſteemed the glory of Lincoln; for its magnificence and elevation is ſuch, that the monks concluded it would chagrin the devil to look at it, and thence an envious look, by a proverbial expreſſion, is compared to the devil looking over Lincoln. The city formerly abounded with monaſteries and churches. In the center of the old caſtle, which was built by the Romans, and repaired by the Saxons, is a modern ſtructure, where the aſſizes are held. The city is a county of itſelf, and has extenſive power and privileges. On the down of Lincoln is ſometimes ſeen that rare bird called the Buſtard. The country hereabout is very rich and agreeable; the noble track of Lincoln Heath extending, like Saliſbury Plain, above 50 miles. The cathedral was ſucceſſively brought to perfection by ſeveral of its biſhops. Here is the fineſt and largeſt bell in England, called Tom of Lincoln, near five ton weight, and near 23 feet in compaſs.

RUTLANDSHIRE, to the ſouth weſt of Lincolnſhire, is the ſmalleſt county in England, but contains more parks than any other, and is as fertile as pleaſant.

Oakham, the ſhire town for the aſſize, is ſituate in the little but rich vale of Catmos, and famous for its market, fairs, caſtle, hoſpitals, and free ſchool. This town is particularly remarkable for an ancient cuſtom ſtill kept up, viz. that every peer of the realm, the firſt time he comes through this town, ſhall give a horſe-ſhoe to nail upon the caſtle-gate; and if he refuſes, the bailiff of the manor has power to ſtop his coach, and take the ſhoe from one of his horſes. This is now called the order of the horſe-ſhoe; and it is common for the donor to have a large one made with his name ſtamped on it, and often gilt. One over the judges ſeat, in the aſſize hall, is of curious workmanſhip.

LEICESTERSIRE, ſituated to the weſt of Rutlandſhire, is a plentiful county.

Leiceſter, the chief town, is the largeſt, beſt built, and moſt populous in the ſhire: it has ſix pariſhes, and five churches. The freemen are exempt from toll in all markets in England. There is an exquiſite piece of workmanſhip in the high ſtreet, in form of Our Saviour's croſs. The hoſpital, built by Henry Plantagenet, duke of Lancaſter, is ſupported by ſome revenues of the duchy of Lancaſter, ſo as to be capable of maintaining an hundred aged perſons decently. It was rebuilt in 1776, at his majeſty's expence. There is another near the abbey for ſix widows. The inhabitants have greatly improved in their manufacture of ſtockings wove in frames, and return in that article a large ſum annually. Before the caſtle was diſmantled it was a noble work. Its hall and kitchen ſtill remain entire; and the former is ſo lofty and ſpacious, that it is made a court of juſtice at the aſſizes. One of the gateways of this place has an arch of curious workmanſhip; and in the tower, over it, is kept the magazine for the county militia. St. Margaret's church is a noble and elegant ſtructure.

NOTTINGHAMSHIRE, to the north of Leiceſterſhire, is fruitful towards the eaſtward part, but unfertile weſtward.

Nottingham ſtands pleaſantly on the aſcent of a rock overlooking the river Trent, which runs parallel with it about a mile to the ſouth, and has been made navi-

gable

gable. It has three churches; a grand town-houſe built on piazzas; a fine ſpacious market-place, well ſupplied; a goal for the town and county; a manufactory for weaving frame ſtockings; and likewiſe for glaſs and earthen ware. The rock on which the town ſtands is ſo remarkably ſoft, as to be capable of being cut out into ſteps, and other purpoſes, with great eaſe. The cellars are very good for keeping beer; and the county abounding in barley, the malt and beer-trade are greatly followed. Here is a houſe built on the ſide of a hill, where one enters at the garret, and deſcends to the cellar, which is at the top of the houſe. As the caſtle has oftener been the reſidence of our monarchs than any place ſo far from London, the town has more gentlemens houſes than any town of the ſize in Britain. In the duke of Newcaſtle's park there is a ledge of perpendicular rocks hewn into a church, houſes, chambers, dove-houſes, &c.

DERBYSHIRE, to the weſt of Nottinghamſhire, is barren on its ſurface, owing to the great number of hills, mountains, &c. but rich within the bowels of thoſe eminences. The peak, a mountainous part of this county, is much viſited on account of ſome rarities, called the Wonders of the peak; amongſt which is the fine ſeat of the duke of Devonſhire, at Chatſworth.

Derby, the county town, ſo called from having been a park or ſhelter for deer, ſtands on the weſt ſide of the river Derwent, over which it has a neat ſtone bridge of five arches. The ſouth ſide is watered by a little rivulet, called Mertin-brook, which has nine bridges over it. The moſt remarkable church in Derby is All-Saints, or Allhallows, having a beautiful Gothic ſquare tower, 60 yards high, with 4 pinnacles. This town depends chiefly on a retail trade, alſo in buying and ſelling corn, in making malt, and brewing ale, of both which great quantities are ſent to London.

YORKSHIRE, the largeſt county in the kingdom, contains a variety of ſoils, and is divided into three Ridings, viz. weſt, eaſt, and north, being ſo diſtinguiſhed on account of their ſituations with reſpect to the city of York.

York is ſituated on the river Ouſe, and its chief magiſtrate has the title of Lord Mayor. The cathedral is built in the Gothic taſte. The windows are adorned with glaſs exquiſitely painted with ſcripture hiſtory. The nave of this church is four feet and half wider, and 11 feet higher, than that of St. Paul's. The aſcent from it, through the choir to the altar, is by ſix ſteps. The entrance of the middle nave of the church, at the weſt door, is under the largeſt Gothic arch in Europe, which binds and ſupports the two towers. At the ſouth end of the croſs iſle is a circular window, called the marigold window, from its glaſs being ſtained of that colour; and a large one at the north end, conſiſting of five lights, reaching almoſt from bottom to top. The painting repreſents embroidery.

The city belongs to neither of the Ridings, but enjoys its own liberty, and a juriſdiction over 36 villiages and hamlets in the neighbourhood, on the weſt ſide of the Ouſe. This liberty is called the Ainſtey, or county, of the city of York.

York is pleaſantly ſituated, and divided into four wards, containing 28 pariſhes, and walled, but not fortified with artillery. The river Ouſe, from the north, paſſes through it, and divides it into two parts, joined together by a ſtone bridge of five arches, of which the middleſmoſt is reckoned, for height, breadth, and architecture, to be equal to the Rialto at Venice, though not to that at Blenheim. The great council-chamber, the exchequer, the ſheriff's court, and the two city priſons, are kept upon this bridge. The river brings large veſſels to the quay, though at 60 miles diſtance from the ocean. It has four large well built gates, and five poſterns. The other moſt remarkable ſtructures are the guildhall; the ſtatue of king Edgar, who re-built the city, and St. Anthomy's-hall. The market-houſe, in the ſtreet called the Pavement, is a curious piece of architecture, ſupported by 12 pillars of the Tuſcan order; and there is another ſtill larger in a ſquare, called Thurſday market. In this city are 17 churches.

Hull, or Kingſton upon Hull, has two churches; one called Trinity, or High Church, the other St. Mary's, or Low Church. The former is a ſpacious beautiful building, the pillars of which are remarkably ſmall; and had, before the reformation, 12 chantries, in one of which is now a neat library. Here are ſeveral meeting-houſes, an exchange, a cuſtom houſe, and an engine for making ſalt-water freſh. Here is a free-ſchool, with an hall over it, belonging to the merchants, who have founded an hoſpital, called Trinity-houſe, in which are maintained many diſtreſſed ſeamen and their widows. The town carries on a great trade in ſail making; is large, cloſe built, and populous. The rigid diſcipline beggars meet with here makes Hull tremendous to them. All foreign poor are whipped out, and the poor of the town are ſet to work. They have a cant litany among them, viz. "From Hell, Hull, and Halifax, good Lord deliver us."

Scarborough is a large town, built in the form of a creſcent, on the ſide of a ſteep hill. It has a commodious quay, but little trade. The pier is maintained by a duty upon coals; and the mariners have erected an hoſpital for widows and poor ſeamen, which is maintained by a rate on veſſels, and deductions out of ſeamens wages. From the middle of November herrings are taken here in great numbers. Beſides herrings, they catch ling, cod-fiſh, haddock, and other fiſh in great plenty; and ſometimes whiting and mackarel. The ſpaw-well is at the foot of an exceeding high cliff, riſing perpendicular out of the earth like a boiling pot, near the level of high-water mark in ſpring tides, with which it is often over-flowed. It is never dry, and in an hour yields 24 gallons of water, which is purgative and diuretic. Here is good accommodation, beſides aſſemblies and public balls. The reſort of company to this place is prodigious.

DURHAM BISHOPRIC, ſituated to the north of Yorkſhire, is (though not a fertile county) very rich in coals.

Durham, ſituated on a hill, has a cathedral, which is an old but magnificent pile. Beſides the cathedral, here are ſix pariſh churches. Southward of the cathedral is the college, a ſpacious court, the whole of which has been rebuilt, or much repaired, ſince the reſtoration. Above the college-gate is the exchequer; and at the weſt the gueſt-hall, for the entertainment of ſtrangers. On the north ſide of the college ſchool is a houſe for the maſter; and between the church-yard and caſtle an open area, called the Palace Green; to the weſt of which is the ſhire-hall, where the aſſizes and ſeſſions are held for the county; and near it a library. On the eaſt is an hoſpital, built and endowed by Biſhop Coſin. On the north ſide is a caſtle, now the biſhop's palace, built by William the Conqueror, the outer gate-houſe of which is at preſent the county goal. The toll-booth, near St. Nicholas's church, and the croſs conduit, in the market place, with the two brigdes over the Were, are the other principal public buildings.

NORTHUMBERLAND, the moſt northern county of England towards Scotland, is fertile towards the ſea, and has great quantities of ſheep fed in the mountainous parts; but its peculiar wealth is pit coal.

Newcaſtle is an antient, large, diſagreeable, and dirty town, but exceedingly populous, and very rich. It is ſituated at the end of the antient Picts Wall, on the river Tyne, over which it has a fine bridge. Hence it is called Newcaſtle upon Tyne. The commerce carried on in coals and ſalmon is amazing, and has rendered it, in a great meaſure, the emporium of the north. It may be ſaid to be ſituated both in Northumberland and the biſhopric of Durham; though that part of it which is in the latter is called Gateſide, and is like Southwark to London, the liberties coming no farther than the great iron gate upon the bridge, which has the arms of the biſhop of Durham carved on the ſouth, and thoſe

of Newcaſtle on the north ſide. The ſituation of the town is very uneven and unpleaſant, eſpecially that part which is moſt conſiderable for buſineſs, and which lies upon the river; for it is built on the declivity of a ſteep hill, which makes the ſtreets difficult and uneaſy. It is alſo crowded with houſes, eſpecially in that part of the town beſt ſituated for trade. The caſtle, though old and ruinous, overlooks the whole town. The exchange is a noble and magnificent building, ſituated in the only broad place of that part of the town, and contiguous both to the river and the cuſtom-houſe, but too much pent up for want of room. Between the town-wall and the river is a ſpacious place, firmly wharfed up with a facing of free-ſtone, and makes a very fine quay. Beſides the commerce abovementioned, here are ſome glaſs-houſes, iron manufactories, &c. Here is an hoſpital, built by ſubſcription, ſeveral churches and chapels, beſides St. Nicholas's church, which is a curious fabric, an exchange, manſion-houſe, public library, &c.

Berwick upon Tweed is a town fortified in the modern way, but is much contracted from its antient extent; the old caſtle and works now lying at ſome diſtance beyond the preſent ramparts. Abundance of wool is exported from this town; alſo eggs, which are collected through the country, to a prodigious annual amount. It was always, before the Union, a bone of contention between the two nations. Both had an eye upon it, and therefore it was well fortified; but now the works are greatly impaired. It is a county and town of itſelf; and though ſituated on the north ſide of the Tweed, is included in Northumberland. It has handſome ſtreets, a fine pariſh church, a town-houſe, an exchange, and a beautiful bridge of 16 arches over the Tweed, leading to Tweed's Mouth, a ſuburb where is another large church; and betwixt the town wall and its once ſtately caſtle is a handſome ſuburb, called Caſtle-gate. Here is a noble ſalmon fiſhery, eſteemed equal to any in England, and alſo a conſiderable manufacture of fine ſtockings.

Alnwick is a populous, well built town. It has three gates, which are almoſt entire; and an old ſtately Gothic caſtle, the ſeat of the dukes of Northumberland.

CUMBERLAND, ſituated ſouth-weſt of Northumberland, has a wholeſome air, but is not very fertile.

Carliſle, ſituated at the conflux of the rivers Eden, Petterill and Cauda, is a ſea-port, but without ſhips, merchants, or trade, and has but two pariſh churches, St. Cuthbert's and St. Mary's. The choir of the cathedral is an exact piece of architecture. The roof is elegantly vaulted with wood, and embelliſhed with the arms of France and England; the Percy's, Lucy's, Warren's, &c. This town is the key of England on the weſt ſea, as Berwick upon Tweed is on the eaſt ſea. It has a bridge over the Eden, which is but a little way from Scotland, the ſouth part of which indents into England, at leaſt 50 miles farther than it does at Berwick.

Whitehaven is ſo called from the white cliffs that are near it, and ſhelter the harbour from tempeſts. It is a populous rich town, chiefly obliged to the Lowther family for its improvement, who were at a vaſt expence to make the harbour more commodious, and to beautify the town, the trade of which chiefly conſiſts of ſalt and coal.

WESTMORELAND, ſituated to the ſouth-eaſt of Cumberland, has a healthy but ſharp air, is very mountainous, and conſequently includes many barren tracks.

Appleby, the county town, is neither rich or beautiful; yet the ſituation of it, in the midſt of pleaſant fields, and on the banks of the river Eden, which almoſt encompaſs it, is very agreeable. Its name is a corruption of the Aballaba in the Notitia; and it was the ſtation of the Mauri Aureliani, a band of Roman ſoldiers ſo called, becauſe they were ſent hither by the Emperor Aurelian. Here alſo is an hoſpital for a governeſs and twelve other widows, called the mother and twelve ſiſters.

Kendal, 16 miles from Appleby, called alſo Kirkby Kandale, that is, a church by the dale upon the river Can, over which it has two bridges of ſtone and one of wood, and a harbour for boats. It is much ſuperior to Appleby in trade, buildings, number and wealth of the inhabitants, and is the largeſt town in the county.

Lonſdale, or Kirby Lonſdale, is a large well built town, ſeated on the river Lone. It has a handſome ſtone bridge, with a ſtately church and a fine churchyard, from which and from the banks of the river is a fine proſpect of the mountains at a great diſtance, and of the beautiful courſe of the river Lone, in a valley far beneath. This town has a good trade in cloth.

LANCASHIRE, a maritime county, ſituated to the eaſtward of the Iriſh Sea, is famous for its manufactures, for the fertility of the level parts, and the treaſures contained within the bowels of the mountainous diſtricts.

The navigation made by the Duke of Bridgewater, in this county, is highly worthy of notice. It bears veſſels of 60 tons burthen, and is carried over two rivers, the Merſey and the Irwell. The adit which was neceſſary to be made, in order to drain the water from the coal mines, is rendered navigable for boats of ſix or ſeven tons burthen, and forms a kind of ſubterraneous river, which runs about a mile and a half under ground, and communicates with the canal. This part leads to the head of the mines, is arched over with brick, and is juſt wide enough for the paſſage of the boat. At the mouth of it are two folding doors, which are cloſed as ſoon as you enter, and you then proceed by candle-light, which caſts a livid gloom, ſerving only to make darkneſs viſible.

But this diſmal gloom is rendered ſtill more aweful by the ſolemn echo of this ſubterraneous water, which returns various and diſcordant ſounds. One while you are ſtruck with the grating noiſe of engines, which by a curious contrivance let down the coals into the boats: then again you hear the ſhock of an exploſion, occaſioned by blowing up the hard rock, which will not yield to any other force than that of gun-powder: the next minute your ears are ſaluted by the ſongs of merriment from either ſex, who thus beguile their labours in the mine.

You have no ſooner reached the head of the works than a new ſcene offers to your view. There you behold man and woman almoſt in the primitive ſtate of nature, toiling in different capacities, by the glimmering of a dim taper. Some digging coal out of the bowels of the earth; ſome again loading it in little waggons made for the purpoſe; and others drawing theſe waggons to the boats.

To perfect this canal without impeding the public roads, bridges are built over it, and where the earth has been raiſed to preſerve the level, arches are formed under it; but what principally ſtrikes every beholder is a work raiſed near Barton-bridge, to convey the canal over the Merſey. This is done by means of three ſtone arches, ſo ſpacious and lofty, as to admit veſſels ſailing through them; and indeed nothing can be more ſingular and pleaſing, than to obſerve large veſſels in full ſail under the aqueduct, and at the ſame time the duke's veſſels ſailing over all, near fifty feet above the navigable river.

Lancaſter, the ſhire town, has its name from the river Lone, on the ſide of which it is ſituated near its mouth, and gives name to the whole county. Here are frequently found the coins of Roman emperors, eſpecially where the Benedictine Friars had a cloyſter, which they ſay was the area of an antient city burnt to the ground in 1322 by the Scots. After this conflagration they built nearer the river, by a green hill, upon which ſtands a caſtle, and on the top of it a handſome church. At the bottom there is a fine bridge over the Lone; and on the ſteepeſt part of it hangs a piece of very ancient Roman-wall, now called Wery-wall. In digging a cellar ſeveral cups were found

that had been uſed in ſacrifices. It was formerly more remarkable for agriculture than commerce; but is much improved in the latter, being, at preſent, a populous, thriving corporation, with a tolerable harbour and cuſtom-houſe. The county aſſizes are held in the caſtle, which is one of the fineſt monuments of antiquity in this kingdom.

Liverpool is a neat populous town, and the moſt flouriſhing ſea-port in theſe parts. The inhabitants drive an incredible trade, with very large ſtocks, to all the northern and ſouthern parts of the world. They import almoſt all kinds of foreign goods, have a large inland trade, and ſhare in that to Ireland and Wales, with Briſtol. It is alſo the moſt convenient and moſt frequented paſſage to Ireland, ſtanding at the mouth of the Merſey river, or Liverpool-water, as the ſailors call it. The harbour is defended on the ſouth ſide by a caſtle, and, on the weſt, by a tower on the Merſey. It has four churches, many ſpacious clean ſtreets, an elegant town houſe, an admirable wet dock, with iron flood gates, a ſtately cuſtom-houſe, a neat play-houſe, &c.

Mancheſter, near the conflux of the Irk and Irwell, is a place of great trade, handſome, well built, and populous, and has a ſpacious market place, a college, an exchange, &c. The fuſtian manufacture, called Mancheſter cottons, has been much improved by ſome late inventions of dying and printing. The greateſt variety of other ſtuffs, known by the name of Mancheſter goods, as ticking, tapes, filleting and linen cloth, not only enrich the town, but render the people induſtrious. The collegiate church is very large and beautiful, with a choir remarkable for its curious carved work, and a famous clock that ſhews the age of the moon. As the Hague in Holland, is deſervedly called the moſt magnificent village in Europe, ſo Mancheſter may with equal propriety be ſaid to be the greateſt village in England; the higheſt magiſtrate being only a conſtable or headborough; though it is more populous than York, or many other cities in England.

Warrington, a large town on the river Merſey, has a market well ſupplied with corn, cattle, and fiſh. Here is an academy founded upon a noble and extenſive plan for educating youth in the learned profeſſions. In this town, and the neighbouring villages, ſail-cloth is made for the royal navy. Here are alſo copper works, ſugar-houſes, and glaſs-houſes, which furniſh the induſtrious with the means of obtaining a comfortable ſubſiſtence. On the banks of the Merſey, which, by means of wears and locks, is made navigable to Mancheſter, are paper-mills, gun-powder mills, oil-mills, iron forges and ſlitting-mills.

Preſton is a fine town, ſeated on the river Ribble. Though it has no manufacture, it has a court of chancery and other offices of juſtice, for the county palatine of Lancaſter. From the gentry many miles round reſorting here in winter, and having aſſemblies, balls, &c. it is vulgarly called Proud Preſton. It has a large market-place. On the neighbouring common are frequent horſe races. Near it the duke of Hamilton, who came to reſcue Charles I. from impriſonment, was defeated in 1648; as were alſo the Engliſh rebels, under general Foſter, in 1715.

Wigon is inhabited by ſhop-keepers of almoſt all kinds, has a manufacture of coverlets, rugs and blankets, and is governed by a mayor, a recorder, aldermen, &c.

Near this town is a well, which at firſt ſight does not appear to be a ſpring, but rather rain-water. There is nothing about it that ſeems extraordinary; but upon emptying it there preſently breaks out a ſulphurous vapour, which cauſes the water to bubble up as if it boiled. A candle being put to it, it preſently takes fire and burns like brandy. The flame in a calm ſeaſon will continue a whole day, by the heat of which you may boil meat, eggs, &c.

CHESHIRE, to the ſouth of Lancaſhire, has a ſerene air, and good ſoil, and is famous for its cheeſe.

Cheſter, or as it is commonly called, Weſt Cheſter, is a large well built city, full of wealthy inhabitants, who, by its neighbourhood to the Severn, and to Ireland, drive a conſiderable trade; as may be ſeen by the great fairs held here every year; to which abundance of tradeſmen and merchants come from all parts, but particularly from Briſtol and Dublin. The houſes are, generally ſpeaking, diſtinguiſhed from all the buildings in Britain. They are, for the moſt part, of timber, very large and ſpacious, but are built with galleries, piazzas, or covered walks before them, in which the people, who walk, are ſo hid, that, to look up or down the ſtreets, one ſees no-body ſtirring, except with horſes, carts, &c. and yet they may be ſaid to be full of people. By the ſame means alſo the ſhops are, as it were, hid; little or no part of them being to be ſeen, unleſs one is under thoſe rows, or juſt oppoſite to a houſe.

Nantwich, or Namptwich, is a large well-built town. The inhabitants are wealthy and carry on a conſiderable trade, particularly in ſalt and cheeſe, the latter exceeding all that is made in the county, from the excellency of the ſoil. Here are ſalt ſprings, which lie on the banks of a freſh water ſtream, of which they make great quantities of ſalt. The water brought from the ſalt ſprings to the wich houſes, as they are called, by troughs, is received into large caſks ſet in the ground. From hence it is put into the leads, and a fire made for keeping it warm, during which women with wooden rakes gather it as it ſettles to the bottom. After this it is put into ſalt barrows, a kind of wicker baſkets, in the ſhape of a ſugar-loaf reverſed, that the water may drain from it and leave the ſalt dry.

STAFFORDSHIRE, to the ſouth eaſt of Cheſhire, is a rich, though not a fertile county, the principal places being

Litchfield, a large neat town, which is, when joined to Coventry, a biſhopric. The cathedral ſuffered much in the time of the civil wars, but was thoroughly repaired after the reſtoration of Charles II. and is now a noble and admirable ſtructure. It is walled in like a caſtle; but ſtands on ſuch an eminence that it is ſeen 10 miles round.

Stafford is the ſhire town where the aſſizes are held. It ſtands low, on the river Sow, over which it has a good bridge. Here are two handſome churches, a free-ſchool, and a ſpacious market-place, in which ſtands the ſhire-hall. It is well built and paved, and much increaſed of late, both in wealth and inhabitants, by its manufacture of cloth. The buildings are, for the moſt part, of ſtone and ſlate, and ſome of them in the modern taſte. Not only the aſſizes, but the quarter ſeſſions are kept in this town.

Wolverhampton ſtands on a high ground, and is a populous well built town, and the ſtreets well paved; but all the water the town is ſupplied with, except what falls from the ſkies, comes from four weak ſprings of different qualities which go by the name of Pudding-well, Horſe-well, Waſhing-well, and Meal-well. From the laſt they fetch all the water they uſe for boiling or brewing, in leather buckets, laid acroſs a horſe, with a funnel at the top, by which they fill them; and in the other wells they clean tripe, water horſes, and waſh linen. To the high and dry ſituation of the place is aſcribed its healthy ſtate.

SHROPSHIRE, ſouth of Cheſhire, is tolerably fertile.

Shrewſbury has two bridges over the Severn, which ſurrounds it, except on the north ſide, in the form of a horſe-ſhoe, and renders it a peninſula. It has a free grammar ſchool, founded and endowed by Edward VI. Queen Elizabeth rebuilt it, added a library, and endowed it more largely. Here are five churches, beſides meeting houſes: likewiſe 12 incorporated companies, who repair in their formalities, once a year, to Kingſland, on the oppoſite ſide of the Severn, where they entertain the mayor and corporation, in bowers erected for that purpoſe, and diſtinguiſhed by mottos or devices ſuitable to their reſpective arts and trades.

The ſtreets are large, and the houſes well built, with hanging gardens down to the river. Charles II. would have erected this town into a city; but the townſmen choſe to remain a corporation; for which refuſal they were afterwards called the proud Salopians. The town has been famed throughout England for cakes. Its brawn is reckoned to exceed that of Canterbury. Here is plenty of proviſions, eſpecially ſalmon and other good fiſh. Here are many Welch families; and on market days the general language ſpoken is Welch. One great ornament in this town is that called the quarry, now converted into one of the fineſt walks in England, both for beauty and extent. It takes in at leaſt 20 acres of ground on the ſouth and ſouth-weſt ſides of the town, betwixt its walls and the Severn. It is ſhaded with rows of lime trees on each ſide, and adorned in the center with a fine double alcove, and ſeats on both ſides, one of them facing the town, and the other the river. It is reckoned not inferior to the mall in St. James's park. Upon the Welch bridge there is a noble gate, over the arch of which is placed the ſtatue of the great Llewellyn, the idol of the Welch, and the laſt Welch prince.

Many curious and neceſſary particulars, which previouſly inſerted in the reſpective counties would have been diſguſting from the frequent repetition, may be known by the following table, where they are exhibited at one view.

A TABLE, containing the Modern and Antient Names of the Counties or Shires in England, the Titles they give, their Length, Breadth, Circumference, Cities and Towns, Diſtance from London, Market Towns, the Number of Members they ſend to Parliament, and the Number of Pariſhes and Acres contained in each.

Modern Names.	Ancient Names	Tit.	Leng.	Bred.	Circumf.	Ch. City or Town.	Diſt. fr. Lond.	Market Towns.	Parlia. Memb.	Numb. Pariſh.	Number of Acres.
Bedfordſhire	Bedfordia	D.	22	15	73	Bedford	50	10	4	124	260,000
Berkſhire	Readingum	E.	39	29	120	Reading	40	12	9	140	527,000
Buckinghamſhire	Buckinghamia	E.	39	18	138	Buckingham	57	14	14	185	441,000
Cambridgeſhire	Camboritum	E.	40	25	130	Cambridge	52	8	6	163	570,000
	Elia					Ely	68				
Cheſhire	Deva	E.	45	25	130	Cheſter	182	12	4	86	720,000
Cornwall	Lanſtaphadonia	D.	78	42	150	Launceſton	214	27	44	171	960,000
						Truro	257				
Cumberland	Luguvallum	D.	55	38	168	Carliſle	298	14	6	58	1,040,000
Derbyſhire	Derbia	E.	40	30	130	Derby	126	11	4	106	680,000
Devonſhire	Iſca Danmoniorum	D.	69	66	200	Exeter	173	40	26	394	1,020,000
	Plimuta					Plymouth	216				
Dorſetſhire	Dunium	D.	50	40	150	Dorcheſter	120	22	20	248	772,000
Durham	Dunellum		39	35	107	Durham	257	8	4	52	610,000
Eſſex	Colonia	E.	47	43	150	Colcheſter	51	22	8	415	1,249,000
	Canonium					Chelmsford	28				
Glouceſterſhire	Clerum	D.	56	22	156	Glouceſter	100	27	8	280	800,000
Hampſhire	Venta Belgarum		64	36	150	Wincheſter	63	18	26	253	1,312,000
	Clauſentum					Southampton	75				
Herefordſhire	Herefordia	E.	35	30	108	Hereford	130	8	8	176	660,000
Hertfordſhire	Hertfordia	E.	36	28	140	Hertford	21	18	6	120	451,000
Huntingdonſhire	Huntingdonia	E.	24	18	67	Huntingdon	59	6	4	79	240,000
Kent	Durovernum		56	36	166	Canterbury	56	28	18	408	1,248,000
	Roffa					Rocheſter	30				
Lancaſhire	Longovicus	D.	57	32	107	Lancaſter	235	27	14	60	1,150,000
	Mancumium					Manchester	182				
Leiceſterſhire	Rhagæ	E.	30	25	96	Leiceſter	99	13	4	200	560,000
Lincolnſhire	Lindum	E.	60	35	180	Lincoln	132	39	12	688	1,740,000
Middleſex	Londinum	E.	24	18	95	London	0	5	18	143	247,000
	Weſtmonaſterium					Weſtminſter	1				
Monmouthſhire	Monumenta	D.	29	20	84	Monmouth	125	8	3	127	
Norfolk	Norvicum	D.	57	35	140	Norwich	109	32	12	660	1,148,000
	Garrianorum					Yarmouth	123				
Northampton	Petroburgum	E.	55	26	125	Peterborough	81	11	9	330	550,000
	Antona Borealis					Northampton	66				
Northumberland	Gabroſentum	D.	50	40	150	Newcaſtle	271	11	8	46	1,370,000
Nottinghamſhire	Nottinghamia	E.	43	24	110	Nottingham	126	9	8	168	560,000
Oxfordſhire	Oxonium	E.	42	26	130	Oxford	54	15	9	280	534,000
Rutlandſhire	Uxocona	D.	15	10	40	Oakham	96	2	2	48	11,000
Shropſhire	Salopia		40	33	134	Shrewſbury	155	15	12	170	890,000
	Ludloa					Ludlow	138				
Somerſetſhire	Briſtolium	E.	60	50	200	Briſtol	117	30	18	385	1,075,000
	Aquæ Calidæ					Bath	108				
Staffordſhire	Lichfeldia	E.	40	26	140	Litchfield	118	18	10	150	810,000
	Staffordia					Stafford	135				
Suffolk	Gippevicum	E.	48	24	146	Ipſwich	69	32	16	575	995,000
	Villa Fauſtini					Bury	70				
Surry	Neomagus	E.	34	21	112	Guilford	29	11	14	140	592,000
	Regiopolis					Kingſton	12				
Suſſex	Ciceſtria	E.	65	29	170	Chicheſter	61	18	28	312	
Warwickſhire	Præſidium	E.	33	26	122	Warwick	93	14	6	158	670,000
	Coventria					Coventry	91				
Weſtmoreland	Concangium	E.	30	24	120	Kendal	257	8	4	64	510,000
Wiltſhire	Sorbiodunum	E.	40	30	142	Saliſbury	82	23	34	304	
						Wilton	85				
Worceſterſhire	Bannogenium		36	28	130	Worceſter	111	11	9	152	540,000
Yorkſhire	Eboracum	D.	114	80	360	York	197	49	30	603	3,770,000
	Richmondia					Richmond	230				

PRIN-

SECTION II.

PRINCIPALITY OF WALES.

WALES was formerly of greater extent than it is at preſent, as it included the counties of Monmouth and Hereford, which have ſince been annexed to England.

It is bounded on all ſides by the ſea and the Severn, except on the eaſt, where it joins to the counties of Cheſter, Salop, Hereford, and Monmouth; being 113 miles long and 90 broad where wideſt. The country, though generally mountainous, is not altogether unfruitful, as the valleys abound in corn, the ſeas and rivers with fiſh, and the hills, excluſive of the metals and minerals they contain, feed great quantities of black cattle, ſheep, deer, goats, &c. This country is, at preſent, divided into eleven counties, excluſive of the iſle of Angleſey; according to which we ſhall conſider it.

RADNORSHIRE, to the ſouth weſt of Shropſhire, is tolerably fertile. The chief commodities are ſheep and horſes. The principal place is

Radnor, 157 miles from London, a very ancient borough, chiefly conſiſting of thatched houſes. It was called Radnor by the Engliſh, from Rhaidr Gwy, or the cataract of the river Wye, near the town of Rhaidr. It ſtands in a fruitful valley, at the bottom of a hill, where abundance of ſheep are fed.

BRECKNOCKSHIRE, to the ſouth of Radnorſhire, has a ſharp but wholeſome air, is very mountainous, and abounds with black cattle, veniſon, goats, and wild fowls.

Brecknock, or Brecon, 159 miles from London, which is the capital, and almoſt the centre of the county, is a compact, well built-town, where the aſſizes are held. It ſtands at the confluence of the rivers Hondhy and Uſk, over which it has a good ſtone bridge. It is well inhabited, and has ſome ſhare in the woollen manufacture. The ruins of its caſtle, built by Bernard de Newmarch, in the reign of William Rufus, remain. Its markets are well ſupplied with cattle, corn, and other proviſions. Brecknock Priory was founded in the reign of Henry I. by Bernard de Newmarch. It is now a collegiate church, and ſtill a magnificent building, ſituated on an eminence, and built in the form of a croſs. There are two other churches.

GLAMORGANSHIRE, ſituated north of the Briſtol Channel, is tolerably fertile towards the ſouthern parts.

Cardiff, 161 miles from London, the capital, where the aſſizes are held, has a bridge over the Taff, to which ſmall veſſels may come up. It is a large, well-built town; and though it comprehends two pariſhes, has but one church. It has a good trade with Briſtol, and plentiful markets and fairs for corn, cattle, ſheep, horſes and ſwine.

Swanſey, 202 miles from London, is an ancient, large, well-built town, which drives the greateſt trade of any in the county, eſpecially in coals, holds a great correſpondence with Briſtol, and has an exceeding good harbour. The town ſtands on the river Twye, and its markets are well furniſhed with all neceſſaries. Here are the remains of an ancient caſtle, built by Henry Beaumont, earl of Warwick.

Landaff, though the ſee of a biſhop, has not ſo much as a market. The cathedral is a neat, ancient building.

CARMARTHENSHIRE, ſituated north-weſt of Glamorganſhire, has a milder air, and is more fruitful than moſt of the Welch counties.

Caermarthen, 204 miles from London, is ſituated on the river Towy, over which it has a ſtone bridge, and is a place venerable for its antiquity. It is a thriving and populous town of great reſort, and drives a very conſiderable trade. This place was anciently reckoned the capital of Wales. The Britons made it the ſeat of their aſſemblies.

PEMBROKESHIRE is encompaſſed around by St. George's Channel, except on the eaſt ſide, where it joins to Carmarthenſhire, and on the north-eaſt to Cardiganſhire. It is a fruitful county.

Pembroke, 234 miles from London, the county town, ſtands at the innermoſt eaſtern creek of Milford Haven. It has two handſome bridges over the two points of it. Here are the remains of an ancient caſtle on a rock, in which Henry VII. was born; and under it is a vault noted for a ſtrange echo, called the Wogan. It has two pariſhes, a cuſtom-houſe, and ſeveral merchants houſes, well built.

Haverford-weſt, 236 miles from London, ſtands on the ſide of a hill, is a very neat, well built, ſtrong, populous, and trading town, having a fine ſtone bridge, plentiful markets, a commodious quay for ſhips of burthen, and a cuſtom-houſe. There are three pariſh churches in the town, beſides one in the out parts, called Prengeſt.

Milford-Haven has 16 creeks, five bays, and 13 roads in which 1000 ſail of ſhips may ride ſecurely. There is no danger in ſailing in or out of it with the tide, and almoſt any wind, by night as well as by day; and a ſhip in diſtreſs may run aſhore on ſoft ooze, and there lie ſafe. The ſpring tide riſes in the harbour 36 feet, and the neap about 26. But that which makes this the moſt excellent and uſeful harbour in this part of the world, is, that in an hour's time a ſhip is out of the harbour into the ſea, and in a fair way between the Lands-end and Ireland. As it lies in the mouth of the Severn, a ſhip, in eight or ten hours, may be over on the coaſt of Ireland.

ST. DAVID'S is an epiſcopal ſee, which was once conſiderable, but is now ſmall, and thinly inhabited. The cathedral is the remnant of a venerable building.

CARDIGANSHIRE, ſituated north-eaſt of St. George's Channel, is a barren county, but contains ſome valuable mines.

Cardigan, 222 miles from London, is pleaſantly ſituated at the mouth of the Teivy, over which it has a ſtone bridge, leading into Pembrokeſhire. It is a large, ancient, and populous borough, and carries on a conſiderable trade, eſpecially to Ireland, the tide flowing up to the town. The church is a handſome ſtructure; but the caſtle is in a ruinous condition.

Aberiſtwyth, though a ſmall town, has a very conſiderable market once a week.

MONTGOMERYSHIRE, to the eaſt of Merionethſhire, and the weſt of Shropſhire, is in the principal parts fertile, and remarkable for the horſes being larger than in the other parts of Wales.

Montgomery, 161 miles from London, is ſituated in a very healthy air, on the eaſy aſcent of a rocky hill, having beneath it a pleaſant valley, through which the Severn winds its courſe. The town is large, but the buildings indifferent, except a few belonging to conſiderable families.

Welch Pool, ſix miles from Montgomery, is a large, well-built corporate town, ſituated on a lake in a fruitful valley, where is a good manufacture of flannel. On the ſouth ſide is a red caſtle, belonging to the Earl of Powis.

MERIONETHSHIRE, eaſt of St. George's Channel, is a mountainous, barren, bleak, unhealthy county; and the inhabitants are more remarkable for idleneſs and incontinency than any other Welch people.

Harlech, 223 miles from London, is ſituated on a rock near the ſea, where is an harbour for ſhips. It is a mean town, thinly inhabited, but has a garriſon for the ſecurity of the coaſt, and an old decayed caſtle, originally a ſtrong fort of the ancient Britons. In the year 1694 the country about Harlech was annoyed above eight months with a fiery exhalation of a curd colour, which aroſe from the ſea, and was ſeen only in the night. It ſet fire to barns, ſtacks of hay and corn, in its way; infected the air and blaſted the graſs and herbage; ſo that a great mortality among the ſheep, horſes, and cattle, enſued.

Dolgelly,

Dolgelly, 36 miles from Welch Pool, is ſituated in a woody valley by the Avon, at the foot of the great mountain Cader-Idris, which, by computation, is near three miles high, and one of the loftieſt in Britain. Here are inns for travellers, and a good market for Welch cottons.

CARNARVONSHIRE ſituated ſouth-eaſt of the Iſle of Angleſey, is very mountainous, but abounds in cattle, ſheep, goats, &c.

Carnarvon, 251 miles from London, is ſituated on the channel that ſeparates this from the Iſle of Angleſey, and was built by command of Edward I. out of the ruins of the city Sagontium, which ſtood a little below it. The town has a beautiful proſpect of the Iſle of Angleſey. It had a ſtrong caſtle, now in ruins. The market is ſupplied with corn, and all ſorts of proviſions.

DENBIGHSHIRE, to the ſouth-weſt of Flintſhire, is, in many parts, mountainous and barren, yet contains ſome fertile ſpots.

Denbigh, 210 miles from London, is a handſome, populous town, ſtands on a branch of the Clwyd, has a good trade, and is by ſome eſteemed the beſt town in North Wales. It has a good market for corn, cattle, and other proviſions; and two churches. Here are the ruins of a caſtle diſmantled in the civil wars; and alſo thoſe of an abbey of monks.

Wrexham is a town well inhabited, and contains a handſome church, the ſteeple of which is admired for its curious architecture.

Ruthin, ſituated in the vale of Clwyd, is a corporation town, well inhabited, and has an hoſpital and free-ſchool.

FLINTSHIRE, ſituated weſt of Cheſhire, is in many places fertile and contains ſome mines.

Flint, 195 miles from London, is the county town and ſtands on an arm of the river Dee. It had formerly a caſtle, the ruins of which are ſtill remaining.

St. Aſaph, 212 miles from London, is a biſhop's ſee, ſituated in the vale of Clwyd, at the conflux of the Elwy with the Clwyd; but the buildings are not remarkable for beauty, nor the church for elegance. The epiſcopal ſee was founded in the year 560, by Kentigern, biſhop of Glaſgow, in Scotland, who reſigned it to his diſciple Aſaph, from whom it has its name.

The county of Angleſey, will be deſcribed in our account of Iſlands belonging to or ſurrounding Great Britain. The following table will exhibit, in one point of view, the particulars relative to the counties before mentioned:

Counties	Chief Towns.	Leng.	Bred.	Pariſh	Mem. of Par.
Radnorſhire	New Radnor	20	18	5	2
Brecknockſhire	Brecknock	35	34	61	2
Glamorganſhire	Cardiff	45	21	18	2
Carmarthenſhire	Carmarthen	40	27	8	2
Pembrokeſhire	Pembroke	33	28	145	3
Cardiganſhire	Cardigan	40	18	64	2
Montgomeryſh.	Montgomery	30	25	47	2
Merionethſhire	Harlech	35	25	37	1
Carnarvonſhire	Carnarvon	40	68	68	2
Denbighſhire	Denbigh	31	17	57	2
Flintſhire	Flint	33	8	28	2

SECTION III.

Perſons, Diſpoſitions, Genius, Cuſtoms, Manners, Diſeaſes; Claſſes and Orders, ſuperior and inferior; relative Connections, &c. of the People of South Britain.

THE people of England, in general, are of a good ſize, and well made. They have regular features, and commonly fair ſkins and florid complexions. It is, however to be preſumed, that the great numbers of foreigners that are intermarried with the natives, have given a caſt to their perſons and complexions, different from thoſe of their anceſtors. The women, in particular, are deemed the moſt beautiful in Europe. Beſides many external graces, peculiar to them, they are to be eſteemed for their prudent behaviour, thorough cleanlineſs, a tender affection for their huſbands and children, and all the engaging duties of domeſtic life. The faſhionable dreſs of the Engliſh is uſually copied from the French; but the former generally add decency and cleanlineſs to the decorations of the latter. The moſt common perſonal defect is decayed teeth, from the ſcorbutic humour common to the country.

The nerves of the Engliſh are ſo delicate, that people of both ſexes are ſometimes forcibly, nay mortally, affected by imagination. This over ſenſibility has been conſidered as one of the ſources of thoſe ſingularities which ſo ſtrongly characterize the Engliſh nation. They ſometimes magnify the ſmalleſt appearances into real ills; and yet when real danger approaches, no people face it with greater reſolution or conſtancy of mind.

The manners of the Engliſh people vary in the different claſſes of which they are compoſed, according to the difference of education and intercourſe. Perſons of faſhion, after having ſtudied at the univerſity, commonly travel for improvement. They are magnificent in their dreſs, equipage, dwellings, and manner of living; generally polite, hoſpitable, good-natured, humane, charitable, and forgiving. On the reverſe of their character, we likewiſe obſerve a diſpoſition to gaming and riot. They are in general blunt, artleſs, and averſe to civility and cringing. Hence ariſes too frequently a rudeneſs of behaviour, which, by foreigners, has been conſidered as bordering on brutality. The Engliſh merchants are, beyond all others, famous for their honourable dealings, as well as for their knowledge of trade, and their extenſive commerce. The people, in general, are maſters of the different profeſſions they exerciſe. Their workmanſhip is neatly and elegantly finiſhed, far above any thing of the ſame ſort in other countries; and though they are not the moſt remarkable for their diſcoveries in the arts of handicraft, they never fail to make improvements on the inventions of their neighbours.

The Engliſh have been always equally famed for courage and ingenuity. Their ſoldiers are fearleſs in the day of battle, and have obtained a great number of ſignal victories, over the moſt powerful and warlike nations on the continent; and their ſailors are confeſſedly ſuperior to all the mariners upon earth, in activity, ſkill, and intrepidity.

The diverſions and paſtimes of the Engliſh people may be divided into thoſe of the town, and thoſe of the country; and again ſubdivided into ſuch as are peculiar to the higher ranks of life; ſuch as are practiſed by the lower claſs of people, and ſuch as are common to both. The diverſions of the town are ridottos, maſquerades, concerts of muſic, theatrical performances; and card aſſemblies, for perſons of faſhion. The paſtimes of the country, peculiar to the ſame degree, are horſe-races, ſtag, fox, and hare-hunting. A ſpirit of gaming prevails with great violence at a horſe-race. Hunting is the ſport of country gentlemen; and thoſe whom the world diſtinguiſh by the appellation of fox-hunters ſeem to be infatuated with the diverſion. The common people have likewiſe their town and country paſtimes, which they enjoy with great eagerneſs. Among theſe we number cudgeling, wreſtling, duck-hunting, bowls, ſkittles, or nine-pins, archery, priſon bars, cricket, ſhovel-board, quoits, divers games of chance, and ſpectacles of various kinds.

Moſt of the houſes, belonging to perſons of faſhion, are built of ſtone, large, magnificent, and well provided with offices. The apartments are ſpacious, adorned with carvings and paintings, and the furniture rich and ſplendid. The middling ſort of people live in brick houſes, roomy, convenient, well finiſhed, and neatly furniſhed. The habitations of the lower claſs are built of the ſame materials, though not ſo large and well finiſhed; and, perhaps, ſeveral families are crowd-

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ANCIENT ENGLISH DRESSES.

1a. Nobleman in 1557.....2a. Merchant of London in 1588.....3a Gentleman in 1590.

ANCIENT ENGLISH DRESSES.

1a. Nobleman in his Robes in 1490.....2a. Nobleman in 1550.....3a Gentleman in 1550.

Engraved for BANKES's *New System of* GEOGRAPHY *Published by Royal Authority.*

ANCIENT ENGLISH DRESSES.

1 a Lady of Quality in 1590.....2 a Lady in 1626.....3 a Lady in 1630.

Grignion sculp.

ANCIENT ENGLISH DRESSES.

1 a Lady of Quality in 1551.....2 a Lady in 1577.....3 a Lady of Quality in 1585.

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Diſtempers ariſing from intemperance are rife in England, eſpecially in the great towns; fevers of all kinds, continual, remitting, and intermitting; inflammations, malignant and eruptive; pleuriſies, coughs, catarrhs, diarrhæas, dyſenteries, and conſumptions; gout, gravel, dropſy, jaundice, and the lues venerea. But the endemial diſeaſes of this climate are the ſcurvy, the hypochondriacy, and, particularly among the fair ſex, hyſterics.

The monarch of England is diſtinguiſhed by the titles of George III. by the grace of God, of Great Britain, France, and Ireland, King, Defender of the Faith. He ſtiles himſelf King of France from an antient claim which his predeceſſors had to that kingdom. The title, Defender of the Faith, was an antient appellation given to the kings of England; but more particularly confirmed by Leo X. to Henry VIII. in conſequence of a book written by this prince againſt Luther. The title was afterwards continued by act of parliament. The king of England is ſupreme head of the church, and chief magiſtrate of the kingdom. He has the ſupreme right of patronage, paramount over all the eccleſiaſtical benefices in England. He is the ſupreme civil judge, and the fountain from which all juſtice is derived. In point of power, pomp, dignity, and revenue, he rivals the greateſt monarchs in Chriſtendom.

The royal atchievement (arms) borne by the reigning family is thus marſhalled quarterly. In the firſt grand quarter Mars, three lions paſſant-guardant in pale, Sol, the imperial enſigns of England: theſe are impaled with the royal arms of Scotland, conſiſting of Sol, a lion rampant within a double treſſure flowered and counterflowered, with fleurs de lis, Mars. The ſecond quarter contains the arms of France, namely, Jupiter, three fleurs de lis, Sol. The third, for Ireland, exhibits Jupiter, an harp, Sol, ſtringed Luna. In the fourth grand quarter is repreſented his preſent majeſty's own coat of arms, being Mars, two lions paſſant-guardant, Sol, for Brunſwick, impaled with Lunenburg, giving Sol, ſemeé of hearts, proper, a lion rampant, Jupiter, having for antient Saxony, Mars, an horſe current, Luna, grafted in baſe; and in a ſhield ſurtout, Mars, the diadem, or, a crown of Charlemagne; the whole ſurrounded with a garter, as ſovereign of that order. Above the helmet, as the emblem of ſovereign juriſdiction, is an imperial crown; the creſt a lion paſſant-guardant crowned with the like: the ſupporters, a lion rampant-guardant, Sol, crowned as the former; and an unicorn, Luna, gorged with a crown, and chained. The royal motto, *Dieu et mon droit*, "God and my right," is as old as the reign of king Richard I. who aſſumed it to ſhew his independence of all earthly powers.

The eldeſt ſon of the king of England is born duke of Cornwall, and afterwards created prince of Wales, with letters-patent, by which the ſaid principality and a certain revenue are granted to him. He bears the king's arms, with the addition of a label of three points, charged with nine torteaux; his device being a coronet beautified with three oſtrich feathers, inſcribed *Ich dien*, ſignifying, in the German language, "I "ſerve."

The nobility of England are numerous and wealthy; and no country in Europe can produce ſuch a number of noblemen living in all the pomp of affluence, and all the joys of independence. They are diſtinguiſhed by the different titles of duke, marquis, earl, viſcount and baron. The ſons of nobility enjoy certain titles by courteſy, according to the rank of their fathers; but the law ranks them among the commons of England. Thus the eldeſt ſon of a duke is denominated marquis or earl; and the younger ſons are ſaluted by the appellation of My Lord. The firſt ſon of a marquis or earl is denominated lord of ſome barony belonging to his father; and his brothers are likewiſe addreſſed by the title of lord. The ſiſters enjoy the honourable title of lady in the ſame manner. But this courteſy is not extended to the younger children of viſcounts and barons.

The next claſs or order of perſons, after the barons, are the baronets of England, ſo called as an inferior kind of barons. The title of baronet is conferred by patent under the great ſeal, and deſcends to heirs male. Like other knights, he is diſtinguiſhed by the appellative Sir prefixed to his chriſtian name, in ſpeaking and writing.

Excluſive of baronets, there are three orders of knighthood, viz. Garter, Bath, and Thiſtle. The order of the Garter, dedicated to St. George, is one of the moſt antient and honourable orders in the univerſe. The ſeat of the order is in the caſtle of Windſor, conſiſting of the chapter-houſe, the hall, and chapel of St. George. A knight of this order is diſtinguiſhed by a blue garter with a gold buckle, worn on the left leg, and inſcribed *Honi ſoit qui mal y penſe*; ſignifying, "Shame to him who puts a bad conſtruction on this "order;" by an embroidered ſilver ſtar on the left breaſt; and the picture of St. George, enamelled upon gold, and beſet with diamonds, hanging at the end of a broad blue ribbon, that croſſes the body from the left ſhoulder.

The order of the Bath was inſtituted by king Henry IV. and took its denomination from their bathing on the eve of their admiſſion. The order, which had grown obſolete, was revived by king George the Firſt, in the year 1725, when 18 noblemen, and as many commoners, were inſtalled Knights of the Bath, with great ceremony, at Weſtminſter. They are diſtinguiſhed by a ſtar on the breaſt, and a broad red ribbon, worn like a belt, over the ſhoulder. The motto of this order is, *Tria junĉta in uno*.

The order of the Thiſtle, peculiar to Scotland, conſiſts of the ſovereign and 12 knights, who wear a green ribbon over the ſhoulder, and on the breaſt an embroidered ſtar, repreſenting St. Andrew irradiated, with this motto, *Nemo me impune laceſſit*.

All the gentlemen of South Britain, not diſtinguiſhed by nobility or knighthood, have the general denomination of Eſquires. The higheſt order of plebeians are freeholders or yeomen; then follow copyholders, merchants, traders, mechanics, hired ſervants, and day-labourers. But it is to be obſerved, that *opulent merchants* are conſidered as of greater importance than the degree wherein they are placed in the above ſcale, and frequently, by means of large portions, wed their daughters to nobility.

A woman in England, as ſoon as married, is, with all her moveables, at the will and diſpoſition of her huſband; nor can ſhe alienate any thing without his conſent. Her neceſſary apparel is not her own property. Nay, at the death of her huſband, all the perſonal chattles ſhe poſſeſſed at marriage deſcend to his executor or adminiſtrator. She can make no contract without her huſband's conſent, nor reply without him, in matters of law. On the other hand, he muſt pay the debts which ſhe has contracted; and if ſhe ſhould injure any perſon by her tongue or treſpaſs, he will be obliged to make ſatisfaction.

The authority of fathers is ſo abſolute in England, that they may give away their unentailed eſtates from their own children, or bequeath their fortunes to any one child, in preference to all the reſt. A youth of 14 may chooſe his guardian, and conſent to marriage; at 21 he is at age to make any contract, deed, or will, and to ſit in parliament. The eldeſt ſon commonly inherits the landed eſtate, and the younger children are portioned from the goods and chattels.

With reſpect to the inhabitants of that part of South Britain called Wales, they are, in general, brave, hardy and hoſpitable; jealous of affronts, haſty, and proud. The nobility and gentry ſpeak the Engliſh language, affect the Engliſh faſhions, and endeavour to civilize the lower orders of their countrymen. The

common people (though ſome of them ſpeak Engliſh indifferently) commonly uſe the Welch, being particularly attached to their own language.

SECTION IV.

Conſtitution, Government, Laws, &c.

IN all ſtates there is an abſolute ſupreme power, to which the right of legiſlation belongs, and which, by the ſingular conſtitution of theſe kingdoms, is here veſted in king, lords, and commons.

The ſupreme executive power of Great Britain and Ireland is veſted, by our conſtitution, in a ſingle perſon, king or queen. The perſon entitled to it, whether male or female, is entruſted with all the enſigns, rights, and prerogatives of ſovereign power.

The grand fundamental maxim upon which the right of ſucceſſion to the throne of theſe kingdoms depends, is "That the crown, by common law, and conſtitutional cuſtom, is hereditary, and this in a manner peculiar to itſelf; but that the right of inheritance may, from time to time, be changed or limited, by act of parliament, under which limitations the crown ſtill continues hereditary."

At the revolution in 1688 the convention of the eſtates, or repreſentative body of the nation, declared, that the miſconduct of King James II. amounted to an abdication of the government, and that the throne was thereby vacant. In conſequence of this vacancy, and from a regard to the antient line, the convention appointed the next Proteſtant heir of the blood royal of Charles I. to fill the vacant throne, with a temporary exception, or preference, to the perſon of king William III.

On the impending failure of the Proteſtant line of king Charles I. the king and parliament extended the ſettlement of the crown to the Proteſtant line of king James I. viz. to the princeſs Sophia of Hanover, and the heirs of her body, being Proteſtants. She married the duke of Brunſwick Lunenburg, by whom ſhe had George, elector of Hanover, who aſcended the throne, by an act of parliament expreſsly made in favour of his mother; and that princeſs is now the common ſtock from whom the heirs of the crown muſt deſcend. This appears to be the true conſtitutional notion of the right of ſucceſſion to the imperial crown of theſe kingdoms.

When ſuch an hereditary right, as our laws have created, and veſted in the royal ſtock, is cloſely interwoven with thoſe liberties, which are equally the inheritance of the ſubject, this union will form a conſtitution in theory the moſt beautiful, in practice the moſt approved, and in duration the moſt permanent. This conſtitution it is the duty of every Briton to underſtand, to revere, and to defend.

The houſe of lords is compoſed of all the peers of the realm, ſpiritual and temporal. The commons, including the Scotch members, are choſen by the counties and boroughs, and in their collective body are ſuppoſed to repreſent the people of England.

It is highly neceſſary, for preſerving the balance of the conſtitution, that the executive power ſhould be a branch, though not the whole of the legiſlature. The crown cannot begin of itſelf any alterations in the preſent eſtabliſhed law; but it may approve or diſapprove of the alterations ſuggeſted and conſented to by the two houſes. The legiſlative, therefore, cannot abridge the executive power of any rights which it has now by law, without its own conſent; ſince the law muſt perpetually ſtand as it now does, unleſs all the powers will agree to alter it. Herein conſiſts the true excellence of our government, that all the parts of it form a mutual check upon each other. In the legiſlature the people are a check upon the nobility, and the nobility a check upon the people, by the mutual privilege of rejecting what the other has reſolved; while the king is a check upon both, which prevents the executive power from encroachments.

The king of England, beſides his high court of parliament, has ſubordinate officers and miniſters to aſſiſt him; and theſe are reſponſible for their advice and conduct. The peers of the realm are, by their dignity, hereditary counſellors, and may be called together at any time, to impart their advice in all matters of importance to the public weal. Another council are the judges of the courts of law. But the principal is the privy council, called, by way of eminence, "The council." Privy counſellor's are made by the king's nomination, and ſubject to a removal at his diſcretion. The power of the privy council conſiſts in enquiring into all offences againſt the government, and in committing offenders into ſafe cuſtody, in order to take their trial in ſome of the courts of law. But their juriſdiction does not extend to puniſhment; and the perſons committed by them are entitled to their *habeas corpus* equally with thoſe committed by an ordinary juſtice of the peace. In this council the civil government is regulated, and every new meaſure of the adminiſtration propoſed and planned.

There is a committee of the privy council, called the cabinet-council, conſiſting of a number of miniſters and noblemen, according to the king's opinion of their integrity and abilities, or attachment to the views of the court. One of the members of the cabinet council is generally conſidered as firſt miniſter, though, in reality, there is no office of that kind. A reſponſibility for all the tranſactions of government, is, however, always annexed to the title, which renders it a poſt of great danger and difficulty.

The great officers of the crown, who take place next to the princes of the blood, and the two primates, are nine in number, viz. the Lord High Steward, the Lord Chancellor, Lord Treaſurer, Lord Preſident of the Council, the Lord Privy Seal, the Lord Chamberlain, the Lord High Conſtable, the Earl Marſhal, and the Lord High Admiral.

The office of Lord High Steward is only exerciſed occaſionally, as at coronations and trials. That of Lord High Treaſurer is veſted in a commiſſion of five perſons; the firſt of whom is ſuppoſed to poſſeſs the power of Lord High Treaſurer. That of Lord High Conſtable is introduced at a coronation; and that of Lord High Admiral is now held by commiſſion, and is of very great importance.

The judges of England, appointed by the king, are 12 in number, diſpoſed in different courts of judicature, and divided into certain circuits, for the adminiſtration of juſtice through all parts of the realm. The tribunals held at Weſtminſter are, the courts of King's-Bench, Common-Pleas, Chancery, Exchequer, and the duchy chamber of Lancaſter.

The puniſhments inflicted on civil criminals in England, are different from thoſe adjudged in other countries. High treaſon, petit treaſon, rape, ſodomy, murder, and felony, are capital crimes by the laws of this country. A traitor is firſt hanged up, then cut down, opened and embowelled; after which he is quartered, and his head and members expoſed to the populace. But in noblemen this ſentence is, by the indulgence of the crown, always changed into decapitation; and the criminal in that caſe is beheaded with an ax on a public ſcaffold. A traitor is not quit for his own life; but his conviction is attended with the ruin of his family. He forfeits all his lands and goods; his wife loſes her dowry; and his children are deprived of their nobility, and right of inheritance. Coiners, though adjudged guilty of high treaſon, are only hanged and drawn. Petit treaſon, comprehending the murder of a maſter or miſtreſs by a ſervant, of a huſband by his wife, or of a biſhop by a clergyman, who owes him obedience, is puniſhed by drawing the criminal to the gallows on a hurdle, and hanging him by the neck until he be dead, except in the caſe of a female, who, for high treaſon, as well as petit treaſon, is ſentenced to be drawn and burned alive. All other capital crimes are puniſhed by hanging; and in caſes of murder, the body of the criminal

criminal is adjudged to the ſurgeons, to be by them diſſected in public.

The puniſhments for ſmaller offences are, burning in the hand, hard labour, impriſonment, the pillory, whipping, fine, &c.

SECTION V.

Religion, Language, Learning, Commerce, Coin, Weights and Meaſures, Military and Naval Force, &c.

THE eſtabliſhed religion of England is a Proteſtant epiſcopal church. The king of England is acknowledged as ſupreme head of the church, governed by two archbiſhops and 24 ſuffragans, each of theſe enjoying the title of lord, on account of the barony annexed, and having precedence immediately after viſcounts, in parliament as well as in other aſſemblies. The two archiepiſcopal ſees are thoſe of Canterbury and York, to which all the other dioceſes of England and Wales are ſubject. The archbiſhop of Canterbury is ſtiled the primate of all England; is the firſt peer of the kingdom; precedes all dukes and great officers of the crown, next the royal family; and performs the ceremony of the coronation. The dioceſes contained in the province of Canterbury are thoſe of London, Wincheſter, Ely, Lincoln, Rocheſter, Litchfield and Coventry, Hereford, Worceſter, Bath and Wells, Saliſbury, Exeter, Chicheſter, Norwich, Glouceſter, Oxford, Peterborough, and Briſtol; and in Wales, the biſhoprics of St. David's, Landaff, St. Aſaph, and Bangor. The archbiſhop of York is ſtiled primate of England, and metropolitan; hath place and precedence of all dukes next to the royal family, and all great officers of ſtate, except the lord chancellor. He enjoys many prerogatives and privileges within his own province, which comprehends the biſhoprics of Durham, Carliſle, and Cheſter, beſides that of Sodor and Man.

The church of England is more tolerant than any other national church, with reſpect to its principles. Moderation being its governing character, no religious ſect here is prevented from worſhipping God in that manner which their conſciences approve. Hence, ſince the reformation, a number of ſects have ariſen under the ſeveral denominations of Preſbyterians, Independents, Baptiſts, Methodiſts, Quakers, &c.

Though unqualified men are admitted as preachers amongſt ſome of thoſe ſects, many of the miniſters of thoſe who exclude the illiterate from their pulpits, have greatly diſtinguiſhed themſelves by their learning and abilities; and ſome of their writings are held in high eſtimation by many of the clergy, and other members of the eſtabliſhed church.

Numbers of families in England ſtill profeſs the Roman Catholic religion; and its exerciſe is under very mild and gentle reſtrictions. Some writers have exclaimed with great violence againſt the numerous ſects tolerated in this country: but let it be conſidered that civil and religious liberty are cloſely connected, and that it by no means becomes any church, which makes no pretenſions to infallibility, to ſet up the ſtandard of perſecution. Where candour and charity, and a love of truth and liberty, unite, among thoſe who differ in ſentiment, peace, order, and harmony muſt ever prevail.

The Engliſh language is compounded of ſeveral others, but more particularly of Saxon, Celtic, French, and Latin; but the former predominates. This, inſtead of rendering it defective, gives it innumerable graces; ſince it has incorporated moſt of the beauties, and rejected the defects, of the languages of which it is compoſed. Hence it is more energetic than the French, more manly than the Italian, more copious than the Spaniſh, and more elegant than the German.

England may be deemed the ſeat of the muſes. Alfred the Great cultivated literature at a period when all the reſt of Europe was plunged into ignorance and barbariſm. Since his time a continual ſucceſſion of learned men have been diſtinguiſhed by their maſterly writings, and done credit to the Britiſh name; and, at preſent, literature in England ſeems to have arrived at its utmoſt zenith. Indeed, we have men of genius and ingenuity, who, in almoſt every art, ſcience, manufactory, and profeſſion, exceed thoſe of any other nation.

England, being plentifully ſupplied with all the conveniences of life, could ſubſiſt without the aſſiſtance of any other country whatſoever. But as foreign commerce is advantageous, employs abundance of artiſts, as well as a great number of poor, and is a manifeſt improvement to all manufacture in general, ſo it is the ſureſt and moſt effectual means not only to enrich, but to ſtrengthen the nation, and render it a terror to its enemies.

The Engliſh merchants traffic largely with Ruſſia, Sweden, Denmark, Norway, Hamburgh, Bremen, both ſides of the Baltic, all the northern parts of Germany, Holland, Flanders, Portugal, Sicily, Italy, the Levant, the coaſt of Africa, and the Eaſt and Weſt Indies. The commodities exported from England are comprehended in the different articles of corn, cattle, ſhip proviſion, butter, cheeſe, beef, pork, biſcuit, iron, lead, tin, copper, manufactured and unmanufactured leather, copperas, allum, pit-coal, ſaffron, hops, flax, hats, ſhoes, herrings, pilchards, cod, ſalmon, oyſters, liquorice, watches, ribbons, toys, and all the different manufactures of wool, ſuch as broad cloth, bays, kerſies, ruſhes, ſerges, ſays, frizes, ſtuffs, flannels, rugs, caps, and ſtockings. The products of wool are the principal article of the Engliſh traffic, the exports of them exceeding two millions yearly. The fiſhery is very conſiderable, and, if properly cultivated, would equal, if not excel, any other branch of commerce. It conſiſts of pickled herrings, cod, ling, and tuſk, from Shetland, and the Scottiſh coaſt; red herrings from Yarmouth; and pilchards from the weſtern coaſt of England; beſides, a conſiderable number of ſhips annually employed in the whale fiſhery of Spitzbergen. The imports from various parts of the globe are immenſe, and need not enumeration, as they conſiſt of the produce and manufactures of moſt of the countries in the univerſe. Many branches of foreign commerce are monopolized and managed by incorporated, or chartered companies. For the ſtill greater promotion of Engliſh trade, a council of commerce, or board of trade, is likewiſe held at Whitehall.

The Engliſh funds are perfectly ſecure, though the national debt is enormous; and the revenues are immenſe, though of ſo complicated a nature as not to be eaſily aſcertained. Accompts are kept in pounds, ſhillings, pence, and farthings; the former being only a nominal ſum. Beſides farthings, halfpence, ſixpences, ſhillings, half-crowns, guineas, half-guineas, which are the common current coins, there are ſome ſilver pieces, ſuch as pence, two-pences, three-pences, and groats; and ſome gold ones, ſuch as two and five guinea pieces. There are two ſorts of weights, troy and avoirdupois. All goods ſubject to waſte are weighed by the latter, all others by the former. Twelve ounces of the firſt, and 16 of the latter, conſtitute a pound. Meaſures of length are the inch, foot, yard, fathom, perch or pole, acre, furlong, and mile. Dry meaſures are the pint, quart, gallon, peck, buſhel, comb, quarter, laſt, and chaldron. Liquid meaſures are the gill, half-pint, pint, quart, gallon, firkin, kilderkin, barrel, hogſhead, pipe, butt, and tun.

The land forces of Great Britain, in time of peace, do not exceed 40,000, viz. 12,000 in Ireland, and the reſt in Great Britain, and various garriſons beyond the ſeas; but in time of war, during hoſtilities, the number is augmented, according to exigencies; and ſometimes the troops in pay are very numerous. The navy of Great Britain is more powerful than that of any other country in the univerſe. In peaceable times a number of mariners are retained by government; but when neceſſity requires, the Britiſh fleet is rendered amazingly formidable.

SECTION

SECTION VI.

NORTH BRITAIN, or

SCOTLAND.

SCOTLAND, ſituated to the north of England, is bounded northward by the Frozen, weſtward by the Britiſh Ocean, and to the ſouth it joins England. The length is 250 miles; and the breadth, where wideſt, 150. The principal part of the country is mountainous and hilly; the air ſharp, but wholeſome; and the ſoil, in general, inferior to that of England. It is divided into two diſtricts, viz. Highlands and Lowlands. The people of the former are rude and uncivilized; but thoſe of the latter imitate the Engliſh cuſtoms and manners. The whole kingdom is well watered with rivers and lakes. There are a few foreſts of fir. Timber, in general, however, is ſcarce. The quarries contain free-ſtone; and, indeed, Scotland, in general, in every part of its natural hiſtory, reſembles England, except that moſt of its productions, from the more unfavourable ſituation, are rather inferior to thoſe of South Britain.

With reſpect to character, the Scotch are brave, paſſionate, and vindictive; but they are accuſed, particularly the Highlanders, of inſincerity, rapacity, avarice, pride, and naſtineſs. Indeed, a celebrated Scotch author, in ſpeaking of Scotland, acknowledges that "cleanlineſs is a virtue very rarely found in this part of the world;" but adds, "perſons of education, fortune, and ſentiment, ought to be exempted from this national reproach." They are fond of rambling in ſearch of adventures and money. Hence the proverb, "In every corner of the earth you may find a Scot, a rat, and a Newcaſtle grindſtone." Many of them attain to a degree of eminence in the various branches of literature. They are good ſoldiers, and obſequious ſervants. Their clothes are after the Engliſh faſhion, except that their peaſants wear blue bonnets, and the Highlanders plaids, the only remains of the ancient Roman dreſs. They have long viſages, high cheek bones, and commonly ſandy hair. They are abſtemious in diet, and badly accommodated in their houſes. Moſt of the Scotch are uncommonly fond of muſic, and their tunes are ſweet, expreſſive, and affecting. Their common inſtrument is the bagpipe. The religion is Preſbytery: and the kirk of the kingdom is divided into 13 provincial ſynods, which contain 68 preſbyteries, and 938 pariſhes. Sixteen peers, and 45 commoners, are ſent from Scotland to the Engliſh parliament. This kingdom is divided into the following counties.

CAITHNESS, the moſt northern county of Scotland, is very rocky, includes many bays and promontories, abounds in cattle, ſheep, goats, roe-bucks, red deer, and produces copper and iron; but the inhabitants principally live by fiſhing and grazing. The principal place is Weick, a royal borough and market; though Thurſo, a town on the other ſide of the county, is deemed more populous.

SUTHERLAND, ſouth-weſt of Caithneſs, is mountainous and barren, but well ſupplied with fiſh and wild fowl, by reaſon that it is not only watered by ſeveral rivers, but contains above 60 lakes, including various ſmall iſlands. The principal place is the royal borough of Dornoch, which is the ſeat of a preſbytery, contains a cathedral, and conſiſts of nine pariſhes.

ROSS, which includes Tayne and Cromartie, is ſituated to the ſouth-weſt of Sutherland, and has ſnow on its mountains the greateſt part of the year. The vallies, however, are fertile, the air good, and the hills produce foreſts of fir, game, &c. The chief place, Channerie, though the ſeat of a preſbytery, is but an inconſiderable market-town.

INVERNESS, to the ſouth of Roſsſhire, is a barren county, but produces wood, iron, and game. At the mouth of the Aber, in the center between the Weſt and North Highlands, ſtand the towns of Maryborough and Fort William, built to check the depredations of ſome of the Clans. Inverneſs, from which the ſhire derives its name, is a royal borough on the river Neiſs, over which there is a bridge of ſeven arches. It is the ſeat of a preſbytery, contains 13 pariſhes, and may be juſtly deemed the key and capital of the iſlands. In this county is the lake of Lochneſs, which never freezes in the ſevereſt winter.

NAIRN, ſituated to the ſouth-eaſt of Roſsſhire, has a ſalubrious and temperate air, and contains ſome tolerable paſture land. The only place of note is Nairn, on a river of the ſame name. Though a royal borough, it is poor and mean, and the harbour is quite choaked up.

ELGIN, to the eaſt of Nairn, has a tolerable air, and the low country is fertile. The town of Elgin is a royal borough, ſituated in a verdant plain on the river Loſſie. It is the ſeat of a preſbytery, including 13 pariſhes.

ARGYLESHIRE, to the ſouth-weſt of Inverneſs, is a wild barren country. The town of Argyle is the ſeat of a Provincial Synod, conſiſting of five preſbyteries and 49 pariſhes, and gives the title of duke and earl to the noble family of Campbell, the moſt powerful of all the Scottiſh nobility. This ſhire is divided into ſeveral diſtricts, viz. Kintyre, Knapdale, Korne, Argyle, properly ſo, and Cowal.

PERTHSHIRE is ſituated about the center of Scotland, and may be deemed one of its moſt fertile provinces. The people are polite and induſtrious, and their habitations neater than in moſt other parts of the kingdom. The ſhire is divided into ſeveral diſtricts, viz. Menteith, Braidalbin, Athol, Stratherne, Gowrie, Perth Proper, and Scone.

Perth, the capital of the province, is an agreeable, populous town, ſituated 20 miles within land, on the ſouth bank of the river Tay. It was otherwiſe called St. Johnſton's, from a church dedicated to St. John, as the patron of the place. It is a royal borough, ſecond in dignity to the metropolis, and the ſeat of a large preſbytery.

Scone, or Scaan, ſuppoſed to be the center of the kingdom, is a royal palace, ſtanding on the north bank of the Tay, famous, in former ages, for the adjoining abbey, founded for the monks of the order of St. Auguſtine. Here the kings of Scotland were crowned in the fatal chair, ſaid to be brought by Fergus from Ireland, including in its bottom a rough marble ſtone. It was removed from hence by Edward I. of England, and depoſited in Weſtminſter-abbey, where it ſtill remains. Scone gives the title of baron to the viſcount Stormont, a branch of the family of Murray. He is alſo hereditary keeper of this palace, which is large, ſpacious, and magnificent, though built in the ancient manner. Some of the pannels are adorned with paintings, performed above 200 years ago; and here is a bed of fine needle-work, ſewed by the hands of Mary, queen of Scots. The houſe was provided with elegant gardens, a chapel, and offices; but the whole is now fallen into decay. It was in the chapel that king Charles II. took the covenant, when the Scots invited him to this kingdom. Here the Pretender reſided three weeks, in all the ſtate of a monarch; while his general, the earl of Mar, lay with his forces at Perth.

BAMFSHIRE, to the weſt of Aberdeenſhire, is a very fertile pleaſant county, inhabited chiefly by Lowlanders.

Bamff, ſituated on the coaſt of the Murray Frith, is a royal borough, of very little conſideration. It was of old ſecured by a caſtle, which is now in ruins.

This is likewiſe the caſe with the abbey of Deer, in the neighbourhood, which belonged to the Ciſtertian monks.

ABERDEENSHIRE has a wholeſome air, is well watered, finely diverſified with hills and dales, and pretty fertile.

The

The capital of this county is Aberdeen, 80 miles north of Edinburgh. It ſtands upon the rivers Dee and Don, and is, in effect, divided into two diſtinct towns. Old Aberdeen, the ſeat of a preſbytery, built at the mouth of the Don, has a church made of hewn ſtone, with a lofty ſteeple or turret, ending in an imperial crown, with a round globe of ſtone, and two gilded croſſes. Near the church is a library, furniſhed with a valuable collection of books. Old Aberdeen is chiefly remarkable for the college founded by king James IV. conſiſting of a principal, ſub-principal, regents, or profeſſors, of divinity, civil law, phyſic, philoſophy, and the languages. To theſe endowments Charles I. added eight burſers, out of the revenues of vacant biſhoprics. King Charles II. beſtowed upon it the benefices of vacant churches in ſeveral dioceſes for ſeven years. From theſe benefactions it derived the name of the Caroline Univerſity. The town is ſmall, indifferently built, and inconſiderable, though very ancient. About a mile from hence, at the mouth of the river Dee, is New Aberdeen, the county town, a neat, populous, and flouriſhing place, adorned with churches, hoſpitals, a fine wharf, a cuſtom-houſe, and many ſtately edifices built of hewn ſtone. The ſtreets are large and well paved; the private houſes lofty, and well finiſhed, provided with gardens and orchards, which appear intermingled with the buildings, and at a diſtance give it the air of a city.

MEARNS, or KINCARDINSHIRE, ſituated ſouth of Aberdeenſhire, is a fertile county. The principal place is Stonehive, the ſeat of the county courts, a ſmall town with a commodious haven, and enjoys a good ſalmon fiſhery. Kincardin, another conſiderable place, ſtands on the river Dee, and gives the title of earl to a branch of the family of Bruce. Cowy is an ancient borough, greatly decayed, and remarkable for nothing but the ruins of a caſtle, ſaid to have been built by king Malcolm Kemnore; and Fourdon, or Mearns, is a ſmall town, the ſeat of a preſbytery, and, before the reformation, famous for the reliques of St. Palladius, who was ſent over to Scotland in the fifth century by pope Celeſtine, to enlighten the Scots, and confute the Pelagians.

FORFARSHIRE, to the ſouth-weſt of Kincardinſhire, produces wood, minerals, cattle, and game.

The county-town, Forfar, beſtows its name upon the ſhire, and gave the title of earl to a branch of the noble family of Douglas, which title was extinguiſhed at the death of the laſt earl, a gallant youth, who loſt his life in the battle of Dumblaine. The town, though inconſiderable, is a royal borough, and ſeat of a preſbytery. The moſt flouriſhing town of this county is Dundee antiently called Alutum and Taodunum, the birth-place of the hiſtorian Hector Boethius. It is ſituated at the foot of a hill, on the north ſide of the Tay, not far from that river's influx into the ocean. Dundee is a royal borough, and ſeat of a preſbytery, handſomely built, and inferior to few towns in Scotland, in ſtrength, ſituation and commerce.

CLACKMAMAN, a very ſmall county, is fertile, but contains only one place of note, viz. Alloa, on the Ferth or Frith, a ſea-port of tolerable trade.

FIFESHIRE, a peninſula, between the Forth of Firth, and the Tay, is tolerably fertile. The principal place is Coupar of Fife, the county town, ſituated on the river Eden; but the moſt celebrated place is the city of St. Andrew's. Hither the bones of St. Andrew are ſaid to have been brought from Patras, a town of Peloponneſus, in the fourth century, by Regulus, a Grecian monk, renowned for his piety and learning. St. Andrew's was alſo the principal ſeat of the Culdees, who directed all ſacred inſtitutions from the firſt converſion of the Picts to Chriſtianity, and has always been famous for its univerſity.

The iſland of May, about a mile and a half in circumference, lies ſeven miles from the coaſt of Fife, almoſt oppoſite to the rock of Baſs. It formerly belonged to the priory of Pittenweem, and was dedicated to St. Adrian, ſuppoſed to have been martyred in this place by the Danes; and hither, in times of Popiſh ſuperſtition, barren women uſed to come and worſhip at his ſhrine, in hopes of being cured of their ſterility. Here are a tower and light houſe, built by a Mr. Cunningham, to whom king Charles I. granted the iſland in fee, with power to exact two pence per ton from every ſhip that paſſes, for the maintenance of the light-houſe.

STIRLINGSHIRE is a pleaſant fertile county, ſituated to the ſouth of Perthſhire.

Stirling, the capital of the county, which derives its name from Ster, a Saxon word, ſignifying hill, and Lin water, was anciently called Binobara, of the ſame ſignification in the Scottiſh language. The town ſtands about 30 miles from Edinburgh, on the deſcent of a hill, the top of which is crowned with a ſtately old caſtle, of which the earls of Mar were formerly hereditary caſtellans, kept in repair, and garriſoned by the government. The town is encloſed with a wall, except towards the north, where the part of a foſſe is ſupplied by the river Forth, over which the inhabitants have built a ſtone bridge, conſiſting of four ſtately arches, and ſecured with an iron gate.

DUMBARTONSHIRE, to the north of the Firth of Clyde, is a barren county. The lake called Loch-lomond is a great curioſity, being ſupplied by ſubterraneous ſprings and rivulets, ſurrounded with huge mountains, extending 25 miles in length, and in ſome places five miles in breadth, incredibly deep in every part, interſperſed with 24 verdant iſles, ſome of which are ſtocked with red deer, and inhabited.

Dumbarton, the county town, which beſtows its name upon the ſhire, is a ſmall inconſiderable royal borough, ſituated near the conflux of the Clyde and Leven; and at preſent remarkable for nothing but its caſtle, which is very large, and formed on a very ſingular conſtruction. It is a ſteep rock, riſing up into two points, and every where inacceſſible, except by a very narrow paſſage or entry, fortified with a ſtrong wall and rampart. Within this wall is the guard-houſe, with lodgings for the officers: and from hence a long flight of ſtone ſteps aſcends to the upper part of the caſtle, where there are ſeveral batteries mounted with cannon.

RENFREWSHIRE, eaſt of Dumbartonſhire, from which it is ſeparated by the river Clyde, is tolerably fertile, and hath many opulent inhabitants. The principal town is Renfrew, an inconſiderable place, which yields greatly in point of importance to the village of Paiſley.

LANERKSHIRE, to the ſouth-weſt of Edinburghſhire, is divided into two diſtricts, viz. the ſhire of Lanerk, and the barony of Glaſgow. The ſoil is diverſified, being in ſome places barren, and in others fertile. The principal place is the large, elegant and populous city of Glaſgow. It ſtands on the deſcent of an eminence, near the Clyde, over which it has a handſome ſtone bridge of ſeven arches. The ſtreets are regular and well paved, the houſes lofty and built of ſtone, the churches elegant, and the univerſity a noble and beautiful foundation. The people are induſtrious and carry on great commerce; and the whole place has the appearance of opulence.

LINLEIGHGOWSHIRE, a ſmall county to the ſouth of Stirlingſhire, is very pleaſant, and tolerably fertile. Linlithgow, the chief town, is a neat place, the ſeat of a preſbytery, and a royal borough.

EDINBURGHSHIRE, or WEST LOTHIAN, to the ſouth of the Forth of Firth, abounds in minerals, is extremely fertile, well cultivated, and pleaſant. The ſheriffalty of this ſhire is in the gift of the crown, and Edinburgh is a county of itſelf. The city, which is the capital of Scotland, was formerly the regal reſidence. It conſiſts principally of one ſtreet, with lanes running from it, the ground riſing gradually from Holyrood-houſe, to the Canongate-head, which is the ſuburb; and from thence to the caſtle, which is the higheſt part of the

city. The principal ſtreet beſides this is called Cowgate, and is on the ſouth ſide of the other; and from this ſeveral lanes run up the hill towards the univerſity and Heriot's hoſpital. The city is above a mile in length, but no where above half a mile in breadth. The houſes are built of ſtone, ſix or ſeven ſtories high; and near the parliament cloſe they are 14 ſtories high. The whole is walled on every ſide but the north, where a lake circumſcribes it. The caſtle is remarkably ſtrong. The council-houſe and ſeſſions-houſe are convenient fabrics for the purpoſes for which they are deſigned. The high church, which was the cathedral, is now divided into four churches; beſides which there are ſeven other churches, and a chapel in the caſtle. The palace called Holyrood houſe was formerly an abbey, and is a handſome convenient ſtructure. This city is governed by a lord provoſt, four bailiffs, and a common council.

Leith, ſituated on the Forth, two miles north of Edinburgh, is not only the port, but may, with juſtice, be termed the warehouſe of Edinburgh. It is a flouriſhing handſome town interſected by the river Leith; over which there is a ſtone bridge, which connects the two parts.

HADDINGTONSHIRE, to the north-eaſt of Edinburghſhire, is a very fertile, and well cultivated county. The ſhire town, ſituated on the river Tyne, over which it has a ſtone bridge with three arches, is a royal borough, large, well built, and the ſeat of a preſbytery.

Dunbar, a royal borough, at the mouth of the Firth, is the ſeat of a preſbytery. It is a neat ſmall town, has a good market, a ſecure harbour, and a conſiderable trade.

BERWICKSHIRE, adjoining to England, ſituated to the ſouth eaſt of Edinburghſhire, is a rough, mooriſh county, irregularly diverſified with woods and vallies. Berwick town being now annexed to England, the principal Scotch town of this county is Duns, a large populous barony in the center of the ſhire, being the ſeat of a preſbytery, and having a caſtle for its defence.

AIRESHIRE, to the eaſt of the Firth of Clyde, is a level, pleaſant, and tolerable fertile county. Aire, the county town, is an ancient royal borough, commodiouſly ſituated for trade, and compoſed of the Old and new Towns, which are joined together by a bridge of four arches.

TWEEDALESHIRE, or PEBLES, ſituated to the ſouth of Edinburghſhire, produces ſome grain, is particularly fertile in paſturage, well watered with rivers, and contains ſeveral lakes. The only town worthy of notice is Pebles, a ſmall pleaſant place on the Tweed, over which it has a ſtone bridge of five arches.

ROXBURGHSHIRE, or TIVIOTDALE, to the ſouth of Berwickſhire, is, though rather barren, a well inhabited county. Roxborough, the county town, was formerly a flouriſhing place, but is now greatly reduced, by reaſon that its royalty was removed to Jedburgh, ſituated at the confluence of the Teſy and Ted.

SELKIRKSHIRE, to the weſt of Roxburghſhire, is a hilly country, but yields good paſture, and abounds in cattle. The chief town is Selkirk, a royal borough, on the Eltrick, famous for its manufacture of boots and ſhoes.

DUMFRIESSHIRE, to the ſouth-weſt of Selkirkſhire, is a hilly county, but produces cattle in abundance. Annan, a royal borough and ſea-port, was once the chief town, but having gone to decay, Dumfries is at preſent to be conſidered as ſuch. This town, which may be ſtiled the capital of the ſouth-weſt part of Scotland, is a large flouriſhing royal borough, ſituated at the mouth of the Nid, at the diſtance of 64 miles from Edinburgh. The houſes are well built and commodious, the ſtreets are open and ſpacious. The town is adorned with a ſtrong caſtle in tolerable repair, four gates, a ſtately church, an exchange for the merchants, a tolbooth, a large market-place with a curious croſs, and a noble bridge of free-ſtone over the river, conſiſting of 13 large arches, with a gate in the middle, as a boundary between the ſhire of Dumfries, and the ſtewartry of Galloway. Dumfries gives the title of earl to the chief of the family of Crichton, is the ſeat of a preſbytery and provincial ſynod, and carries on a conſiderable ſhare of commerce.

WIGTOWNSHIRE, to the ſouth of Aireſhire, abounds in cattle, horſes, &c. The capital of the ſhire is Wigtown, which beſtows the title of earl upon the chief of the Flemings. It is a royal borough, where the ſheriff holds his court, and the ſeat of a preſbytery, ſituated near the mouth of a river, in a bay of the ſame name, 11 miles in breadth, at the diſtance of 88 miles from Edinburgh. It has the advantage of a tolerable harbour and is well ſituated for trade; but this is entirely neglected, and the town is very poor, and thinly inhabited.

The length and breadth of the counties of North Britain may be known by inſpecting the following table.

Counties.	Leng.	Bred.	Counties.	Leng.	Bred.
Caithneſs	35	20	Fifeſhire	40	17
Sutherland	80	40	Stirlingſhire	20	12
Roſs	80	78	Dumbartonſhire	24	20
Inverneſs	60	55	Renfrewſhire	20	13
Nairn	20	14	Lanerkſhire	40	24
Elgin	24	20	Linleighgowſhire	14	13
Argyleſhire	90	70	Edinburghſhire	21	16
Perthſhire	70	60	Haddingtonſhire	20	12
Bamffſhire	32	13	Berwickſhire	24	16
Aberdeenſhire	50	36	Aireſhire	64	36
Mearns	27	20	Tweedaleſhire	25	18
Forfarſhire	29	16	Roxburghſhire	30	15
Clackmaman	8	5	Selkirkſhire	20	12
			Dumfrieſhire	50	34
			Wigtownſhire	24	23

SECTION VII.

Antiquities, &c. of Great Britain.

THE moſt celebrated antiquity in Great Britain is the famous Druid temple, about ſix miles from Saliſbury, called Stonehenge, which conſiſts of two circles and two ovals, reſpectively concentric. The ſtones that compoſe it are really ſtupendous; their height, breadth, and thickneſs are enormous; and to ſee ſo many of them placed together in a nice and critical figure with exactneſs: to conſider, as it were, not a pillar of one ſtone, but a whole wall, a ſide and end, of a temple, of one ſtone; to view them curiouſly creates ſuch an aſtoniſhment in the mind as words cannot expreſs.

Near this amazing work of antiquity are a great number of elevations, ſomething reſembling the form of a bell, called burrows or barrows. Theſe are ſepulchral tumuli, wherein the antient Britons depoſited the aſhes of their dead, and raiſed in memory of ſoldiers ſlain there.

Monuments of the ſame kind as that of Stonehenge are to be met with in many parts of England as well as in Scotland.

The Roman antiquities in Great Britain conſiſt of altars, monumental inſcriptions, walls, and military ways, the principal of the latter being one that began at Dover, and paſſed through the whole iſland to Cardigan in Wales. The chief Roman wall is that called the wall of Severus, or Picts wall, which runs through Northumberland and Cumberland, beginning at Tinmouth and ending at Solway Firth, being about 80 miles in length. The Saxon antiquities conſiſt of ſtrong fortreſſes, and eccleſiaſtical edifices. The Daniſh are hardly diſcernible from the Saxon; and the Anglo-

Anglo-Norman remains exhibit noble ſpecimens of Gothic architecture.

SECTION VIII.

Concise View *of the* History *of* Great Britain.

THIS iſland was originally named Albion, from its white cliffs; afterwards Britain from its painted inhabitants. The ſouthern parts received the name of England from the Anglo-Saxons; and the whole, after the union with Scotland, was termed Great Britain.

The antient Britons were known to the Phœnicians and Gauls, who traded with them, till the fertility of the country, and richneſs of the mines, induced the Romans to invade the iſland under Julius Cæſar. The Romans having conquered it retained the greateſt part under ſeveral ſucceſſive emperors; but the empire itſelf at length beginning to decline, the Roman forces were drawn from Briton to defend Italy from the incurſions of the northern barbarians. The Britons, unprotected by the Romans, being incapable of defending themſelves from the Scots and Picts, called in the Saxons to their aſſiſtance. Theſe ſtrangers, having defeated the foes of the Britons, became themſelves their greateſt enemies, drove them up into the mountains of Wales, poſſeſſed themſelves of the moſt fertile parts of the country, and divided it into ſeven kingdoms, called the Heptarchy. England was afterwards invaded and conquered by the Danes, who kept it a few years, when it returned again beneath the Saxon government, and ſo remained till it was invaded and conquered by William, duke of Normandy, who afterwards reigned by the title of

William I. commonly called the Conqueror. This ſucceſsful prince was a deſcendant of Canute the Dane, born 1027; paid a viſit to Edward the Confeſſor, in England, 1051; betrothed his daughter to Harold II. 1058; made a claim of the crown of England, 1066; invaded England, landing at Pevenſey, in Suſſex, the ſame year; defeated the Engliſh troops at Haſtings, on October 14, 1066, when Harold was ſlain, and William aſſumed the title of Conqueror. He was crowned at Weſtminſter, December 29, 1066; invaded Scotland, 1072; ſubverted the Engliſh conſtitution, 1074; refuſed to ſwear fealty to the Pope for the crown of England; wounded by his ſon, Robert, at Gerberot, in Normandy, 1079; invaded France, 1086; ſoon after fell from his horſe, and contracted a rupture; died at Hermentrude, near Rouen, in Normandy, 1087; was buried at Caen, and ſucceeded in Normandy by his eldeſt ſon, Robert, and in England, by his ſecond ſon

William II. born in 1057; crowned at Weſtminſter, September 27, 1087; invaded Normandy with ſucceſs, 1090; killed by accident, as he was hunting in the New Foreſt, by Sir Walter Tyrrel, Auguſt 1100, aged 43; was buried at Wincheſter, and ſucceeded by his brother

Henry I. ſurnamed Beauclerc, born in 1068; crowned, Auguſt 5, 1100; married Matilda, daughter of Malcolm, king of Scots, November 11 following; made peace with his brother, Robert, 1101; invaded Normandy, 1105; attacked by Robert, whom he defeated, and took priſoner, 1107, and ſent to England; betrothed his daughter Maude to the emperor of Germany, 1109; challenged by Lewis of France, 1117; his eldeſt ſon, and two others of his children, ſhipwrecked and loſt, with 180 of his nobility, in coming from Normandy, 1120; in quiet poſſeſſion of Normandy, 1129; ſurfeited himſelf with eating lampreys, at Lyons, near Rouen, in Normandy, and died December 1, 1135, aged 68. His body was brought over to England, and buried at Reading. He was ſucceeded by his nephew, Stephen, third ſon of his ſiſter Adela, by the earl of Blois. He was greatly interrupted in the principal part of his reign by

Maude, daughter of Henry I. born 1101; married to Henry IV. emperor of Germany, 1109; had the Engliſh nobility ſwear fealty to her, 1126; buried her huſband 1127; married Jeffery Plantagenet, earl of Anjou, 1130; ſet aſide from the Engliſh ſucceſſion, by Stephen, 1135; landed in England, and claimed her right to the crown, September, 1139; crowned, but ſoon after defeated at Wincheſter, 1141; eſcaped to Glouceſter on a bier; fled from a window of Oxford-caſtle, by a rope, in the winter of 1142; retired to France 1147; returned to England, and concluded a peace with Stephen, 1153; and died abroad, September 10, 1167.

Stephen was born 1105; crowned December 2, 1135; taken priſoner at Lincoln, by the earl of Glouceſter, Maude's half brother, February, 1141, and put in irons at Briſtol, but releaſed in exchange for the earl of Glouceſter, taken at Wincheſter; made peace with Henry, Maude's ſon, 1153; died of the piles, October 25, 1154, aged 50; was buried at Feverſham, and ſucceeded by Henry, ſon of Maude. Matilda, Stephen's queen, was crowned on Eaſter-day, 1136; died May 3, 1151, at Henningham-caſtle, Eſſex, and was buried in a monaſtery at Feverſham.

Henry II. ſurnamed Plantagenet, grandſon of Henry I. born in 1133, began his reign in 1154; arrived in England December 8, and was, with his queen, Eleanor, crowned at London, the 19th of the ſame month; crowned at Lincoln, 1158; again at Worceſter, 1159; quelled the rebellion at Maine, 1166; had his ſon Henry crowned king of England, 1170; invaded Ireland, and conquered it, 1172; impriſoned his queen on account of Roſamond, his concubine, 1173; did penance at Becket's tomb, July 8, 1174; took the king of Scotland priſoner, and obliged him to give up the independency of his crown, 1175; named his ſon John, king of Ireland, 1176; had, the ſame year, an amour, with Alice, of France, the intended princeſs of his ſon Richard, 1181; loſt his eldeſt ſon, Henry, June 11, 1183; his ſon Richard rebelled, 1185; had his ſon Jeffery trodden under foot, and killed, at a tournament at Paris, 1186; made a convention with Philip, of France, to go to the holy war, 1188; died with grief at the altar, curſing his ſons, July 6, 1189, aged 61; was buried at Fonteverand, in France, and ſucceeded by his ſon Richard. Eleanor, queen to king Henry II. died, 1204.

Richard I. ſurnamed Cœur de Lion, was born at Oxford, 1157; crowned at London, September 3, 1189; ſet out on the cruſade, and joined Philip of France on the plains of Vezelay, June 29, 1190; took Meſſina the latter end of the year; married Berengera, daughter of the king of Navarre, May 12, 1191; defeated the Cyprians, 1191; taken priſoner near Vienna, on his return home, by the duke of Auſtria, December 20, 1192; ranſomed for 40,000l. and ſet at liberty 1193; returned to England March 20 following; wounded with an arrow at Chaluz, near Limoges, in Normandy, and died, April 6, 1199; was buried at Fonteverand, and ſucceeded by his brother

John, the youngeſt ſon of Henry II. born at Oxford, December 24, 1166; was crowned, May 27, 1199; divorced his wife Aviſa, and married Iſabella, daughter of the Count of Angoſelme; went to Paris, 1200; beſieged the caſtle of Mirabel, and took his nephew, Arthur, priſoner, Auguſt 1, 1202, whom he murdered; the ſame year he was expelled the French provinces, and re-crowned in England; impriſoned his queen, and baniſhed all the clergy in his dominions, 1208; was excommunicated, 1209; landed in Ireland, June 8, 1210; ſurrendered his crown to Pandolf the Pope's legate, May 25, 1213; abſolved, July 20 following; obliged, by his barons, to confirm Magna Charta, 1215; loſt his treaſure and baggage in paſſing the marſhes of Lynn, 1216; died at Newark, October 18, 1216; was buried at Worceſter, and ſucceeded by his ſon

Henry III. born October 1, 1207; crowned at Glouceſter, October 28, 1216; received homage from Alexander,

ander, of Scotland, at Northampton, 1218; crowned again at Weſtminſter, after Chriſtmas, 1219; married Eleanor, daughter of the Count of Provence, January 14, 1236; pledged his crown and jewels for money, when he married his daughter Margaret to the king of Scots, 1242; obliged, by his nobles, to reſign the power of a ſovereign, and ſell Normandy and Anjou to the French, 1258; ſhut himſelf up in the Tower of London for fear of his nobles, 1261; taken priſoner at Lewes, May 14, 1264; wounded at the battle of Eveſham, 1265; died at St. Edmundſbury, in Suffolk, November 16, 1272; and was ſucceeded by his ſon Edward.

Eleanor, Henry III's queen, died in a monaſtery at Amberſbury, where ſhe had retired, about 1292.

Edward I. born June 16, 1239: married Eleanor, princeſs of Caſtile, 1253; ſucceeded to the crown, November 16, 1272; wounded in the Holy Land with a poiſoned dagger; recovered, and landed in England, July 25, 1274; crowned at Weſtminſter, Auguſt 19 following, with his queen; went to France, and did homage to the French king, 1279; reduced the Welch princes, 1282; Eleanor, his queen, died of a fever, on her journey to Scotland, at Horneby, in Lincolnſhire, 1296, and was conveyed to Weſtminſter (when elegant ſtone croſſes were erected at each place where the corpſe reſted); married Margaret, ſiſter to the king of France, September 12, 1299; conquered Scotland, 1299, and brought to England their coronation chair, &c. died of a flux at Burch upon the Sands, in Cumberland, July 7, 1307; was buried at Weſtminſter; and, on May 2 1774, ſome antiquarians, by conſent of the chapter, examined his tomb, when they found his corpſe unconſumed, though buried 466 years. He was ſucceeded by his 4th ſon,

Edward II. born at Caernarvon, in Wales, April 25, 1284. He was the firſt king of England's eldeſt ſon that had the title of Prince of Wales, which he received in 1300. He aſcended the throne July 7, 1307; married Iſabel, daughter of the French king, 1308; obliged, by the barons, to inveſt the government of the kingdom in 21 perſons, March 16, 1310; went on a pilgrimage to Boulogne, December 13, 1313; declared his queen and all her adherents enemies to the kingdom, 1325; dethroned, January 13, 1327; was ſucceeded by his eldeſt ſon, Edward III. and murdered at Berkely-caſtle, September 21 following. He was buried at Glouceſter.

Edward III. was born at Windſor, November 15, 1312; ſucceeded to the crown, January 10, 1327; crowned at Weſtminſter, February 1 following: married Philippa, daughter of the earl of Hainault, January 24, 1327; claimed the crown of France, 1329; confined his mother Iſabel and cauſed her favourite Mortimer to be hanged, November 29, 1330; defeated the Scots at Halidown, 1333; invaded France, and pawned his crown and jewels for 50,000 florins, 1340; quartered the arms of England and France, 1341; made the firſt diſtinction between lords and commons, 1342; defeated the French at Creſſy, when 30,000 were ſlain, among whom was the king of Bohemia, 1346. The queen took the king of Scotland priſoner, and 20,000 Scots ſlain, the ſame year. Calais beſieged and taken, Auguſt 16, 1347; and St. Stephen's chapel, now the houſe of commons, built, 1347. The order of the Garter inſtituted, 1349; the French defeated at Poictiers; their king and prince taken and the king of Navarre impriſoned, 1356; the king of Scotland ranſomed for 100,000l. 1357; in which year Edward loſt his eldeſt ſon, Edward the Black Prince, of a conſumption. The king of France ranſomed for 300,000l. 1359. Four kings entertained at the lord mayor's feaſt, viz, England, France, Scotland, and Cyprus, 1364. Philippa, his queen, died at Windſor, Auguſt 16, 1369, and was buried at Weſtminſter. Edward died at Richmond, June 21, 1377, and was ſucceeded by his grandſon, Richard I. ſon to

Edward the Black Prince, who was born June 15, 1330; created duke of Cornwall, 1337; the firſt in England that bore the title of duke; created prince of Wales, 1344; brought the king of France priſoner to England, from the battle of Poictiers, September 19, 1356; went to Caſtile, 1367; died of a conſumption, June 8, 1376, and was buried at Canterbury.

John of Gaunt, duke of Lancaſter, fourth ſon of Edward III. was born 1340; married Blanch, daughter of the duke of Lancaſter, 1359; by whom he became poſſeſſed of that dukedom and title: ſhe died 1369; and, in 1372, he married the daughter of the king of Caſtile and Leon, and took that title. In 1396 he married a third wife, Catharine Swinford, from whom deſcended Henry VII. He died 1399; was buried in St. Paul's, London; and was ſucceeded by his ſon

Richard II. born at Bourdeaux, January 6, 1367; had two royal godfathers, the kings of Navarre and Majorca; made guardian of the kingdom, Auguſt 30, 1372; created prince of Wales, 1376; ſucceeded his grandfather, Edward III. June 21, 1377, when not ſeven years old. The rebellion of Wat Tyler and Jack Straw, 1378. Married Anne, ſiſter to the emperor of Germany, and king of Bohemia, January 1382, who died without iſſue, at Shene, and was buried in Weſtminſter-abbey, Auguſt 3, 1395. Married Iſabella, daughter to the king of France, 1396. He was taken priſoner by Henry, duke of Lancaſter, his couſin, and ſent to the Tower, September 1, 1399; reſigned his crown, September 29 following; and was ſucceeded by Henry IV. Richard was murdered in Pomfret-caſtle, January 1400, and buried at Langley, but removed to Weſtminſter.

Thomas, duke of Glouceſter, uncle to Richard II. was ſmothered, February 28, 1397.

Henry IV. duke of Lancaſter, grandſon of Edward III. was born 1367; married Mary the daughter of the earl of Hereford, who died 1394, before he obtained the crown; fought with the duke of Norfolk, 1397, and baniſhed; returned to England in arms againſt Richard II. who reſigned his crown; and Henry was crowned October 13, 1399, when he inſtituted the order of the Bath, and created 47 knights; conſpired againſt, January, 1400; defeated by the Welch, 1402; married a ſecond queen, Joan of Navarre, widow of the duke of Bretagne, 1403; who was crowned with great magnificence the 26th of January following, and died in 1437. In 1403 began the rebellion of the Percies, and ſuppreſſed July following. He died of an apoplexy, in Weſtminſter, March 20, 1413; was buried at Canterbury, and ſucceeded by his ſon

Henry V. who was born in 1388, and, when prince of Wales, was committed to priſon for affronting one of the judges, 1412; crowned at Weſtminſter April 9, 1413; claimed the crown of France, 1414; gained the victory of Agincourt, October 24, 1415; pledged his regalia for 20,000l. to puſh his conqueſts, 1416. The emperor Sigiſmund paid a viſit to Henry, and was inſtalled knight of the Garter, 1416. Henry invaded Normandy with an army of 26,600 men, 1417; declared regent, and married Catherine of France, June 3, 1420; who was crowned at Weſtminſter the February following; out-lived Henry; and was married afterwards to Owen Tudor, grandfather to Henry VII. Henry died of a pleuriſy, at Rouen, Auguſt 31, 1422, aged 34, was buried at Weſtminſter, and ſucceeded by

Henry VI. who was born at Windſor, December 6, 1421; aſcended the throne, Auguſt 31, 1422; proclaimed king of France the ſame year; crowned at Weſtminſter, November 6, 1429; crowned at Paris, December 17, 1430; married to Margaret, daughter of the duke of Anjou, April 12, 1445. Jack Cade's inſurrection, 1446. Henry taken priſoner at St. Alban's, 1455; but regained his liberty, 1461; and depoſed, March 5 following, by his fourth couſin, Edward IV. fled into Scotland, and taken priſoner in Lancaſhire, 1463; reſtored to his throne, 1470; taken priſoner again by Edward, April 11, 1471. Queen

Margaret

Margaret and her ſon taken priſoners at Tewkſbury, by Edward, May 4. The prince was killed in cold blood, May 21; and Henry murdered in the Tower, June 20 following, and buried at Chertſey, aged 49.

Humphrey, duke of Glouceſter, fourth ſon of Henry IV. was ſtrangled by order of his nephew, Henry VI. and buried at St. Alban's, 1447.

Edward IV. was born at Rouen, April 29, 1443; deſcended from the third ſon of Edward III. elected king, March 5, 1461; and, before his coronation, was obliged to take the field, and fight the battle of Towton, when 35,781 fell, and not one priſoner taken but the earl of Devonſhire, March 13; was crowned at Weſtminſter, June 28, 1461; ſet publicly with the judges in Weſtminſter-hall, 1464; married lady Elizabeth Grey, widow of Sir John Grey, of Groby, May 1, 1464, who was crowned the 26th following. Edward was taken priſoner by the Earl of Warwick, in Yorkſhire, from whence he was brought to London, with his legs tied under the horſe's belly, 1467; eſcaped, and was expelled the kingdom, 1470; returned, March 25, 1471, and reſtored, and cauſed his brother, the duke of Clarence, who had joined the earl of Warwick, to be drowned in a butt of Malmſey wine, 1478; died of an ague at Weſtminſter, April 9, 1483; and was buried at Windſor. He was ſucceeded by his infant ſon,

Edward V. who was born November 4, 1470; conveyed to the Tower, May 1483; depoſed, June 20 following, and, with the duke of York, his brother, ſmothered ſoon after by their uncle, who ſucceeded him.

Richard III. duke of Glouceſter, brother to Edward IV. was born 1453; took prince Edward, ſon of Henry VI. priſoner at Tewkſbury, and helped to murder him in cold blood, (whoſe widow he afterwards married,) 1471; drowned the duke of Clarence, his brother, in a butt of Malmſey wine, 1478; made protector of England, May 27, 1483; elected king, June 20, and crowned July 6 following; ditto at York, September 8; ſlain in battle, at Boſworth, Auguſt 22, 1485, aged 32; was buried at Leiceſter, and ſucceeded by

Henry VII. who was born 1455; landed at Milford-haven, 1485; defeated Richard III. in Boſworth-field, and was elected king 1485; crowned October 30, 1485; married Elizabeth, daughter of Edward IV. January 18, 1486, who was crowned the November following; defeated Lambert Simnel, the impoſtor, June 16, 1487; received of the French king, as a compromiſe for his claim on that crown, 186,250l. beſides 25,000 crowns yearly, 1492. Prince Arthur, his eldeſt ſon, died April 2, 1502. Queen Elizabeth died in childbed, February 11 following, and was buried at Weſtminſter. He married his daughter, Margaret, to James IV. of Scotland, 1504; died of a conſumption, at Richmond, April 22, 1509, aged 51; was buried at Weſtminſter, and ſucceeded by his ſon

Henry VIII. who was born June 28, 1491; married Catherine, Infanta of Spain, widow of his brother Arthur, June 3, 1509; crowned June 24 following; received the title of Defender of the Faith, 1521; ſtiled head of the church, 1531; divorced queen Catherine, and married Anne Bullen, May 23, 1533; Anne crowned June 1, 1533. He was excommunicated by pope Paul, Auguſt 30, 1535. Catherine, his firſt queen, died at Kimbolton, January 8, 1536, aged 50. He put Anne, his ſecond queen, to death, and married Jane Seymour, May 20, 1536, who died in childbed, October 12, 1537. He diſſolved the religious foundations in England, 1539; married Anne of Cleves, January 6, 1540; divorced her, July 10, 1540; married Catherine Howard, his fifth wife, Auguſt 8 following, and beheaded her on Tower-hill, with lady Rochford, February 12, 1542; married Catherine Par, his ſixth wife, July 12, 1543. He died of a fever and an ulcerated leg, at Weſtminſter, January 28, 1547; was buried at Windſor, and was ſucceeded by his only ſon,

Edward VI. who was born October 12, 1537; crowned, Sunday, February 20, 1547; died of a conſumption at Greenwich, July 6, 1553; was buried at Weſtminſter, and was ſucceeded, agreeable to his will, by his couſin,

Jane Gray, born 1537; proclaimed queen, July 9, 1553; depoſed ſoon after, and ſent to the Tower, where ſhe, with lord Dudley, her huſband, and her father, were beheaded, February 12, 1554, aged 17, by order of

Mary, who was born February 11, 1516; proclaimed, July 19, 1553, and crowned October 1 following; married Philip, of Spain, July 25, 1554; died of a dropſy, November 17, 1558; was buried at Weſtminſter, and ſucceeded by her half-ſiſter,

Elizabeth, who was born September 7, 1533; ſent priſoner to the Tower, 1554; began to reign November 17, 1558; crowned at Weſtminſter, January 15, 1559. Mary of Scots fled to England, May 16, 1568, and impriſoned in Tutbury caſtle, January 1569. Elizabeth relieved the Proteſtants in the Netherlands with about 200,000 crowns beſides ſtores, 1569. A marriage propoſed to the queen by the duke of Alenſon, 1571, but finally rejected, 1581. Beheaded Mary of Scots, at Fotheringhay-caſtle, in Northamptonſhire, February 8, 1587, aged 44. The Spaniſh armada deſtroyed, 1588. Tyrone's rebellion in Ireland, 1598. Eſſex, the queen's favourite, beheaded, February 25, 1602. The queen died at Richmond, March 24, 1603; was buried at Weſtminſter, and ſucceeded by the ſon of Mary, queen of Scots, then James VI. of Scotland.

James I. was born at Edinburgh, June 19, 1556; was crowned king of Scotland, July 22, 1567; married Ann, princeſs of Denmark, Auguſt 10, 1589; ſucceeded to the crown of England, March 24, 1603; firſt ſtiled king of Great Britain, 1604; arrived at London, May, 7 following; loſt his eldeſt ſon, Henry, prince of Wales, November 6, 1612, aged 18; married his daughter, Elizabeth, to the elector Palatine of the Rhine, 1612, from whom his preſent majeſty, George III. is deſcended; went to Scotland, March 4, 1617; returned, September 14, 1617; loſt his queen, March 3, 1619; died of an ague, March 27, 1625; was buried at Weſtminſter, and ſucceeded by

Charles I. who was born November 19, 1600; ſucceeded to the crown, March 27, 1625; married Henrietta daughter of Henry IV. of France, the ſame year; crowned, February 2, 1626; crowned at Edinburgh, 1633; went to Scotland, Auguſt 1641; returned, November 25 following; went to the houſe of Commons, and demanded the five members, January 1641-2; retired to York, March, 1642; raiſed his ſtandard at Nottingham, Auguſt 25 following; travelled in the diſguiſe of a ſervant, and put himſelf into the hands of the Scots, at Newark, May 5, 1646; ſold by the Scots for 200,000l. Auguſt 8 following; ſeized by Col. Joice, at Holmby, June 3, 1647; eſcaped from Hampton-Court, and retreated to the Iſle of Wight, July 29, 1648; cloſe confined in Hurſt caſtle, December 1 following; removed to Windſor-caſtle, December 23, to St. James's houſe, January 19, 1649; brought to trial the next day; condemned the 27th; beheaded at Whitehall the 30th, aged 48; and buried in St. George's chapel, Windſor. His queen, Henrietta, died in France, Auguſt 10, 1669.

Oliver Cromwell was born at Huntingdon, April 25, 1599; choſen member of parliament for Huntingdon, 1628; made a colonel, 1643; went over to Ireland with his army, July, 1649; returned, May, 1650; made Protector for life, December 12, 1653; was near being killed by falling from a coach-box, October, 1654; elected king, but refuſed the title, May 8, 1657; died at Whitehall, September 3, 1658, and ſucceeded by his ſon

Richard Cromwell, who was proclaimed Protector September 4, 1658; depoſed April 22, 1659; and died at Cheſhunt, in Hertfordſhire, July 12, 1712, aged 89.

Charles II. was born May 29, 1630; eſcaped from St. James's, April 23, 1648; landed in Scotland, 1650; crowned at Scone, January 1, 1651; defeated at the battle of Worceſter, 1651; landed at Dover, May 29, 1660,

1660, and reſtored to his throne; crowned, April 13, 1661; married Catherine, Infanta of Portugal, May 21, 1662; and accepted the city freedom, December 18, 1674; died, February 6, 1685, aged 54, of an apoplexy; was buried at Weſtminſter, and ſucceeded by his brother James. Catherine, his queen, died December 21, 1705.

James II. was born October 15, 1633; married Anne Hyde, September 1660, who died 1671; married the princeſs of Modena, November 21, 1673; ſucceeded to the throne, February 6, 1685. Monmouth, natural ſon to Charles II. landed in England, June 11, 1685; proclaimed king at Taunton, in Somerſetſhire, June 20 following; defeated, near Bridgewater, July 5; beheaded on Tower hill, July 15 following, aged 35. James's queen had a ſon born June 10, 1688; fled from his palace, December 12, 1688; was ſeized ſoon after at Feverſham, and brought back to Whitehall; left England, December 23, following; landed at Kinſale, in Ireland, March 12, 1689; returned to France, July, 1690; died at St. Germain's, Auguſt 6, 1701.

William III. prince of Orange, was born November 4, 1650: created Stadtholder, July 3, 1672; married the princeſs Mary, of England, November 4, 1677; landed at Torbay, in England, with an army, November 4, 1688; crowned, with his queen, April 11, 1689; landed at Carrickfergus, June 14, 1690, and defeated James II. at the battle of Boyne, July 1 following; plot laid for aſſaſſinating him, February, 1696; fell from his horſe, and broke his collar-bone, February 21, 1702; died March 8, aged 51; was buried April 12 following, and left his ſiſter-in law, Anne, his ſucceſſor to the crown.

Mary, William's queen, was born April 30, 1662; proclaimed (with her husband) queen regent of England, February 13, 1689; died of the ſmall pox, December 28, 1694, aged 32, and was buried at Weſtminſter.

Anne was born February 6, 1665; married to prince George, of Denmark, July 28, 1683, by whom ſhe had 13 children, all of whom died young. She came to the crown, March 1, 1702; crowned, April 23 following; loſt her ſon, George, duke of Glouceſter, by a fever, July 29, 1700, aged 11; loſt her huſband, who died of an aſthma and dropſy, October 28, 1708, aged 55. The queen died of an apoplexy, Auguſt 1, 1714, aged 49; was buried at Weſtminſter; and ſucceeded by

George I. elector of Hanover, duke of Brunſwick-Lunenburg, who was born May 28, 1660; created duke of Cambridge, &c. October 5, 1706. The princeſs Sophia, his queen, mother of George II. died June 8, 1714, aged 83. He was proclaimed, Auguſt 1, 1714; landed at Greenwich, September 18 following; died in his journey to Hanover, at Oſnaburg, Sunday, June 11, 1727, of a paralytic diſorder, aged 67, and was ſucceeded by his eldeſt ſon,

George II. who was born October 30, 1683; created prince of Wales, October 4, 1714; married the princeſs Wilhelmina Caroline Dorothea, of Brandenburgh-Anſpach, 1704; aſcended the throne, June 11, 1727; loſt his queen, of a mortification in her bowels, November 30, 1737, aged 54; ſuppreſſed a rebellion, 1745; died ſuddenly at Kenſington, October 25, 1760, aged 77, and was ſucceeded by his grandſon, George III

Frederick Lewis, prince of Wales, ſon of George II. was born January 20, 1706; arrived in England, December 1729; married Auguſta, princeſs of Saxe-Gotha, April 27, 1736; forbid the court the year following; died, March 20, 1751, aged 44. His princeſs died of a conſumption, February 8, 1772, aged 52.

George III. eldeſt ſon of Frederick, late prince of Wales, was born June 4, 1738; created prince of Wales 1751; ſucceeded his grandfather, October 25, 1760; proclaimed the next day; married Charlotte Sophia, princeſs of Mecklenburgh-Strelitz, September 8, 1761, who was born May 19, 1744; and both were crowned, September 22, 1761. They have a numerous progeny.

IRELAND.

SECTION I.

Situation, Boundaries, Extent, Climate, Soil, Productions, Rivers, Lakes, Mountains, Metals, Minerals, &c.

THIS iſland is ſituated between the 5th and 10th deg. of weſt long. and the 51ſt and 56th deg. north lat. It is bounded on the north by the Ducalidonian Sea, on the weſt by the Atlantic, and on the eaſt and ſouth by St. George's channel. It is about 300 miles in length, and 150 in breadth.

The climate of Ireland differs little from that of England, except that it is more moiſt, the ſeaſons, in general, being much wetter. The air is clear and wholeſome, except in thoſe parts where there are bogs and fenny grounds: of theſe, however, few now remain, the greater part having, within the preſent century, been drained, and the ground cultivated. The ſoil, in general, is very fruitful both in corn and graſs, eſpecially the latter; for which reaſon they breed a prodigious number of ſheep and black cattle. The productions of the boggy parts are various. Some are covered with graſs, ſome with reeds and ruſhes, and others with little ſhrubs, interſperſed with water. Some yield abundance of excellent turf; and others, called Bed Bogs, produce large firs, and other trees.

The productions of Ireland, with reſpect to animals and vegetables, are much the ſame as thoſe of England. But they have a much greater quantity of game, inſomuch that hares, pheaſants, &c. are ſold in the public markets.

The whole country is well watered with rivers; among which the moſt remarkable are, the Shannon, Barrow, Neor, Suir, Bann, Lee, Liffey and Boyne. The Shannon is a much larger river than any in England, but not navigable above 50 miles. It runs, from north to ſouth, upwards of 300 Engliſh miles, and, like all the reſt, abounds with great plenty of excellent fiſh, particularly ſalmon and pike.

Here are likewiſe a great number of lakes, or, as they are uſually called, loughs, many of which produce large quantities of excellent fiſh; and the great lake, called Neagh, is remarkable for its petrifying quality. But the bays, harbours, and creeks, which every where indent the coaſt, form the chief glory of Ireland, and render that country, beyond any other in Europe, the beſt fitted for foreign commerce.

Though Ireland cannot be called a mountainous country, yet there are ſeveral lofty chains, as well as ſingle mountains, in the kingdom. Three words in the Iriſh language expreſs the different degrees of their elevation, namely, Knock, Slieve, and Bein. The firſt ſignifies a low hill, unconnected with any other eminence. A Slieve marks a craggy high mountain, gradually aſcending, and continued in ſeveral ridges; and a Bein ſignifies a pinnacle, or mountain of the firſt magnitude, ending in a ſharp or abrupt precipice. Some of theſe mountains contain in their bowels beds of ruins, minerals, coals, quarries of ſtone, ſlate and marble, with veins of iron, lead, and copper.

Some of the foreſts produce excellent timber, particularly oak; which is eſteemed as good as any of the Engliſh growth, and equally ſerviceable for ſhip-building. The mines of Ireland are late diſcoveries. Some

contain

A NEW
and Accurate
MAP
of
IRELAND,
Drawn
from the best Authorities,
by Thos Bowen.
SCOTLAND
Orkney I.
Ulla
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Roundstone B.
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KILDARE
LEINSTER
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I. Gorumna
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Kilconera
QUEENS CO
Maryboro
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Wicklow
South Pt
Arran
Tempo
Rosrea
Ballinakill
Carlow
Enniskerry Pt
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Clare
Kilaloe
Leighlin
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Arklow
TIPPERARY
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Cashill
Tipperary
Fethard
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Loop Head
Shannon Mouth
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Cahir
Clonmel
Kilkenny
Ross
Wexford
Raven Pt
MUNSTER
Tarbert
Tralee
Waterford
Dungarvan
Youghall
Cahore
KERRY
Dingle
Killarney
Blackwater
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contain ſilver and lead; others copper and iron. Quarries of ſlate are found in many parts. The coals that are dug at Kilkenny emit very little ſmoak; it contains a chryſtalline ſtream which has no ſediment. Thoſe peculiarities, with the ſerenity of the air in that place, have given riſe to the well known proverb, "That "Kilkenny contains fire without ſmoak, water with-"out mud, and air without fog."

SECTION II.

Grand Diviſions of Ireland, with a Deſcription of each Diviſion.

IRELAND is divided into four Provinces, which we ſhall deſcribe in order.

ULSTER, the moſt northern province of Ireland is, in ſome parts, mountainous, but, in general, fertile, and well watered. It contains the following counties.

The county of DONEGAL is, in general, very fertile, and the air clear and wholeſome. The town of Donegal, which gives name to it, is a poor mean place; and the only thing in the whole county worthy of notice is the ſalt-water lake, or rather arm of the ſea, called Lough-Swilly, which extends 18 miles in length, and is about five miles broad at its mouth. A thouſand ſail might ride in it with ſafety. There are many villages and gentlemen's ſeats on its banks, but no town or trade of any conſequence.

The county of LONDONDERRY, or COLERAIN, is alſo tolerably fertile, being well watered by the river Bann.

Londonderry, or Derry, the capital of the county, and the ſee of a biſhop, ſtands at the bottom of Lough-Foyle. It has a good port, to which ſhips of the greateſt burthen have acceſs, and a conſiderable trade. It is well fortified; and along the banks of the river are ſeveral caſtles, and a fort. Great quantities of ſalmon, ſalted and barrelled, are exported from hence to foreign parts.

Colerain is a handſome walled town, ſituated near the mouth of the river Bann; and before the building of Londonderry, gave name to the county. Here is a valuable ſalmon fiſhery.

The county of ANTRIM conſiſts chiefly of bogs and marſhes; but thoſe parts which are cultivated are tolerably fertile.

Belfaſt is the moſt conſiderable town in all this part of Ireland, for extent, wealth, trade, and number of inhabitants. The harbour below the town is commodious, and has a good depth of water. A conſiderable trade is carried on from hence to Scotland, particularly to Glaſgow.

Carrickfergus is a populous town, walled and fortified, with an excellent harbour, and defended by a caſtle on a high rock. Here the aſſizes and quarter-ſeſſions are held, not only for the town, but the county at large.

In this county is one of the greateſt natural curioſities to be met with in Europe. It is called the Giant's Cauſeway, and is ſituated by the ſea-ſide, about eight miles from Colerain. It is compoſed of pillars all of angular ſhapes, from three ſides to eight. The eaſtern point, which joins to a rock, terminates in a perpendicular clift, formed by the upright ſides of the pillars, ſome of which are upwards of 33 feet in height. Each pillar conſiſts of ſeveral joints or ſtones, lying one upon another, from ſix inches to about a foot in thickneſs; and what is very ſurpriſing, ſome of theſe joints are ſo convex, that their prominence are nearly quarters of ſpheres, round each of which is a ledge, which holds them together with the greateſt firmneſs, every ſtone being concave on the other ſide, and fitting, in the exacteſt manner, the convexity of the upper part of that beneath it. The pillars are from one to two feet in diameter, and generally conſiſt of about forty joints.

The county of TYRONE contains many mountains, which are very barren; but the vallies and low grounds are fruitful both in corn and paſture.

The principal town in this county is Omagh, but it does not contain any thing worthy of particular notice.

The county of FERMANAGH is one of the moſt unwholeſome counties in this province, the greateſt part of it being taken up with bogs, and a large lake called Lough-Earne.

Inniſkillin, the capital of the county, is ſituated on an iſland, and being an important paſs, it is well fortified and garriſoned. It is chiefly remarkable for producing a regiment of its name in the war between king William and James II. in Ireland.

The county of CAVAN is very boggy, notwithſtanding which the air is far from being unhealthy. The town, which gives name to it, is very ſmall and inſignificant. But Kilmore, ſituated in this county, though a mean place, is a biſhop's ſee.

The county of MONAGHAN is very mountainous, woody, and marſhy; and the principal town, which gives name to it, doth not contain any thing remarkable.

The county of ARMAGH is, in general, very fertile, the ſoil being eſteemed the richeſt in Ireland; only there is a certain track in it called the Fews, which is hilly and barren.

Armagh, which gives name to the county, is the ſee of the primate of all Ireland.

Charlemont is a ſmall neat town, ſituated on the river Blackwater, and received its name from a fort or mount, built by Charles Blount, lord Montjoy.

Lugarn is pleaſantly ſituated on a gentle eminence, in a fertile and populous country, about two miles from, and commanding a proſpect of, Lough-Neagh, one of the largeſt lakes in the kingdom. This town, from the ſimilarity of its general figure, of the language, manners, and diſpoſitions of its inhabitants, to thoſe of the Engliſh, hath, for many years, acquired the name of Little England.

The county of DOWN is fertile, has a good air, and is populous.

Down-Patrick, the chief town of the county, is a biſhop's ſee, erected, about the end of the 5th century, by St. Patrick, Beſides the cathedral, here are ſeveral handſome public buildings, as the church, the ſeſſions houſe, two alms-houſes, two ſchools, a market-houſe, and barracks for a troop of horſe.

Newry ſtands near a river of the ſame name, over which it has two bridges. The town is a great thoroughfare, and in it a garriſon is conſtantly kept.

Killeleagh is a ſmall, but neat town, and had the honour of giving birth to that great naturaliſt and phyſician Sir Hans Sloane. Here is a handſome church, a caſtle, and barracks for a troop of dragoons.

Bangor has a conſiderable manufacture for linen yarn. Here are ſtill ſeen the ruins of a very ancient abbey.

LEINSTER is, in general, well cultivated, has a good air and ſoil, and abounds in corn, cattle, fiſh, and fowl. Its principal rivers are the Boyne, Barrow, Liffey, Nuer, Slane, and Mor. The counties into which this province is divided are as follow:

DUBLIN, or DEVELIN. This county, except a mountainous track in the ſouth part of it, is very populous and fertile, and abounds with all the neceſſaries of life. It far exceeds any other part of the kingdom, not only in populouſneſs, culture, trade, and wealth, but in the politeneſs and ingenuity of its inhabitants.

Dublin, the capital of this county, and of the whole kingdom, is, in magnitude, and the number of inhabitants, the ſecond city in the Britiſh dominions. It is built in the form of a ſquare, about two miles and a half long, and nearly as much in breadth. It is ſituated about ſeven miles from the ſea, at the bottom of a large and ſpacious bay, upon the river Liffey, which divides it almoſt into two equal parts, and is banked in thro' the principal part of the city, on both ſides, which form ſpacious quays for the convenience of loading and unloading veſſels. The increaſe of Dublin, within 30 years paſt, is incredible. In appearance it bears a great reſemblance to London. The houſes are of brick. The old ſtreets are narrow and mean, but many of the new ſtreets are as elegant as thoſe of the metropolis of Great

Great Britain. Sackville ſtreet, otherwiſe called the Mall, is particularly noble. The houſes are elegant, lofty, and uniformly built; and a gravel walk runs through the whole, at an equal diſtance from the ſides.

The river Liffey, though navigable for veſſels as far as the cuſtom-houſe, is but ſmall, when compared to the Thames at London. Over it are two handſome bridges of ſtone. A new ſtreet has been opened, leading from Eſſex bridge to the caſtle, where the lord lieutenant reſides. The new exchange is an elegant ſtructure of white ſtone, richly embelliſhed with ſemi-columns of the Corinthian order, a cupola, and other ornaments.

The parliament-houſe is a very elegant and ſubſtantial edifice. The portico, in particular, is perhaps, without parallel. The internal parts have alſo many beauties; and the manner in which the building is lighted has been much admired. Near it is Trinity-College, which extends about 300 feet, and is built of Portland ſtone, in the fineſt taſte. But one of the greateſt and moſt laudable undertakings this age can boaſt of is the building of a ſtone wall, about the breadth of a moderate ſtreet, a proportionable height, and three miles in length, to confine the channel of the bay, and to ſhelter veſſels in ſtormy weather.

Stevens-Green is a very extenſive ſquare, being one mile in circumference. It is partly laid out in gravel-walks, like St. James's Park, in which may be ſeen, in fine weather, a reſort of as much finery and gaiety as in any of the public places in England. Many of the houſes round the Green are very ſtately, but their beauties are greatly injured for want of uniformity. Near Stevens-Green are ſeveral new ſtreets, the buildings of which are exceeding elegant.

The linen-hall was erected at the public expence, and opened in the year 1728, for the reception of ſuch linen cloths as were brought to Dublin for ſale, for which there are convenient apartments. It is entirely under the direction of the truſtees for the encouragement of the linen manufactory of Ireland, who are compoſed of the lord-chancellor, the primate, the archbiſhop of Dublin, and the principal part of the nobility and gentry. This national inſtitution is productive of great advantages, by preventing many frauds, which otherwiſe would be committed in a capital branch of trade, by which many thouſands are employed, and the kingdom greatly enriched.

The barracks are pleaſantly ſituated on an eminence near the river. They conſiſt of four large courts, in which are generally quartered four battallions of foot, and one regiment of horſe: from hence the caſtle and city guards are relieved daily. Theſe barracks are ſaid to be the largeſt and moſt commodious of any in Europe.

Phœnix Park, which belongs to his majeſty, is very ſuperior to St. James's, being much more extenſive, and commanding the moſt delightful proſpects.

Dublin is the ſee of an archbiſhop, who has a handſome cathedral, and a chapter, conſiſting of a dean, chanter, chancellor, treaſurer, two archdeacons, and 22 prebendaries. Here is a ſociety, called the Dublin Society, which hath been of infinite benefit to the kingdom, by diſtributing premiums, to a very conſiderable amount yearly, for encouraging and promoting huſbandry, and other uſeful arts and manufactures.

The civil government of Dublin is by a lord-mayor, &c. the ſame as in London.

The proviſions of this city are, in general, exceeding good, and at a reaſonable price, more eſpecially liquors. The beſt ſpirits may be had at half the price they ſell for in London. Their wine is chiefly claret, the common price of which is 2s. per bottle; and the beſt the town affords may be had for 2s. 6d. But it is remarkable that, notwithſtanding the general conveniencies here, they are defective of proper accommodations for travellers, there not being a place of public entertainment in the city, that deſerves the name of an inn.

The rates of hackney coaches and chairs are fixed here, as in London, for the different diſtances, or ſet-downs, as they are called. But here are two ſorts of carriages, peculiar to the place. The one is called a noddy, which is nothing more than an old caſt-off one horſe chaiſe, with a kind of ſtool fixed in the front, juſt before the ſeat, on which the driver ſets juſt over the rump of the horſe, and drives you from one part of the town to another, at ſtated rates, for a ſet-down. This is neither a very ſafe or eaſy vehicle; but it is convenient for ſingle perſons, the fare not being much more than half that of a coach. The other is called a chaiſe marine, and is little leſs than a common car with one horſe. They are uſed not only in this city, but throughout the kingdom, for the conveyance of people on parties of pleaſure, and for the carriage of goods and merchandize of every kind, hay, ſtraw, corn, dung, turf, &c. When uſed for parties of pleaſure, a mat is laid on the level part for the commonalty; and for the genteeler ſort, a bed is put on it.

In Dublin there are two theatres; but ſince an excluſive patent has been obtained, performances are rarely exhibited at more than one of them at a time.

There is alſo the Rotunda, a place of polite reſort reſembling Ranelagh.

In this city are 18 pariſh churches, 8 chapels, 3 churches for French and 1 for Dutch Proteſtants, 7 preſbyterian meeting-houſes, one for methodiſts, 2 for quakers, and 16 Roman Catholic chapels. Here are likewiſe a royal hoſpital, like that at Chelſea, for invalids; a lying-in-hoſpital, with gardens, built and laid out in the fineſt taſte; an hoſpital for lunatics, erected by the famous dean Swift; and ſeveral other charitable and uſeful foundations.

LOUTH is the ſmalleſt county in the whole kingdom; but it has a pleaſant and healthy air, and is very fruitful in corn and graſs.

Drogheda, the chief town in this county, is ſituated near the mouth of the Boyne, about 20 miles from Dublin. It is divided into two parts by the ſaid river, over which there is a plain but convenient bridge.

WICKLOW is a very mountainous county, but it has a clear and wholeſome air; and the low lands are well cultivated. Between the mountains are ſome of thoſe deep dark vallies called glyns, which are very beautiful and pictureſque, together with ſome grand and aſtoniſhing water-falls. The moſt remarkable among the latter is that called the Fall of Powerſcourt, which from the peculiarity of its ſituation, its prodigious height, and ſingular beauty, well deſerves the notice of a traveller. The water falls at leaſt 300 feet, of which 200 are viſible on the plain below.

Wicklow, which gives name to the county, is remarkable for producing the beſt ale in the kingdom. It has barracks for three companies of foot, and a kind of caſtle and haven at the mouth of the river Leitrim; but moſt of its trade conſiſts in carrying proviſions in ſmall veſſels to Dublin.

The county of WEXFORD is ſituated to the ſouth of Wicklow. The air is good, but the ſoil various. In ſome places it is coarſe and poor, but in others it is fruitful both in corn and graſs.

Wexford, the capital of the county, is a large, ancient town, ſituated at the mouth of the Slane. Here is a very good harbour for veſſels of a conſiderable burthen, and barracks for two companies of foot, with a very ancient caſtle.

LONGFORD is a pleaſant county, and, in general, tolerably fertile; but ſome parts of it are very boggy.

Longford is the capital of the county, and, beſides a caſtle, has barracks for a troop of horſe.

EAST-MEATH is a very fertile county, abounding in corn, paſture, and herds of cattle. Anciently it had petty kings, by whom it was governed.

Trim, the county town, is ſituated on the Boyne; but hath not any thing remarkable, except barracks for a troop of horſe.

WEST-

A View of the City of DUBLIN, from Phœnix Park.

Engraved for BANKES'S *New & Complete System of* GEOGRAPHY. *Published by Bowles & Carver.*

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WEST-MEATH contains a great many rivers, lakes, and bogs; but where the land is free from theſe it is abundantly fertile.

Mullingar, the chief town, is ſmall, but very compact, and contains barracks for a troop of horſe.

Athlone is a tolerable good town, ſituated on the Shannon, and has a caſtle and garriſon.

KING'S-COUNTY (which takes its name from king Philip of Spain, huſband to queen Mary) was formerly full of bogs; but it is now well drained and cultivated.

Philip's-Town, or King's Town, the capital of the county, had formerly a caſtle; but it hath not at preſent any thing remarkable except barracks for a company of foot.

QUEEN'S-COUNTY was anciently full of bogs and woods; but it is now tolerably well encloſed, cultivated, and inhabited.

Maryborough or Queen's Town, the capital of the county, received its name from queen Mary, wife of Philip of Spain. It has barracks for a troop of horſe.

KILKENNY is one of the moſt healthful, pleaſant, and populous counties of Ireland. It is divided, as it were, into two parts, by the river Neor, or Nura, which has its ſource from thoſe lofty mountains called the Slieubloom, or Blandine-hills.

Kilkenny, the capital, took its name from the cell or church of Conic, who was an eminent hermit in this county. It is the ſeat of a biſhop, and is divided into the Engliſh and Iriſh towns. The former is by far the moſt conſiderable, the other being only a kind of ſuburbs. Both together make one of the largeſt, moſt wealthy, populous, and trading towns in the kingdom. Here are barracks for a troop of horſe and four companies of foot, and a well endowed free ſchool, called the college. Moſt of the ſtreets are paved with a very good ſort of black marble, (of which they have large quarries near the town,) which takes a fine poliſh, and is beautifully intermixed with white granite.

KILDARE county is ſituated to the ſouth of Eaſt Meath, and is, in general, very rich and fertile.

Kildare, the capital, is the ſee of a biſhop, who has precedence of all the Iriſh biſhops except that of Meath. In the neighbourhood is a plain, called the Curragh, admirably adapted for the purpoſe of racing.

CARLOW county is chiefly ſituated between the rivers Barrow and Slane. It enjoys a wholeſome air, and produces good corn and graſs.

Carlow, the county town, ſtands on the Barrow, and contains barracks for a troop of horſe, with an antient caſtle.

MUNSTER was a petty kingdom of itſelf, before the Engliſh invaded and conquered Ireland. The air is temperate and healthful. As to the ſoil, the plains and vallies, where properly cultivated, are fruitful both in corn and graſs; but the mountains are bleak and barren. Great numbers of cattle are fed here; and it is well ſupplied with fiſh, eſpecially cod and herrings. The counties contained in this province are as follow:

The county of CORK is the largeſt in the kingdom. Though a conſiderable part of it is boggy, mountainous, and barren, yet by the induſtry of the inhabitants, it is pretty well cultivated and improved, and contains ſeveral towns and harbours.

Cork is much the largeſt and moſt populous city in the kingdom, next to the capital. It is encompaſſed not only by walls, but alſo by the channel of the river Lee, over which there are ſeveral bridges. Cork is an epiſcopal ſee, and a city of great trade, ſituated 15 miles up the river. Though ſmaller veſſels can come up to the quay, yet the larger generally ride at a place called Paſſage. The city, together with its liberties, makes a county, and is governed by a mayor, aldermen, and ſheriffs. It has the moſt trade of any town in the kingdom, particularly in beef, butter, and tallow, of which great quantities are exported to foreign parts; and many ſhips, bound to the Weſt-Indies, put in here to victual. It had formerly ſeveral abbies, and has now many handſome public ſtructures, particularly a cathedral, cuſtom-houſe, and two gates, one on the north, and the other on the ſouth. Its churches are unexceptionably the neateſt, and the moſt elegantly finiſhed, of any in the kingdom.

Kinſale, ſituated at the mouth of the river Banor, is reckoned the third town in the kingdom, and only inferior to Cork in point of trade. The town is neat, well-built, and ſtrongly fortified with lines and outworks. Great quantities of proviſions are ſhipped off from hence to Flanders, Holland, France, and other foreign parts.

KERRY is, in general, a very mountainous, barren, and dreary county; but the ſoil of ſome particular ſpots is fruitful, eſpecially in corn and graſs.

Tralee, the county town, is ſituated on a bay of the ſame name; but doth not contain any thing that merits particular notice.

The greateſt curioſity in this county is the lake of Killarney, ſaid to be the moſt beautiful, perhaps, in the world. It is ſurrounded with one continued range of lofty mountains, rocks, and precipices, the immenſe declivities of which are covered with woods, intermixed with ever-greens, from nearly their tops down to the verge of the lake. In the neighbourhood of the lake are many ſeats and villas, and the remains of an old abbey, which are well deſerving the notice of a traveller.

LIMERICK county contains ſeveral lofty mountains, one of which, called Knock-Patrick, affords a very fine proſpect of the ſea, the Shannon, and the adjacent country.

Limerick, which gives name to the county, is the ſee of a biſhop, and a very ſtrong, handſome town. It ſtands upon the Shannon, which is navigable for ſhips of burden almoſt up to the city, though ſituated about 60 miles from its mouth. The city is divided into two parts, both of which are ſtrongly fortified with walls, caſtles, baſtions, and bulwarks, with draw-bridges upon the river. Here is a fine cathedral, and barracks for 22 companies of foot.

TIPPERARY is, in general, a very fertile county; but the northern part of it is mountainous, and the air bleak and unwholeſome.

Clonmell, the county town, is ſituated on the banks of the Suir. Here are barracks for two troops of horſe, and a good market. The town is walled, neat, and populous, and has a ſtrong jail and a court-houſe.

WATERFORD county is chiefly level; notwithſtanding which a great part of it is barren, and the air thick and unwholeſome.

The town of Waterford was firſt built by certain pirates of Norway, and hath been a biſhop's ſee ever ſince the year 1096. Till it was eclipſed by Cork, it was accounted the ſecond city in the kingdom for trade, wealth, and populouſneſs, being ſituated on a fine harbour, and defended on the eaſt ſide by Duncannon fort. Here is a fine cathedral. The city carries on a great trade, particularly with England; and ſhips of burden come up cloſe to its quay, which is one of the fineſt in Europe. The haven extends near eight miles, almoſt in a ſtrait line, and is but little encumbered with rocks or ſands. The city, and its liberties, make a diſtinct county. There is a citadel on the weſt ſide, and on the eaſt a block-houſe and ſtore-houſe.

CONNAUGHT is the moſt mountainous of the four provinces into which Ireland is divided. It is the leaſt cultivated and encloſed, the thinneſt of inhabitants, and thoſe the moſt ignorant and unpoliſhed. Grazing is the chief employment of the peaſants. Immenſe numbers of ſheep and bullocks are bred here, particularly in the counties of Clare and Galway. It alſo abounds in horſes, game, veniſon, honey, and hawks; and is well ſupplied with fiſh, having many convenient bays and creeks on the coaſt, and ſeve-

ral rivers, particularly the Shannon, Moy, Suck, Droſos, and Gyll. This province contains the following counties.

GALWAY is the largeſt county, next to Cork, in the whole kingdom; and, in general, very fertile in corn, paſture and cattle.

The city of Galway, which gives name to the county, is ſeated on a noble bay, having many harbours and roads on every ſide. It is a very neat, ſtrong, and flouriſhing city; and admirably ſituated for trade, not only to France and Spain, but alſo to the Weſt Indies. The buildings, both public and private, are generally of ſtone, and handſome. The harbour is about two miles from the city, to which the goods are brought in lighters. Here are barracks for two companies of foot. The city is walled, and was once the ſee of a biſhop, but is now within the archbiſhopric of Tuam. It carries on a very conſiderable herring-fiſhery, and is almoſt the only place upon this coaſt that has any foreign trade.

Tuam has been the ſee of an archbiſhop ever ſince the beginning of the 6th century.

CLARE county has a good air and ſoil, but contains very few towns. The moſt remarkable is Clare, ſo called from Richard and Thomas de Clare, younger ſons of the earl of Glouceſter, to whom Edward I. gave the county. At this place are barracks for two companies of foot.

Ennis is the county town, and by much the beſt in it, ſtanding about two miles from Dublin. It is ſituated on a lake formed by the Shannon, is a neat place, and has a good market.

Killaloe, a biſhop's ſee, with the privilege of a fair and market, ſtands on the Shannon. The dioceſe is very large, containing 100 pariſh churches, beſides chapels. A little to the ſouth of this town is a ridge of rocks, which run quite acroſs the river Shannon, and ſtop all navigation farther up.

SLIGO is a very mountainous county, and, in the plains and vallies, the air is very unwholeſome, owing to their being full of bogs. The ſoil, where it is free from lakes and fens, is tolerably good, and fit either for grazing or tillage.

Sligo, the capital, ſtands on a bay, to which it gives name, as well as the county. Though not large, it is pretty populous, and has an old caſtle; but its trade is inconſiderable; notwithſtanding its harbour is ſo deep that ſhips of 200 tons burthen can come up to the quay.

In the hill, or rather rock, of Corren, in this county, many ſtrange caves and receſſes have been diſcovered. They are called the Giants-houſes, and ſuppoſed to be the works of the Danes.

MAYO county abounds in lakes, and, on one ſide, is encloſed by the ſea. The air is moiſt and cold, eſpecially upon the mountains, where the ſoil is alſo poor and coarſe; but in the other parts there is good paſturage, with herds of cattle and deer.

Among the lakes and rivers in this county abounding with fiſh, particularly ſalmon, is Lough-Maſk, a lake 11 miles long and five broad. On the banks of this lake formerly lived the Galoglaſſes, a people deſcended from the Scots of the Weſtern Iſles, who uſed to fight in coats of mail with two-edged battle-axes.

Mayo, the county town, ſtands on the borders of Sligo, at the mouth of the river Moy. It was once a biſhop's ſee; but the biſhopric hath been ſome time annexed to Tuam.

Caſtlebar, the only parliamentary borough in the county, contains barracks for a troop of horſe, and ſtands on a little river, which falls into Lough-Conn.

ROSCOMMON is a very healthy county. The air is clear, and the ſoil yields plenty of graſs, with ſome corn. It is encloſed on the north by the Curlew Mountains, which are very high and ſteep.

Roſcommon, the county town, is a very inſignificant place.

Ballina-Sloe, a ſmall town in this county, is remarkable for having the largeſt beaſt or ſtock-fairs in the king's dominions. It is kept twice a year, and each time continues a week.

LEITRIM county is very mountainous, but noted for grazing vaſt herds of cattle.

The town, which gives name to the county, is ſituated near the Shannon. It was formerly a tolerable good town, but is now greatly decayed.

To the foregoing geographical deſcription of Ireland, we ſhall add the following table, exhibiting, at one view, the names of the reſpective counties, their length, breadth, chief towns, and the members they reſpectively ſend to parliament.

Provinces.	Counties.	Leng.	Bred.	Chief Towns.	Parlia. Mem.
Ulster,	Donegal	64	35	Donegal	12
	Londonderry	36	30	Londonderry	8
	Antrim	46	27	Carrickfergus	10
	Tyrone	60	35	Omagh	10
	Fermanagh	38	24	Inniſkillin	4
	Cavan	47	25	Cavan	6
	Monaghan	32	30	Monaghan	4
	Armagh	32	17	Armagh	6
	Down	44	30	Down Patrick	14
Leinster,	Dublin	26	15	Dublin	10
	Louth	25	13	Drogheda	10
	Wicklow	36	28	Wicklow	10
	Wexford	47	27	Wexford	18
	Longford	27	16	Longford	10
	Eaſt-Meath	32	25	Trim	14
	Weſt-Meath	35	20	Mullinger	10
	King's County	40	20	Philip's-town	6
	Queen's County	35	30	Maryborough	8
	Kilkenny	40	20	Kilkenny	16
	Kildare	37	23	Kildare	10
	Carlow	28	18	Carlow	6
Munster,	Cork	85	50	Cork	26
	Kerry	60	47	Tralee	8
	Limerick	40	27	Limerick	8
	Tipperary	60	36	Clonmell	8
	Waterford	46	24	Waterford	10
Connaught,	Galway	82	48	Galway	8
	Clare	40	38	Ennis	2
	Sligo	35	33	Sligo	4
	Mayo	58	44	Mayo	2
	Roſcommon	35	28	Roſcommon	8
	Leitrim	44	18	Leitrim	6

SECTION III.

Manners, Cuſtoms, Language, Religion, Government, &c. of the People of Ireland.

THE preſent deſcendants of the old Iriſh, or, as they are uſually termed, the Wild Iriſh, are generally repreſented as an ignorant and uncivilized ſort of people. To this may be attributed thoſe acts of ſavage cruelty ſo frequent in this country, as well as the irregularities attending all their public meetings, which generally end in bloodſhed. Many of their ſurnames have an O, or Mac, placed before them, which ſignify grandſon and ſon. Formerly the O was uſed by their chiefs only, or ſuch as piqued themſelves upon the antiquity of their families. Their muſic is the bagpipe, but their tunes are generally of a melancholy ſtrain. In the interior parts of the kingdom ſome of their old cuſtoms ſtill prevail, particularly their funeral howlings. They pay little reſpect to the Sabbath, the principal part of the day being conſigned to amuſements; and in the evening they aſſemble at public houſes, when they dance to the bagpipe, which generally terminates in riot and debauchery.

The common Iriſh, in their manner of living, ſeem to reſemble the ancient Britons, as deſcribed by Roman authors, or the preſent Indian inhabitants of America. Mean huts, or cabins, built of clay and ſtraw, partitioned in the middle by a wall of the ſame materials, ſerve the double purpoſes of accommodating the family,

mily, who live and ſleep promiſcuouſly, having their fires of turf in the middle of the floor, with an opening through the roof for a chimney; the other being occupied by a cow, or ſuch pieces of furniture as are not in immediate uſe.

Their wealth conſiſts of a cow, ſometimes a horſe, ſome poultry, and a ſpot for potatoes. Coarſe bread, potatoes, eggs, milk, and ſometimes fiſh, conſtitute their food: for however plentifully the fields may be ſtocked with cattle, they ſeldom taſte butcher's meat of any kind. Their children ſcarcely know the uſe of cloaths, and are not aſhamed to gaze upon ſtrangers, or make their appearance upon the roads in a ſtate of mere nakedneſs.

The gentry, and better ſort of the Iriſh nation in general, differ very little in language, dreſs, manners, and cuſtoms from thoſe of the ſame rank in Great Britain, and are generally repreſented as being very hoſpitable.

The language of the Iriſh is fundamentally the ſame with the Britiſh or Welch, and a dialect of the Celtic, which is made uſe of by the Scotch Highlanders, oppoſite the Iriſh coaſts. It is, however, in a great meaſure defaced by provincial alteration, but not ſo changed as to render the Iriſh, Welch, and Highlanders, unintelligible to each other. The native language is only ſpoken by the peaſants and lower ſort of people, thoſe of the capital and principal places uſing the Engliſh.

Ireland has produced many perſons, whoſe genius and learning would have done honour to any nation. Amongſt theſe might be enumerated, archbiſhop Uſher, Biſhop Berkeley, Mr. Boyle, Dr. Leland, ſeveral of the earls of Orrery, Sir Richard Steele, Dean Swift, Dean Parnel, Farquhar, Congreve, Sterne, and Goldſmith, &c. all of whom ſtand high in the republic of letters, and reflect a credit on their country.

The eſtabliſhed religion and eccleſiaſtical diſcipline, of Ireland, is the ſame with that of England. But among the bulk of the people, in the moſt uncultivated parts, Popery, and that too of the moſt abſurd, illiberal kind, is prevalent. The Iriſh Papiſts ſtill retain their nominal biſhops and dignitaries, who ſubſiſt on the voluntary contributions of their votaries. But even the blind ſubmiſſion of the latter to their clergy does not prevent Proteſtantiſm from making ſome progreſs there in towns and communities. Great efforts have been made ever ſince the time of James I. in erecting free ſchools for civilizing and converting the Iriſh Papiſts. The inſtitution of the incorporated ſociety for promoting Engliſh Proteſtant working ſchools, though of no older date than 1718, has been amazingly ſucceſsful, as have many inſtitutions of the ſame kind, in introducing induſtry and knowledge among the Iriſh; and no country can ſhew greater public-ſpirited efforts than have been made by the Iriſh government ſince that time for theſe purpoſes.

Beſides the Proteſtant and Popiſh religions, this kingdom contains at leaſt as many ſectaries as England, particularly preſbyterians, baptiſts, quakers, and methodiſts, who are all of them connived at and tolerated.

The government of the church is under four archbiſhops, viz. of Armagh, who is primate of all Ireland; of Dublin, who is ſtiled primate of Ireland; of Caſhell, and Tuam. Theſe archbiſhops have under them 20 ſuffragans, whoſe ſees are, in general, well endowed.

There is but one univerſity (if a college can be called ſuch) in the whole kingdom, which is that of Dublin. It was founded by queen Elizabeth, and at preſent conſiſts of a provoſt, ſeven ſenior, and thirteen junior fellows, and ſeventy ſcholars of the houſe, who have maintenance upon the foundation. The viſitors are the chancellor, vice-chancellor, and the archbiſhop of Dublin.

As Ireland is ſubordinate to England, the government of it is much the ſame. The king ſends a viceroy, who is ſtiled lord-lieutenant, and who comes as near the grandeur and dignity of a king as any viceroy in Chriſtendom. To aſſiſt him on all occaſions he has a privy-council, compoſed of the officers of ſtate, and ſuch others as his majeſty is pleaſed to appoint The parliament is convened, prorogued, and diſſolved, at the pleaſure of the king. During former reigns the ſame parliament continued till the death of the king; but by a late act a new one is to be choſen every eight years. The laws made by the parliament here are ſent to England for the royal approbation; when, if approved of by his majeſty and council, they paſs the Great Seal of England, and are returned.

The ſeveral orders and degrees of the people and nobility are much the ſame here as in England; as are alſo the courts of juſtice, the terms and manner of proceeding, aſſizes, juſtices of the peace, &c.

The new order of St. Patrick was inſtituted Feb. 5; and the inſtallation of the firſt knights was performed on the 17th of March, 1783. It conſiſts of the ſovereign, and 15 other knights companions. The knights are inſtalled in the cathedral of St. Patrick, Dublin. The badge is three crowns united together on a croſs, with the motto round, *Quis ſeparabit?* 1783, faſtened by an Iriſh harp to the crown imperial.

With reſpect to the commerce of Ireland, her chief exports conſiſt of linen-cloth, yarn, lawn, and cambricks, which are encouraged by the Engliſh government. Wool and bay yarn are allowed by law to be exported to England only; but great quantities of both are ſmuggled into other countries. The other exports are horſes, black-cattle, beef, pork, green hides, ſome tanned leather, dried calf ſkins, tallow, butter, candles, cheeſe, ox and cow horns, ox-hair, horſe-hair, herrings, dried fiſh, rabbit-ſkins, otter-ſkins, goat-ſkins, &c. The chief articles of their importation are wine, brandy, tobacco, ſpices, hops, coals, copper, block-tin, lead, Weſt-India commodities, mercery, grocery, and haberdaſhery goods.

The coins uſed here are the ſame with thoſe of England, (the Iriſh having no mint;) but they differ in their denomination, an Engliſh ſhilling paſſing for thirteen-pence, a guinea for 1l. 2s. 9d. and ſo of the other coin in proportion.

The principal matters relative to the Hiſtory of Ireland have been already noticed in that of England. We ſhall therefore only preſerve a few particulars relative to the origin of its inhabitants. Setting aſide the ridiculous legends and fables of the Iriſh, with reſpect to their antiquity, it ſeems highly reaſonable to conclude that the country was firſt peopled from Britain. There is no great reaſon to believe, that it was ever conquered by the Romans, notwithſtanding what hath been alledged to the contrary. Towards the decline of the Roman empire a colony of Scots began to make a great figure in Ireland, whence it acquired the name of Scotia. This colony is ſuppoſed to have come originally from Spain. The iſland was afterwards harraſſed by the Norwegians and Saxons; but never entirely ſubdued till Henry II. king of England, made himſelf maſter of it. It hath been ever ſince ſubject to the kings of England, who were only ſtiled lords of Ireland, till the title of king was beſtowed on Henry VIII. by the ſtates of the realm in parliament aſſembled.

MINOR ISLANDS,

SURROUNDING AND APPERTAINING TO GREAT BRITAIN.

THE Iſland of ANGLESEY is the moſt weſtern county of North Wales. It is 24 miles long, 14 broad, and ſends one member to parliament. The river Meni ſeparates it from Caernarvonſhire; and on every ſide it is ſurrounded by the ſea. It abounds in corn, cattle, fiſh, fowls, &c. produces mill-ſtones, grind-ſtones, aſbetos or mountain flax, copper-ore, ſtony oker, white clay, &c.

Beaumaris,

Beaumaris, 242 miles from London, a handſome well built town, on the eaſt ſide of the iſland, has a good harbour for ſhips, a very handſome church with ſome fine monuments of the Bulkeley family, and the Knights Templars. It was formerly fortified with a ſtrong caſtle built by Edward I. the ruins of which ſtill remain.

Holy-Head, 28 miles from Beaumaris, and 244 from London, is the ſtation for the packet boat to Ireland, being the neareſt land to Dublin. It is the moſt weſtern point of Angleſey, but is a little iſland of itſelf, and has a ſmall village, called, in Welch, Caer-Gybi, conſiſting of a heap of ſtraggling houſes built on rocks; but ſeveral of them have very comfortable accommodations for paſſengers, both with regard to lodging and diet. The church was formerly collegiate, and founded by one Kecius a hermit, about the year 650. The walls of the church are the remains of a Britiſh fortification, built about the year 450, by Caſwallon Lawhire, Lord of Angleſey.

The Iſle of WIGHT is reckoned a part of Hampſhire, though it is near 6 miles from the Main Land. It is 22 miles long, 12 broad, and is divided into 30 pariſhes. The air is pure and healthful, and the ſoil ſo rich, as to produce corn enough in one year to ſerve it ſeven. Through the middle of the iſland runs a ridge of lofty hills, which not only afford plentiful paſture, but a delightful proſpect of the ſea. The vales below conſiſt of meadow and corn-fields; nor is the coaſt deſtitute of natural curioſities; and here is excellent fiſh of various kinds. The extremities of the coaſt, on the ſouth and weſt ſides, are very rocky; and weſtward, not far from the ſhore, are thoſe rocks called the Needles, from their ſharpneſs. Farther to the ſouthward are the Shingles; at both which places the iſland is inacceſſible, and where it is almoſt level, as it is towards the ſouth-eaſt, it is fortified by art.

Newport, the principal town in the iſland, is a very ancient borough, and a large populous place, greatly enriched by its plenty and commerce, which the inhabitants have not failed to improve: and as they are grown very polite, they have levelled and new pitched the town, poſted and paved it with broad ſtone, about five feet from the houſes, for foot paſſengers; for being the only market town, it is often very much crowded. Cowes river is navigable for barges to Newport quay, which extends itſelf round great part of the town, and renders their ſhipping goods from the ſtore-houſes very commodious. The ſtreets are regular and uniform, meeting at right angles. The corn, beaſt, and butter markets are kept in diſtinct ſquares, very large and commodious. The buildings are greatly improved, but neither grand or regular.

Cariſbrook, a ſmall village, about a mile from Newport, is famous for a caſtle, built about the time of the Norman conqueſt, which was the reſidence of the ancient lords of the iſland. It is now greatly decayed by time; but the intrenchment without the walls, the many curioſities within, and the extenſive proſpect it affords, render it one of the greateſt curioſities in the iſland. Here king Charles I. was confined till removed to Hurſt caſtle. Cowes is a remarkable port and harbour at the mouth of Newport river.

St. Helen's lies at the eaſt end of the iſland, 12 miles from Newport. It is only remarkable for its road, which is large enough to contain the whole navy of England.

The Iſlands of SCILLY have been always deemed part of Cornwall. They conſiſt of about 140 ſmall iſlands, 30 miles from the Land's End, the largeſt of which, called St. Mary's, is nine miles in circumference. It has a good harbour and a caſtle, ſtands high, and is more fruitful than the reſt. Several of theſe iſlands are overflowed at high water; ſome of them bear good corn; and others abound with rabbits, cranes, herons, &c. They formerly were rich in tin mines, but there are no veſtiges remaining. The Phœnicians, Carthaginians, and Romans, frequented theſe iſlands. They are ſituated in the middle, betwixt the Briſtol Channel on the north, and Engliſh Channel on the ſouth, ſo that it is no wonder they have proved the deſtruction of ſo many ſhips and lives. Here Sir Cloudeſly Shovel met his much lamented fate, October 22, 1707. Great pains were taken to fix the latitude, and aſſiſt the mariners to avoid theſe iſlands, by Dr. Halley.

The Iſle of MAN, in the Iriſh Sea, is 30 miles long, 8 broad, and contains 17 pariſhes. The ſoil is fertile, and the air good. Here is a biſhop, called the biſhop of Sodor and Man, but he has not a voice in the Britiſh parliament. The commodities are wool, hides, and tallow.

Caſtle Town is the metropolis, where the governor keeps his court, and where the courts of juſtice are held. The caſtle is built of marble, and ſurrounded with two broad walls and a moat, over which is a drawbridge; and adjoining to it, within the walls, is a ſmall tower, where ſtate priſoners were formerly confined.

Douglas, ſituated on the weſtern coaſt, is the moſt populous town, and has the beſt market in the iſland. It has increaſed in trade, and proportionally in buildings. The harbour is one of the beſt in the Britiſh dominions.

Peel, ſituated on the weſtern coaſt, is a place of conſiderable trade. Upon a ſmall iſland cloſe to the town is Peel-caſtle, one of the ſtrongeſt in the world, and has a garriſon in it. The iſland on which it ſtands is a ſtupendous rock, inacceſſible from all quarters but that of the town, from which it is ſeparated by a narrow ſtrait, fordable in low tides. Within one of the churches is a chapel appropriated to the uſe of the biſhop; and underneath the chapel is a dungeon, or priſon, for offenders, one of the moſt dreadful places of confinement that imagination can form. The caſtle is a magnificent ſtructure; and the proſpect of the ſea and the ſhips, which, by reaſon of the vaſt height, appear like buoys floating on the waves, fill the mind of the ſpectator with the utmoſt aſtoniſhment.

The Iſle of Man, though held by the Britiſh crown, was, till of late, no part of the kingdom of Great Britain; but was governed by its own laws and cuſtoms, under the hereditary dominion of a lord, who formerly had the title of king, and who, though he long ago waved that title, was to the laſt inveſted with regal rights and prerogatives. But, in the year 1765, for the further and more effectually preventing the miſchiefs ariſing to the revenue and commerce of Great Britain and Ireland, from the illicit and clandeſtine trade carried on to and from the Iſle of Man, it was thought expedient to veſt in the crown all rights, juriſdictions, and intereſts, in and over the ſaid iſland, and all its dependencies holden by the proprietor, the duke of Athol; who then ſurrendered the ſame, excepting only his landed property, and the patronage of the biſhopric of Sodor and Man, the temporalities of the ſame when vacant, and all patronages and eccleſiaſtical benefices. Upon this annexation of the iſland, the ſum of 70,000l. was paid as full compenſation to the proprietor, according to his own propoſals to the commiſſioners of the treaſury. This contract was executed by both parties under the authority of parliament, April 19, 1765. Before the ſouth promontory of Man is a little iſland called the Calf of Man. It is about three miles in circuit, and ſeparated from Man by a channel, about two furlongs broad.

The HEBRIDES, or WESTERN ISLES, are ſcattered in the Deucaledonian Sea, to the north-weſt of Scotland, of which kingdom they conſtitute a part, and are ſituated between 55 and 59 deg. of north lat. They are computed to exceed 300 in number, and contain about 50,000 inhabitants. The air is cold, the appearance dreary, and many parts mountainous, which produce heath, wild myrtle, graſs, &c. but other diſtricts, which

which are cultivated, and manured with ſea-weed, yield plentiful crops of oats and barley. Here are but very few ſhrubs or trees, but plenty of pot-herbs, roots, ſimples, and medicinal plants; ſome lead mines, marble, lime-ſtone, free-ſtone, iron, talc, cryſtals, and many curious pebbles. Fuel is ſcarce, the chief being peat. The horſes are ſmall, but ſtrong, hardy, and nimble. The black cattle are of a ſmall ſize, but good eating. The ſheep are prolific; but the lambs frequently become a prey to the eagle. All domeſtic animals, poultry, wild-fowl, ſea-fowl, birds of prey, &c. abound. The ſea produces whales, ſeals, and moſt other fiſh in great abundance.

The people inhabiting theſe iſlands are of the ſame race with thoſe who live in the Highlands of Scotland, ſpeak the ſame language, wear the ſame habit, and obſerve the ſame cuſtoms. They are, in general, ſtrong, vigorous, and healthy; their conſtitutions being ſteeled with labour, and preſerved by temperance.

The better ſort of the Highlanders live like their neighbours; but the common people are wretchedly lodged, in paltry cottages or cabins, built of looſe ſtones and mud, and thatched with ſtraw. Their partitions are no other than a kind of hurdle, plaiſtered with clay. They have neither glaſs in their windows, or any other chimney than a hole in the middle of the roof, through which the ſmoak finds its way. Immediately under this aperture is a hearth, made of ſtone, upon which they burn wood, peat, or turf, the ſmoak of which fills the whole houſe in ſuch a manner, that a ſtranger, unaccuſtomed to the annoyance, would be in danger of ſuffocation. Around the hearth, in cold weather, the family ſit or lie, and work or ſleep, as occaſion requires. At the farther end of the ſame houſe the cattle are ſtalled; and it is not at all uncommon to ſee the calves, the pigs, and the children, lying together promiſcuouſly. Theſe people are utter ſtrangers to cleanlineſs. They are extremely ſluttiſh in their houſes, and filthy in their perſons; and this impurity is, in all likelihood, one great cauſe of that inveterate itch with which they are ſo generally infeſted.

In particularizing the Hebrides, we ſhall begin with St. Kilda, which is only five miles in circumference, and ſituated in 58 deg. of north lat.

The whole Iſland is one hard rock, divided into four high mountains, thinly covered with black mould, except on the tops, where the ſoil is three feet deep. The hills are cloathed with ſhort graſs, which yields good paſturage to the horſes, cattle, and ſheep; and the vallies of arable land produce large crops of excellent barley. The whole iſland is naturally fenced with perpendicular rocks, except at one bay to the ſouth-eaſt, about half a mile broad, where there is generally ſuch a tumbling ſurf and raging ſea, that no veſſel can anchor with any ſecurity. The only landing-place is on the north ſide of this bay, and extremely hazardous; for it is with great difficulty that a boat can be brought to the ſide of a ſlippery rock, on which he that lands muſt jump with uncommon exertion. There is, moreover, a ſmall bay on the weſt ſide of the iſland, in which ſome veſſels take ſhelter when the wind is at ſouth, or blows from the north-eaſt: but the ſea is generally ſo impetuous all round, that it frequently removes fragments of rocks and ſtones of a prodigious weight.

The ſea-fowl, which are here very numerous, may be diſtinguiſhed into theſe different ſpecies: the guer-fowl, larger than a gooſe, of a black colour, red about the eyes, with ſhort wings, and a broad bill, lays a very large ſpotted egg, and hatches it on the bare rock; comes hither about the firſt of May, and departs about the middle of June. The Solan gooſe equals the common gooſe in ſize, and reſembles it in ſhape and colour, with this difference, that the tips of the wings are black, and the top of the head yellow: the bill is long, ſtrait, and crooked at the point; the legs are black and ſhort, and the bird is web-footed. It comes hither in March, builds its neſt among the rocks with graſs, lays its eggs, hatches its young, and, when they are fledged, retires in Auguſt or September.

The inhabitants of St. Kilda are originally deſcended from the people of the Harries, and adjacent iſles. Like theſe they ſpeak the Erſe language in purity, and profeſs the Chriſtian religion. They live together in a ſmall village, ſituated in a bottom among hills, and compoſed of low, wretched cottages, the thatch and roof being ſecured by ſtraw ropes, with ſtones hanging at the end of them. All the animals on the main land, including dogs, cats, and even wild-fowl, are ſpotted. Their arable land is divided into ten equal parts, and theſe again are ſubdivided, according to the number of families. They manure the land with a compoſt of turf aſhes, mixed with ſtraw and urine, and add to this the bones and entrails of the ſea-fowl. They plough with a ſmall crooked inſtrument, ſow their barley very thick, and reap an harveſt of twenty fold. The ſea-coaſt furniſhes them with plenty of cod, ling, mackarel, herring, and all the other ſpecies of fiſh common to the ſea. Here are likewiſe otters and ſeals; but their chief dependance, for food and profit, is upon the ſea-fowl, which they catch many different ways; but this employment ſubjects them to the moſt imminent dangers; for they are obliged to climb rocks, the very ſight of which, to a ſtranger, would fill him with horror.

Sixty miles to the weſtward of St. Kilda is the Lewis, or, Long Iſland, extending 100 miles in length from north to ſouth, and from 13 to 14 in breadth. It conſiſts of a great number of iſles and rocks, and is parted by the ſea into two diviſions, called Lewis and Harries; the former lying to the weſtward of the other.

There is a conſiderable number of inferior adjacent iſles and rocks, which are viſited every ſummer by the inhabitants of the Lewis, who go thither in queſt of fowls, eggs, down, quills, and feathers, as well as to ſheer or kill the ſheep that are kept here for paſture.

The Iſle of Harries, ſeparated by a channel from Lewis, extends about 24 miles in length, and, in ſome places, about ſix in breadth. The air and climate are the ſame with thoſe of Lewis. The face of the ground is rocky and mountainous, covered with graſs and heath. On the weſt ſide, however, the land is more flat and arable, producing (naturally) abundance of clover and daiſy, which, in the ſummer, perfume the air with an agreeable fragrance. The ſoil is dry and ſandy; but, when manured with ſea-weed, yields very great harveſts of oats, rye, and barley. There are divers freſh water lakes in this iſland, abounding with trout, eels, and ſalmon; the overplus of every lake being diſcharged into the ſea, by an agreeable ſerpentine river.

Among the larger iſlands of the Hebrides we rank the Iſle of Skie, ſo called from Skianach, which, in the Erſe dialect, ſignifies winged; becauſe the two promontories of Valerneſs and Trotterneſs, by which it is bounded on the north-weſt and north-eaſt, are ſuppoſed to reſemble wings. The iſland lies between the ſhire of Roſs and the weſtern part of Lewis, extending 40 miles in length, from north to ſouth; in ſome places 20, and in others 30, in breadth; the circumference of the whole amounting to about 100. This, too, is compoſed of many different iſlands and rocks. The iſland of Skie is divided between two proprietors; the ſouthern part belonging to the laird of Macleod; and the northern diſtrict, or barony of Trotterneſs, being the property of a Macdonald, whoſe anceſtor was Donald, king, or lord of the iſles, and chief of the numerous clan of Macdonalds, who are counted the moſt warlike of all the Highlanders. Skie is part of the ſhire of Inverneſs, and formerly belonged to the dioceſe of the iſles. On the ſouth it is parted from the main land by a channel, three leagues in breadth; though at the ferry of Glenelly it is ſo narrow, that a man may be heard calling for the boat, from one ſide

to the other. Skie is well provided with a variety of excellent bays and harbours, and is ſurrounded by inferior iſles. Soa-Brettil, to the ſouthward, is five miles in circumference, exhibiting a mixture of heath, wood, moraſs, and paſture ground. Oronſa, a peninſula at low water, may be about a mile in circuit, and is remarkably fertile. The Iſle of Paybay, more to the northward, two miles in compaſs, produces excellent paſture. Scalpa, in the ſame direction, is twice as large, generally mountainous, woody, and well watered with ſprings and rivulets. On the eaſt ſide of the iſland a ſtream, running down the face of a rock, petrifies into a white ſubſtance, of which the natives make excellent lime.

The ſmaller and leſs conſiderable iſlands containing little that is remarkable, do not merit deſcription. But the moſt celebrated of all the weſtern iſlands is Jona, likewiſe called St. Columb-kill, from St. Columba, who came hither from Ireland, and was here buried. The iſland ſtretches two miles in length from ſouth to north, in the neighbourhood of Mull, and is about a mile broad from eaſt to weſt. One end of it is rocky and barren; the other plain, arable, and fruitful. The iſle of Jurah, which is 20 miles in length, and ſeven broad, belongs to the Argyle family; and Iſla, to the weſt of Jurah, belongs to the Campbells of Shawfield. Gigay, part of the ſheriffdom of Argyle, ſtretching four miles in length, and one in breadth, yields good harveſts of oats and barley, and excellent paſturage for cattle.

The Iſle of Bute, extending ten miles in length, appears on the weſt ſide of Cowal, from whence it is ſeparated by a narrow channel. Part of it is rocky and barren; but, from the middle, ſouthwards, the ground is cultivated, and produces peaſe, oats, and barley.

Between the Iſles of Bute and Kintire, the Iſland of Arran preſents itſelf to the view. It is high and mountainous, affording good paſturage, and extending 24 miles from north to ſouth, but is ſo narrow that the breadth ſcarce amounts to ſeven.

The ORCADES, or ORKNEY ISLES, lying in the Caledonian Sea, 18 leagues from Shetland, between 58 and 60 deg. of lat. and in long. from London, between 1 deg. 30 min. and 2 deg. 50 min. are divided, on the ſouth, from Caithneſs, the moſt northern point of Scotland, by the Pentland, or Pictland Frith, from 12 to 16 miles in breadth. They are in number about 30; but not all inhabited, the greater part being ſmall holmes, that produce nothing but paſturage for ſheep and goats. The currents and tides flowing between the iſlands are extremely rapid; and in the neighbourhood of Swinna are two great whirlpools, called the Wells of Swinna, which are counted dangerous by mariners, eſpecially in a calm. When ſailors find themſelves ſucked into the vortex, they throw overboard a barrel, or ſome bulky ſubſtance, which ſmooths the vortex, until the veſſel hath paſſed, to be ſwept down to the bottom, and thrown up again at a conſiderable diſtance. When there is a breeze of wind, however, ſhips croſs them without fear or heſitation.

The principal Iſlands of SHETLAND are theſe; Mainland, Braſſa, the Skerries, Burray, Whalſey, Vuſt, Yell, Fiſlar, &c. Mainland, extending 60 miles in length, and 20 in breadth, is indented by a great number of bays, and abounds with moſſes, bogs, and mountains, ſo that it is more adapted for paſturage than corn: nevertheleſs, the low grounds, near the ſhore, produce oats and barley. On the eaſt ſide of the iſland ſtands the principal town, Lerwick, containing about 300 families. Towards the weſt is ſituated Scalloway, which, though very ſmall, is the ſeat of judicature; and here likewiſe the preſbytery of Shetland aſſemble. It was formerly ſecured by a caſtle, now fallen into decay, in which there was once a garriſon of Engliſh ſoldiers, ſent thither by Oliver Cromwell. The Iſland of Braſſa, ſituated to the eaſtward of Mainland, is about five miles long, and two in breadth; has ſome arable ground, and two churches; but is chiefly remarkable for its ſound, in which the great herring-fiſhery is carried on. The landlords here are conſiderable gainers by letting out their ground and houſes for ſhops to the Dutch and Hamburghers. The Skerries, Burray, Whalſey, and Vuſt, are inconſiderable iſlands, the largeſt and laſt not exceeding eight miles in length: but all of them are provided with churches; and in Vuſt there are three good harbours. Yell, in length, amounts to 16 miles, is indented like the figure of eight, has three churches, and ſeveral chapels; but the country is mooriſh and barren. Feſlar, or Fetlor, five miles in length, is remarkable for nothing but the ruins of ſome watch-towers, which the natives call Picts houſes. Theſe are from 20 to 30 feet high, 12 broad, and tapering to the top.

The natural hiſtory of the Orcades, and Shetland Iſlands is ſimilar to thoſe of the Hebrides, as are likewiſe the characters, cuſtoms, and manners of the inhabitants.

To the above we muſt add four iſlands in the Britiſh Channel, which, though they are ſituated nearer to the French than the Engliſh coaſt, are ſubject to England. Theſe are,

JERSEY, an iſland known to the Romans, and ſituated 18 miles weſt of Normandy. The north ſide is inacceſſible through lofty cliffs, but the ſouth is almoſt level with the water. The higher midland parts are well planted, particularly with apple-trees, from which great quantities of cyder are made. The vallies are fertile, and well cultivated; and the paſtures feed great quantities of cattle, ſheep, &c. The inhabitants apply themſelves, in times of peace, to the improvement of commerce, and more particularly to the manufacture of ſtockings, the produce of honey, which is here very exquiſite, &c. In war time they have, in general, a concern in privateering, for which the ſituation of the iſland is admirably adapted. Jerſey is about 12 miles in length, hath a healthy air, and contains about 20,000 inhabitants. The capital town, St. Helier, is handſome, and contains about 400 houſes. The language is French, corrupted by an intermixture of Engliſh words. The governor is appointed by the Britiſh crown; but the civil juriſdiction is inveſted in a bailiff and 12 jurats.

GUERNSEY, 13½ miles long, and near as much in breadth, contains 10 pariſhes, which have, however, only eight miniſters, four of the pariſhes being united; and Alderney and Sark, which are appendages, having one each. This iſland, though naturally finer than Jerſey, is neither ſo populous, or ſo well cultivated. The language is nearly the ſame as that of Jerſey. Much cyder is made here, but fuel is ſcarce in both the iſlands. The people, in war time, are fond of privateering. The only harbour is St. Peter le Port, which is guarded by two forts, one called the Old Caſtle, the other Caſtle Cornet.

Alderney, about eight miles in compaſs, is only ſeparated from the coaſt of Normandy by a narrow ſtrait, called the Race of Alderney. It is a very healthy place, and remarkable for a fine breed of ſmall cows.

Sark is ſtill leſſer than the former, has a fine air, and is fertile. The three laſt of theſe iſlands are computed to contain about 20,000 inhabitants; and all the four are part of the Norman patrimony, being the only remains of our antient conqueſt of France.

ISLANDS in the MEDITERRANEAN.

THE Iſlands of IVICA and FERMENTORA were called Pythuſæ by the Greeks, from the vaſt quantities of pines they produced. The former ſeparately

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was called Ebuſus, and the other Ophiuſa and Collubraria. They lie about 36 miles weſt of Cape St. Martin, on the coaſt of Spain. The former is about 40 miles long, and 22 broad, and very mountainous, but not unfruitful where cultivated. The commodities are ſalt and figs. The principal place is Ivica, a ſmall town, with a fort and harbour, and the reſidence of the governor who is ſubordinate to the viceroy of Majorca. Fermentora, ſix miles ſouth of Ivica, is ſmall, and, at preſent, uninhabited. Cabrera is another little iſland ſituated ſouth of Majorca. It takes its name from the multitude of goats found upon it; has a ſmall garriſon and caſtle to defend the entrance of the harbour, and is a receptacle for exiles.

Majorca, 60 miles in length, and 40 in breadth, is the neareſt of any of thoſe iſlands on the Spaniſh coaſt. It abounds in corn, cattle, horſes, wine, oil, honey, ſaffron, deer, rabbits, wild fowl, &c. and is plentifully ſupplied with fiſh. Here are four capes, viz. Pedra eaſt, Groſſer weſt, Salmas ſouth, and Termentor north. It has watch towers all round it. Towards the north and weſt it is mountainous, but has ſeveral good harbours, with plenty of water. The air is wholeſome, but very hot and dry in ſummer. A conſiderable body of horſe and foot is kept here for the defence of the iſland. The language of the better ſort is Spaniſh; but that of the common people is a medley of Spaniſh, Latin, Greek, and Arabic. The principal place in it is that from which it takes its name, viz.

Majorca, anciently Palma, which ſtands on the ſouth-weſt ſide of the iſland, on a bay betwixt two capes, and is a large and well-fortified town, the reſidence of the viceroy, the ſeat of a court of inquiſition and other courts, and alſo of a biſhop, who is ſuffragan to the archbiſhop of Valentia, and has a revenue of 20,000 ducats per annum. Here likewiſe is an univerſity, a ſtately cathedral, a great many churches, with ſeveral hoſpitals, handſome ſtreets, and ſquares. Of the laſt there is one called Born, where the bull-fights and other ſhews are exhibited. The inhabitants are computed at upwards of ten thouſand.

Minorca lies 33 miles eaſt-north-eaſt of Majorca. Its greateſt length, from eaſt to weſt, is 38 miles and its breadth 15. The air is moiſt, but never exceſſive cold or hot. Here are lead mines, plenty of fiſh, ſalt, fine marble, rabbits, ſheep, honey, wax, capers, oil, cotton, wine, ſome of which is excellent, fine acorns, opuntia, palm-trees, which, however, bear no fruit, myrtles, with a vaſt variety of petrified ſhells, and a great deal of cattle. The water is ſaid to be none of the beſt. The inhabitants, like the Spaniards, are too proud and lazy to cultivate the ground in a proper manner, and conſequently have but little corn. They have a natural turn to poetry, love muſic and dancing, and, like their anceſtors, are expert ſlingers. In 1756 the French got poſſeſſion of this iſland. At the concluſion of the war in 1763, it was reſtored to the Engliſh: but it was taken by the Spaniards laſt war, and is now become a Spaniſh iſland again.

Citadella, the capital, lying on the weſt coaſt, where the governor reſides, is a ſmall place, but well fortified, and chiefly inhabited by the Engliſh.

Port Mahon is one of the fineſt harbours in Europe, both for its capaciouſneſs and ſecurity from wind and enemies, being four miles long, and above half a mile in breadth. The town is ſmall, but has a briſk trade. Near it is St. Philip's caſtle, a ſquare fort of four baſtions, which has always a good garriſon.

Corsica, between the Gulph of Genoa and the Iſland of Sardinia, extends from 41 to 43 degrees of north latitude, and from nine to ten degrees of eaſt longitude.

The iſland being for the moſt part mountainous, woody, dry, and ſtony, has little arable land. Some of the low grounds and vallies, however, yield corn, wine, figs, almonds, cheſnuts, olives, and other fruits. Here is alſo a good breed of cattle and horſes; and the woods and foreſts abound with deer, and other game, together with honey and wax. There are alſo ſome ſalt-works and hot baths on the iſland, with cryſtals, iron, and allum.

The Iſland of Corſica will ever be famous for the noble ſtand its inhabitants made for their liberty againſt their Genoeſe tyrants; and afterwards againſt the baſe and ungenerous efforts of the French to enſlave them, though they were at length overpowered by numbers, and compelled to ſubmit. Paoli, who commanded them in the ſtruggle for freedom, was taken under the protection of the Britiſh court. In conſequence of this diſtinguiſhed tyranny and oppreſſion, Theodore, their king, took refuge in England, where he remained in a very impoveriſhed ſtate many years, and at length died at a private lodging in Soho, in the year 1757.

Baſtia, the capital, ſituated on the north-eaſt coaſt of the iſland, has a good harbour and caſtle, is pretty well fortified, and is the ſee of a biſhop.

San Fiorenzo, ſituated alſo on the northern ſide of the iſland, on a gulph to which it gives name, has a good haven, is fortified, and the reſidence of a biſhop. Boniface is a ſmall, but well peopled town, on the ſouthern coaſt of the iſland. Porto Vecchio is a little ſea-port town on the eaſtern coaſt. Corto, on the Golo, is an epiſcopal ſee, with a ſtrong caſtle and wall for its defence.

Ajazza is an epiſcopal ſee, a place of good trade, and well peopled.

The Iſland of Sardinia, which gives a royal title to the duke of Savoy, lies 150 miles weſt of Leghorn, is 160 miles in length, and 80 in breadth, has but an indifferent air, but a fruitful ſoil, and abounds in corn, wine, oil, fruit, cattle, game, buffalos, bears, and deer, (ſome of which have fine ſpotted ſkins) gold, ſilver, lead, iron, ſulphur, allum, &c. The only venomous creature is a kind of ſpider. The commodities, independant of the productions already mentioned, are coral, linen, ſilk, wool, hides, and cheeſe. The inhabitants are of a diſſolute and idle diſpoſition. The religion is Roman Catholic, and the language Spaniſh.

Cagliari, the capital, ſituated on the ſouth ſide of the iſland and on the declivity of a hill, is divided into high and low; the former being handſome and well-built, but the latter poor and unhealthy. The cathedral is magnificent; the archbiſhop and viceroy reſide here; the port is ſpacious, and defended by a battery and caſtle; and the town contains ſeveral convents.

The rivers Sacro and Tirſo, by an oppoſite courſe, cut Sardinia nearly into two equal parts or provinces: the one called Il Capo de Cagliari, and the other Il Capo de Saſſari, or Lugedori. There are many ports, gulphs, and bays in it, with ſeveral ſtrong towns, a great number of villages, three archbiſhoprics, and four biſhoprics. The clergy, both ſecular and regular, have great privileges, incomes, and immunities. The only univerſity is that of Cagliari.

About Sardinia lie many ſmaller iſlands, of which the principal are, St. Pietro, St. Antiocho, La Vacca, Il Toro, Roſſa, Bovara, Tavolata, Aſinaria, Serpentera, Tazzo, Carbonera, and Ogliaſtro. Aſinaria, the moſt conſiderable of theſe, by the antients ſtiled the great iſland of Hercules, is about 28 miles in compaſs, and lies about four miles from Cape Monte Falcone, and 15 north of the city of Saſſari.

Capri, or Caprea, is much taken notice of for the noble ruins on it. It is about four miles long, and one broad, and is ſituated at the entrance of the gulph of Naples, about three miles from the continent. This iſle was the reſidence of the emperor Auguſtus, for ſome time, who came here for his health and recreation. Tiberius, after him, made it a ſcene of the moſt infa-

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mous pleaſures. The principal ruins and remains of antiquity are at the extremity of the eaſtern promontory. What chiefly recommended this iſland to Tiberius was its temperate healthful air, being warm in winter, and cool in ſummer; and the nature of its coaſt, which is ſo very ſteep, that a ſmall number of men may defend it againſt a great army. The ſurface of the iſland was then cut into eaſy aſcents, adorned with the emperor's and other palaces, and planted with a variety of groves and gardens. The rocks alſo underneath were cut into highways, grottos, galleries, bagnios, and ſubterraneous retirements: but they were afterwards defaced or demoliſhed by the Romans. It contains about 1500 inhabitants, who are exempt from all taxes; and belongs to the province of Lovoro, in the kingdom of Naples. There are ſeveral ſprings of freſh water in it; and, in a delightful valley between the mountains at the two extremities, ſtands a city of the ſame name with the iſland, which is the ſee of a biſhop, whoſe revenue ariſes chiefly from the prodigious flights of quails that come thither at certain ſeaſons, particularly in March, when vaſt quantities of them are ſent to Naples and ſold very cheap. On this account, the biſhopric is ſometimes jocoſely ſtiled, the Biſhopric of Quails.

Ischia is a ſmall but pleaſant and fertile iſland, lying on the Neapolitan coaſt, about two miles from the Cape of Meſſina, and 25 from Naples. Moſt of it is ſurrounded with high, craggy, and inacceſſible rocks, which ſhelter it from the winds, and defend it from invaders. Some parts of it are rich and delightful, yielding all manner of delicious fruits, and excellent wines; but others are as diſmal and barren. It was antiently called Inarime; and much ſubject to earthquakes. There are ſeveral hot baths and medicinal waters in it, with a number of pleaſant towns and villages.

Sicily, the moſt conſiderable iſland of the Mediterranean, is divided from Italy by a narrow ſtrait, called the Faro of Meſſina. The tides here flow irregularly and violently. The rock antiently called Scylla, and now Capo Sciglio, is on the Calabrian ſide; and the whirlpool formerly named Charybdis, but now denominated Caloſara, lies not far from Meſſina.

In the firſt ſhock of the terrible earthquake, which involved this country in all the horrors of deſolation, in the year 1783, part of a rock, near Scylla, was detached from its foundation, and thrown with violence into the ſea. Fearful that ſucceeding earthquakes would be attended with the ſame dreadful conſequences, the inhabitants of Scylla, with their prince, took refuge in their boats, and retired to a ſmall beach ſurrounded by rocks. But thoſe unfortunate people found not the ſafety they ſought. A ſecond ſhock detached a mountain near Scylla, and much larger than Scylla itſelf, from its baſe, and precipitated it with ſuch violence into the ſea, as to raiſe a moſt tremendous wave, which firſt broke upon the Punto del Faw, in Sicily, and then inſtantly returning with a loud noiſe, daſhed the unfortunate prince, with more than 2000 of his ſubjects, into the ocean.

The air of Sicily is ſalubrious, and the ſoil ſo fertile, that it is ſtiled the granary of Italy. It produces abundance of oxen, wine, oil, fruits, ſugar, honey, ſaffron, wax, ſilk, &c. with ſome gold, ſilver, iron, allum, vitriol, ſalt-petre, and mineral ſalt. The mountains yield emeralds, jaſper, agate, porphyry, lapis lazuli, and a ſtone called catochite, of a greeniſh ſpeckled colour, which grows ſoft by the warmth of one's hand, ſticking to it like glue, and is an excellent antidote againſt the ſting of ſcorpions, and ſome other poiſonous inſects. A great deal of coral is found upon the coaſt, and plenty of excellent fiſh; among which are the peſce ſpada, or ſword-fiſh, and tunnies. Great quantities of ſilk, raw and manufactured, are exported from Meſſina, where a conſul from almoſt every nation in Europe reſides, to manage and protect the trade of his nation.

Here are ſeveral rivers, and good ſprings: but few of the rivers are navigable, having but a ſhort courſe, and deſcending precipitately from the mountains.

Of the mountains in this iſland the moſt noted is Mount Ætna, now called Monte Gibello, or Mongibello, a volcano, whoſe eruptions have often proved fatal to the neighbouring country. It is 70 miles in circuit, and ſo high that it harbours many wild beaſts. At the bottom are corn-fields and plantations of ſugar canes. Among the other mountains one of the moſt conſiderable is Mount St. Julian, near Palermo, antiently called Eryx, and vulgarly Trepani. The eruptions of Mount Ætna are generally preceded by an earthquake, which often does more damage than the eruptions.

Theſe people, with reſpect to their character, are far from appearing in a favourable light; being a perverſe race, and a mixture of Italians and Spaniards. They ſpeak chiefly Spaniſh, and follow the Spaniſh faſhions, particularly in wearing black.

The eſtabliſhed religion of the iſland is the Roman Catholic. The number of churches, convents, and religious foundations, is very great, and they are well endowed. There is a ſovereign tribunal, which judges in all eccleſiaſtical affairs, and admits of no appeal to the pope.

The police of Sicily is, perhaps, the moſt ſingular in the world. The banditti, who, in any other country, would have ſuffered the ſevere puniſhment due to their crimes, are, in Sicily, not only publicly protected, but univerſally feared and reſpected. Theſe wretches have taken poſſeſſion of the Val Demoni, in the eaſtern part of the iſland, where it has been found impoſſible to extirpate them from their ſecret and ſubterraneous retreats; and this circumſtance, together with their deſperate valour, and vindictive ſpirit, has induced the Prince of Villa Franca, from a motive of policy, to declare himſelf their protector and patron. They are the guides and protectors of travellers; and ſuch are their high notions of what they call their point of honour, that, however defective they are with regard to ſociety in general, they ever maintain the moſt unſhaken fidelity, wherever they have once profeſſed it. Whoever repoſes confidence in them may be ſecure of not finding it in the ſmalleſt inſtance abuſed; but, on the contrary, may wrap himſelf up in the certainty that his perſon will be protected from inſult or injury, and his property from impoſition or depredation by theſe faithful and reſolute adherents; all of whom are known to the other banditti of the iſland, who, from the ſame principle of honour, reſpect not only the perſons of their own worthy fraternity, but thoſe whom they eſcort. The generality of travellers hire a couple of theſe guards to accompany them in their journies, and, by this means, traverſe, with ſafety, the moſt dangerous ſituations in the iſland. Thoſe of this deſperate ſet who place themſelves in the ſervice of the Prince of Villa Franca are inveſted with his livery, yellow and green, with ſilver lace, and wear a badge of their order; which, if not very honourable, entitles them at leaſt to ſo much fear and reſpect, that the magiſtrates have been often obliged not only to protect, but even to pay them court, in order to be ſecure againſt their revengeful diſpoſition, which impels them to chaſtiſe with death whoever has given them juſt cauſe of provocation.

The mixture of vice and virtue obſervable in this ferocious fraternity is very remarkable. While they commit, with impunity, every crime which diſgraces humanity, their point of honour is obſerved in the minuteſt inſtances; and the promiſe of one of theſe banditti would be performed with as exact a punctuality as the bond of any other man. They frequently borrow money from the country people, who dare not refuſe their requeſts; but if they promiſe to return it, they will rather fulfil their engagement at the expence of the life and property of ſome unfortunate paſſenger, than fail in the honourable performance of what they have undertaken. Thoſe of them who have entered into the ſervice of ſociety, and attend as guards to travellers, carry arms, which

which they make ready for action, and place in a poſture ready either for attack or defence, in all ſuſpicious or dangerous places. They tax their landlord's bills according to their own pleaſure; and ſuch is the authority with which they either are inveſted, or which they aſſume, that they threaten, and would, perhaps, execute, inſtant death upon the hardy wretch who ſhould dare to attempt an impoſition upon the travellers under their protection.

The iſland is commonly divided into three parts or provinces, viz. Val di Demoni, Val di Noto, and Valdi Mazara.

Meſſina, a large well built city, with a ſpacious harbour, near the ſtrait to which it gives name, is one of the greateſt mart-towns in the Mediterranean, contains many noble edifices, is the ſee of an archbiſhop, and contends with Palermo for being the capital of the iſland. The cathedral is a large ſpacious building, very rich in plate, and finely adorned in the inſide. The other buildings moſt worthy notice are, the archbiſhop's palace, the general hoſpital, called La Loggio, the Lazaretto, and forts. At the annual fair, kept here in Auguſt, great quantities of foreign goods are expoſed to ſale. The city lies on a gentle declivity along the ſea, has large ſuburbs, and is well furniſhed with water by ſubterraneous aqueducts, and all kinds of proviſions, from ſea and land. The port is of an oblong oval form, well fortified, with a citadel, and other works; and ſo deep, that ſhips of 80 guns can come cloſe up to the quay. The city alſo is ſtrongly fortified, though not regularly. In its neighbourhood are ſome hot mineral waters, eſteemed very good againſt all rheumatic diſeaſes. The chief manufacture of this place is that of ſilks. Some of the inhabitants are alſo employed in fiſhing, cultivating vines and mulberry-trees, and breeding ſilk-worms.

The ravages of the fatal earthquakes of 1783 were ſeverely felt here. A range of magnificent buildings, in the form of a creſcent, which extended for the ſpace of an Italian mile, was, in ſome parts, totally ruined. In the lower parts of Meſſina moſt of the buildings were deſtroyed; and 700 of the unfortunate inhabitants were either carried off by the dreadful wave which came from the rock of Scylla, or buried in the ruins of their habitations.

Syracuſe, anciently a very noble city, is pretty well fortified, and has a port capable of receiving the largeſt veſſels, with a ſtrong caſtle, ſupplied with plenty of water by the fountain of Arethuſa, ſo famed among the ancients.

Palermo, anciently Panormus, is a large, rich, and well-built city, ſituated at the very bottom of a gulph, to which it gives name. It is an archiepiſcopal ſee. The vicerov's palace is a magnificent ſtructure, adorned with fine ſculptures, gardens, &c. and ſerves inſtead of a caſtle, ſtanding high, and being flanked with ſome lofty towers, and other works. There are many other fine public edifices, as the cathedral, ſeveral fountains, the city gate, which leads to the ſea ſide, the quay, mole, forts, convents, town-houſe, lombard-houſe, and univerſity. The quay is one of the fineſt walks about the city, being wide, of a great length, and planted with trees. The port is ſafe and commodious every where, except on the ſouth-weſt ſide, which is full of rocks, that riſe no higher than the ſurface of the ſea.

Off the north coaſts of Sicily, in the Tuſcan ſea, lie ſeveral ſmall iſlands, called the Lipari Iſlands. Lipari, the principal, enjoys a wholeſome air, and rich ſoil, producing corn, wine, and fruit, eſpecially figs and raiſins, in great plenty, together with ſulphur, allum, and bitumen. It hath alſo ſome excellent hot ſprings; and on the coaſts are caught a great variety of fine fiſh, with which it carries on a conſiderable commerce. The capital, called alſo Lipari, is ſtrong both by nature and art, well inhabited, and an epiſcopal ſee, under that of Meſſina. Stromboli, the moſt northern of theſe iſlands, is now conſidered as the great light-houſe of the Mediterranean Sea. The volcano riſes to a conſiderable height; and it is agreed that, in clear weather, it is diſcoverable at the diſtance of 25 leagues, and that, at night, its flames are to be ſeen much farther; ſo that its viſible horizon cannot be leſs than 500 miles. The ſmall iſlands of Levanzo, Maritima, and Favagnana, lie at the weſt end of Sicily, and both they and the Lipari Iſles are ſubject to the king of the Two Sicilies.

Malta, 60 miles ſouth of Cape Paſſaro in Sicily, is of an oval figure, 20 miles long, and 12 broad. The air is hot, but clear; and the whole iſland is of a white ſoft rock, covered to the depth of a foot with earth, which produces cotton, indigo, and a variety of fruits, roots, herbs, &c. but corn and ſalt are the principal commodities. It contains about 60,000 inhabitants, who ſpeak Italian in the towns, and a corrupt Arabic in the country.

The order of the knights of St. John of Jeruſalem took its riſe in the Holy Land in the 11th century. The knights maintained their ground in Syria, and the Holy Land, againſt all the efforts of the Turks, for the ſpace of two hundred years; but being at laſt compelled to quit them, they retired to Cyprus; and afterwards made themſelves maſters of the Iſland of Rhodes, which they alſo defended, for 200 years, againſt all the power of the infidels. At the expiration of that time they were compelled to reſign the iſland, with all its dependencies, to Solyman II. After ſeveral affecting viciſſitudes of fortune, the order at length obtained from the emperor Charles V. an aſylum for their ſcattered forces; and in the year 1530 took poſſeſſion of the iſlands of Malta and Gozzo. In theſe iſlands the order ſtill exiſts, and is diſtinguiſhed by the title of the knights of Malta.

The knights conſiſt of eight tongues or nations, the chief of which are French, Italian, Spaniards, Engliſh, and German. They have commanderies, or eſtates, in all, or moſt parts, of the Roman Catholic countries, and are ſaid to amount to about 3000. They ought all to be of ancient noble families; but ſometimes nobility is diſpenſed with, on account of perſonal merit, and ſuch are called *cavalieri di gratia*. Not only the grand-maſter, but the knights in general, are capable of being advanced to a cardinal's hat. According to the ſtatutes, no natural children, thoſe of great princes excepted, nor perſons under 18 years of age, can be admitted into the order: but the pope may diſpenſe with theſe qualifications; and the grand-maſter has an unlimited privilege to grant this favour to ſix perſons.

Valetta, the capital, is a handſome town, with an excellent harbour, and ſtrongly fortified. Here are a handſome palace for the grand maſter, ſeveral convents, nunneries, and churches, the principal of which is dedicated to St. John, a college of jeſuits, a large hoſpital, and a building where Turkiſh ſlaves are kept. Of the other towns, the moſt conſiderable are, Citta Vittorioſa, or Il Borgo Senglea, Malta, called alſo Medini, and Citta Vecchia, where the biſhop reſides, Bormola, Cittanuova, Cottonera, Forte di S. Thomaſſo, and Forte Roſſo.

The iſland of Gozzo is very fruitful, and has ſeveral good harbours, and ſtrong forts.

ISLANDS OF THE ADRIATIC, &c.

Lusiona, or Leſina, 75 miles north-eaſt of Naples, is about 70 miles long, and 16 broad. The ſhore is low, has two caſtles, and a Moſaic kind of decayed cauſeway. The reſt is inhabited by huſbandmen, who cultivate the moſt fertile part of the country, which, though mountainous and rocky, produces plenty of corn, wine, olives, ſaffron, honey, and fruits. Theſe live in towns and large villages, ſome of 100, ſome 500 families; and there is conſiderable gain from good fiſheries. Here are many fine churches, monaſteries, &c. The capital, of the ſame name, is a well built and populous city.

CORFU, or CORCYRA, near the mouth of the Adriatic, is about 120 miles in circumference, and a very important place to the Venetians, who have generally about 15 gallies, and other veſſels. The place is famous for ſalt, wine, olives, lemons, cyder, &c. Corfu, the principal city, has a metropolitan church of the Greeks. It is a handſome town, and well defended by an impregnable caſtle, called St. Ange.

CEPHALONIA is rather larger than Corfu, and very fruitful. The capital, called Cephalonia, is a biſhop's ſee. Argoliſto is the principal port, and the reſidence of the governor; and Aſſo is a ſtrong fortreſs.

ZANTE, 12 miles ſouth of Cephalonia, is 150 miles in circumference, mountainous, and ſubject to earthquakes. It has, however, plenty of wines, oil, corn, and fruit. Zante, the capital, is populous; and near Chiari, a ſea-port town, are two ſprings of clear water, which throw up pitch. South from Zante, on the Morea coaſt, lie two ſmall cluſters of iſlands, the one called Strophades, the other Strivali. Cerigo, formerly Cerhera, is a rocky barren iſland, 60 miles in circumference, between Candia and the Mare, and containing a town of the ſame name.

LEUCADIA, or St. MAURA, lies in the Ionian Sea, and is divided from the continent by a ſtrait not above 50 paces over, or more than four feet deep. The Carthaginians ſettled a colony here, and formed the ſtrait; for Leucadia was formerly a peninſula. Near the town of Leucas (a few remains of which are ſtill to be ſeen) ſtood the famed rock of Leucate, from which deſpairing lovers threw themſelves, as an effectual cure for love. The whole iſland is fruitful, and near 40 miles in circumference.

CANDIA, formerly Crete, is ſituated in the ſouth of the Archipelago. Candia, antiently the capital place, is now in ruins, and the harbour ſo ſpoiled as to admit only boats. The walls, however, which are yet ſtanding, are pretty ſtrong. It belongs to the Turks, who took it in 1669. The air is good, and the ſoil fertile. In the city of Candia the beglerbeg reſides, and in the town of Candia there is a baſhaw. Mount Ida, ſo famed in hiſtory, is only a barren, diſagreeable, ſharp-pointed eminence, ſituated in the middle of the iſland.

The CYCLADES are a number of iſlands of the Archipelago, diſpoſed in the form of a circle, as their name imports. We ſhall enumerate them, and attend to ſuch of them particularly as merit deſcription.

The iſland of Milo, or Melos, is 50 miles in circumference; and contains about 5000 inhabitants. It has a town of the ſame name in the eaſtern part of the iſland, with one of the largeſt and beſt harbours in the Mediterranean; which ſerves as a retreat for veſſels paſſing to or from the Levant. The iſland abounds in delicate fruits, excellent wines, and good cattle. It is remarkable for producing plume allum, and ſalt is ſo plentiful as ſcarcely to bear a price. It is governed by a cadi; and there are two biſhops, one of the Greek, and the other of the Latin church.

The cavern, at ſome diſtance from the harbour, has a very romantic appearance. It ſerves as a ſhelter for ſhepherds, who retire under it to dreſs their victuals; and is the porch to certain galleries, the purpoſe of which is difficult to determine, unleſs they are antient quarries, from which ſtone was formerly dug for building the town; but this ſtone is light, ſpongy, and bears all the marks of ſpeedy decay. The ſurrounding rocks are of the ſame nature; and the ſubterraneous fire is continually undermining them.

On the very edge of the ſea, about a mile from theſe quarries, is a grotto, plentifully ſupplied by a hot ſulphurous ſpring; the vapour of which makes the place a natural ſtove or ſweating-room, ſalutary in various diſorders: and for many ages the people have had recourſe to this bath for complaints that required the moſt active medicines, which derived their efficacy from the uſe of the waters. It was peculiarly good in eruptive diſorders, and is much frequented by the Greeks of the neighbouring iſlands on that account.

Argentiera is an iſland of the Grecian Archipelago, formerly known by the name of Cimolis, and which is ſtill, by the modern inhabitants, called Kimoli. The French navigators have named it Argentiera, from the ſilver mines diſcovered in it; but theſe are now ſhut up, and the natives deny all knowledge of ſuch metal being in the iſland, from an apprehenſion that the Turks might compel them to labour in the mines. It is a barren ſpot, deſtitute of all water but what can be ſaved in ciſterns, and has but one village in it.

There is not a more diſmal place in all the Levant than this iſland, which is covered with rocks, that ſcarcely ſuffer a few trees to grow; and in which the land exhibits no verdure. Some fields of barley and cotton are, indeed to be found round the village, which is only an aſſemblage of miſerable cottages, where the women, children, and cattle, all croud promiſcuouſly together. The dreſs of the women is inconceivably ridiculous, conſiſting of an enormous load of linen ſufficiently dirty! Their under petticoat is only their ſhort ſhift, embroidered with red, that leaves their legs expoſed; the thickneſs of which is eſteemed a principal article of female beauty. Thoſe to whom nature has denied this advantage endeavour to ſupply the deficiency by three or four pair of thick ſtockings. When the leg is ſo uniformly thick all the way, as to be truly perfect, according to their ſtandard, the ladies add a pair of half-boots of cut velvet, frequently decorated with ſmall ſilver buttons. The pirates, who infeſt the Archipelago, paſs their winter in Argentiera; and, by ſpending their money among the natives, conſole them for all their inconveniences.

An uſage is eſtabliſhed in this iſland, well known to Eaſt-India ſailors, of taking a wife for the term of a man's reſidence there. The iſſue of ſuch occaſional adventures are ſufficiently handſome to be diſtinguiſhed among the women, notwithſtanding the dreſs by which they diſfigure themſelves. The number of inhabitants is much diminiſhed of late years; and they now ſcarcely amount to two hundred.

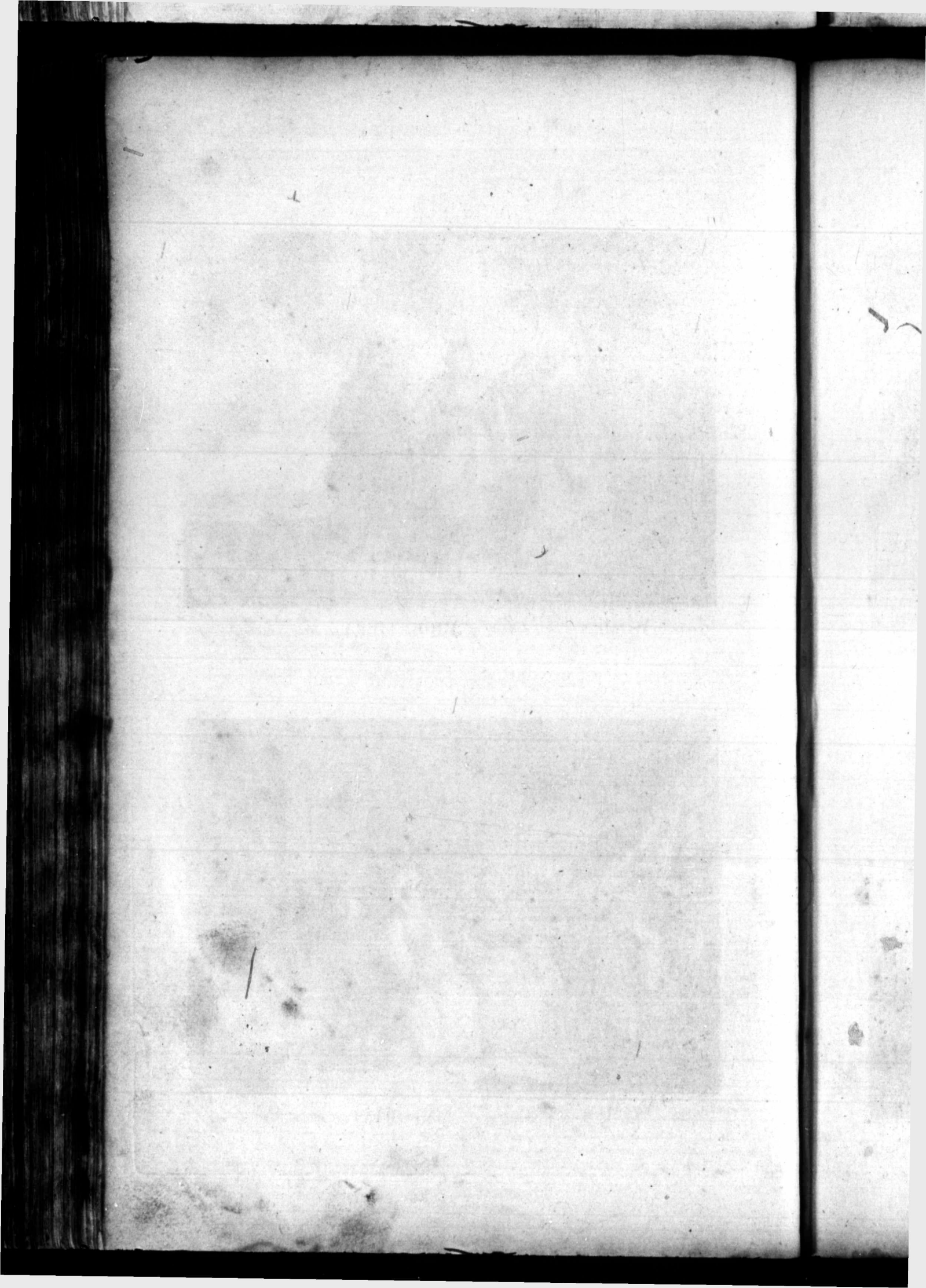
This iſland is celebrated for the earth known by the name of *Cimolia terra*; which, according to the antients, was efficacious in St. Anthony's fire, inflammations, and other external affections; being applied by way of cataplaſm. They alſo uſed it for bleaching of linen, and cleaning of cloaths. This earth, though long diſregarded, and ſuppoſed to be loſt, is, however, ſtill very plentiful in Argentiera, Siphanto, Milo, and other iſlands; and is a marle of a lax and friable texture, of a pure bright white colour, and ſoft to the touch. It is evidently the ſame ſubſtance that is found in the county of Cornwall, and which we call Steatites, or the ſoap-rock.

Siphanto is an iſland of the Grecian Archipelago. The air is ſo wholeſome here, that many of the inhabitants live to the age of 120. Their water, fruits, wild-fowl, and poultry, are excellent, but more eſpecially the grapes. It abounds with marble and granite; and is not only one of the moſt fertile, but one of the beſt cultivated of theſe iſlands. The inhabitants employ themſelves in raiſing olive trees and capers, and have very good ſilk. They trade in figs, wax, honey, onions, and ſtraw-hats, and their number may amount to about five thouſand.

The dreſs of the women of Siphanto is much leſs diſagreeable than that of ſome of the neighbouring iſlands, and bears a little reſemblance to the true Grecian habit. The plate exhibits the repreſentation of a woman attending the concerns of her young family. Hammocks are uſed for young children in many of the iſlands in the Archipelago; but the beds are higher, larger, and more aukward, in Siphanto, than in any other.

Grecian WOMEN *of the Island of* ARGENTIERA *in the Archipelago.*

Grecian WOMEN *of the Island of* SANTORINI *in the Archipelago.*



Dresses of the WOMEN *of* NIO, *one of the Grecian Islands in the Archipelago.*

The ROMECA DANCE, *by the People of the Isle of* PAROS, *in the Grecian Archipelago.*

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Engraved for BANKES's *New System of* GEOGRAPHY *Published by Royal Authority.*

Different DRESSES *of the Grecian Inhabitants of* NAXIA *an Island in the Archipelago.*

Woodin sculp.

Dress & Accoutrements of the SOLDIERS *in* ALBANIA *a Province of Turkey in Europe.*

25

other. The women plait their hair with woollen bands, and, turning up the ropes thus formed, faſten them on the crown of the head. When they travel into the country, they ſkreen their complexions from the heat of the ſun, by covering their faces with ſtripes of linen, faſtened under the chin.

The iſland of Paros is one of the moſt celebrated of the Cyclades. In its riches and population it found a commanding influence over the fate of its neighbours; and, by the courage of its inhabitants, its freedom and proſperity were long ſecured. The great Miltiades attacked them in vain; but the more fortunate Themiſtocles compelled them to ſubmit to the Athenian arms. It then fell ſucceſſively under the power of Mithridates, the Romans, and the Venetians, till the famous Barbaroſſa finally ſubjected it to the Turkiſh empire under Solyman II.

This iſland is now but thinly inhabited. In a former war with the Turks, the Ruſſians had very prudently fixed their head quarters here. The reſidence of the forces, of courſe, drove away a part of the inhabitants. Every where, indeed, we may view the ſad veſtiges of deſolation. In ſhort, the country is overſpread with the richeſt fragments.

The marble of Paros has been famous for many ages for its ſuperior excellence.

Of all the dances, which the modern Greeks practiſe in great variety, the moſt common is called the Romeca. This has a moſt ſurpriſing conformity with the dances of their anceſtors. The paſſion for dancing has always been the ſame among the Greeks; nor have misfortune and ſervitude been able to ſubdue their natural love for pleaſure; for in the gaieties of a feſtival they forget their miſery.

Antiparos is remarkable for a grotto, which is, perhaps, one of the greateſt curioſities in nature. It appears to be about 40 fathoms high, and 50 broad. The roof forms a pretty good arch, which every way entertains the eye with an infinite variety of figures, of a white tranſparent chryſtaline marble, repreſenting vegetables, pillars, and a ſuperb pyramid, all which appear to be natural.

Naxia, or Naxos, is a conſiderable iſland, 25 miles in length, and 88 in circumference. The whole is covered with orange, lemon, olive, cedar, citron, pomegranate, fig, and mulberry trees; and abounds with ſprings and brooks. The iſland has no good harbour; yet the inhabitants carry on a conſiderable trade in barley, wine, figs, cotton, ſilk, flax, cheeſe, ſalt, oil, and cattle. It is inhabited both by Greeks and Latins, who live in great dread of the Turks; ſo that when the meaneſt of their ſhips appear here, they always wear red caps like galley-ſlaves; but as ſoon as they are gone, they then put on their caps of velvet.

The female dreſs of this iſland has ſomething truly ridiculous in its appearance. The two wings of the black velvet, which they fix behind to their ſhoulders, are altogether prepoſterous. They wear a heavy ſtomacher, or breaſt-piece, of velvet, covered with embroidery and ſmall pearls. If we view them behind, we ſhall be again diſguſted to ſee round their loins, what, for want of a better name, we muſt be content to call a circular ſhelf, calculated to ſupport the ends of a kind of laced lappets hanging down from their ſhoulders; in which all we have to admire is a compoſition of abſurdity. They add to this romantic cumberous dreſs all the coquetry of behaviour they can aſſume. They paint, blacken their eye-brows and eye-laſhes, and cover their faces with patches, made of the leaves of a black ſhining talc, which they find in the iſland. But in the form of their patches they betray a fickleneſs beyond even what is ſhewn in our climate: they ſometimes cut them triangular, ſometimes like a ſtar; but a patch like a creſcent, or half-moon, placed between the eyes, is thought to be irreſiſtibly beautiful.

To finiſh the character of theſe fantaſtic ladies, it may be added, that they are ſo vain, that when they return out of the country to their town-houſes, they will have perhaps forty women in their train, ſome on aſſes, and ſome on foot; one of whom carries a napkin or two, a ſecond a petticoat, a third a pair of ſtockings, and ſo on: all which compoſes a very whimſical kind of proceſſion to ſtrangers.

The iſland of Nio, anciently called Ios, from being firſt planted by a colony of Ionians, and celebrated as the burial-place of Homer, is about 35 miles in circumference, is fertile in corn, but has very little wood or oil. A few years ago a Dutch officer, in the Ruſſian ſervice, who had occaſion to viſit this iſland, from finding ſome antique marbles, perſuaded himſelf that he had diſcovered the tomb of Homer; but as we have heard no more about it, there is reaſon to ſuppoſe he has renounced the pretenſion.

The dreſs of the women of Nio is far from being diſagreeable. They wear only a plain waiſtcoat, which ſhews their ſhape without any conſtraint; and their petticoats are ſhort enough to bring their modeſty in queſtion; a circumſtance which cannot be conſidered as an indication of the purity of their manners: but tho' they are not able to indulge much in the article of dreſs, they nevertheleſs do not violate the general rules of decency.

The regular manners and behaviour of theſe iſlanders, one among another, with their kind treatment of ſtrangers, revives an idea of the ſimplicity of the primitive ages. Men, women, and children, appear eager to do any good offices for travellers, without permitting their ſervants to ſhare in their diligence. This benevolent diſpoſition is without any mixture of impertinent curioſity or intereſt, but is the genuine remains of ancient hoſpitality. An ingenious gentleman, who was lately on the iſland, experienced the truth of this repreſentation. He could not prevail on any of them to accept the leaſt pecuniary recompence for their trouble. They only required an atteſtation of the welcome he received; their character, in this reſpect, ſeeming to be what theſe honeſt people chiefly prided themſelves in. It may be truly affirmed that hoſpitality is the point of honour in the eaſt, and that this virtue is conſtitutional in the Greeks; ſince we find it in modern, as well as in remote times, under their tyrannical government, as well as in their republican ages; under the Chriſtian and Mahometan faiths, as well as under Paganiſm. The Greeks inherit hoſpitality from their anceſtors; the Turks derive it from their religion.

Tina, anciently Tinos, is ſeventeen miles in length, and eight in breadth. The riches of this iſland conſiſt in ſilk. They make exceeding good ſilk ſtockings; but nothing can compare with the ſilk gloves knit here for the ladies. The fortreſs of Tinos ſtands upon a rock, and the town adjoining contains about 500 houſes.

The eaſy labour in which the maid-ſervants of the iſland of Tina are employed allows them to preſerve all their perſonal attractions. Their principal objects of attention are the nouriſhing of ſilk-worms, or winding the ſilk that they produce. There prevails here a general attention to neatneſs, that is very pleaſing to a traveller, becauſe it is a certain evidence of proſperity; and ſhews the facility with which they can procure the neceſſaries of life. The inhabitants of Tina find themſelves ſufficiently eaſy and ſatisfied, without being reduced to the deſire of appearing gaudy in their apparel.

The love of their country is predominant throughout all the Grecian iſlands, but no where more conſpicuous than among the natives of Tina. Great numbers of ſervants, born on this iſland, are to be found all over the Levant, who are diſtinguiſhed, by their dreſs, their good underſtanding, and by their fidelity; but who never loſe ſight of a deſire to return to their own country, to enjoy, with freedom, the acquiſitions of their induſtry. Policandro contains only one village: from its caſtle may be ſeen all the iſlands of the Archipelago. Lemnos, or Stalimene, lies on the north part of the Archipelago, and is almoſt a ſquare of 25 miles

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in length and breadth. Though it produces corn and wine, yet its principal riches arife from its mineral earth, called Terra Sigillata, and much uſed in medicine, from which the Turks receive a conſiderable revenue.

Negropont, the ancient Eubæa, is 90 miles long and 25 broad. Here the Turkiſh gallies lie. The tides on its coaſt are irregular, and the iſland is fertile, producing corn, wine, fruit, and cattle, in ſuch abundance, that all kinds of proviſion are extremely cheap.

Delos, only about eight miles in compaſs, is the center of the Cyclades. Mycone has a town of the ſame name, and its inhabitants are the beſt ſailors in the Archipelago. Andros, 120 miles in compaſs, is pleaſant, fertile, and well watered. Zia, is fruitful, and contains ſome antiquities. Joura is deſolate. Thermia populous.

The SPORADES, or SCATTERED ISLANDS, are as follow: Engia, 30 miles in circumference, is very fruitful. Colouri, anciently Salamis, 50 miles in circumference, contains three villages, one of which is called Colouri, and gives name to the iſland.

Scyro is 60 miles in circumference, and has a town of the ſame name. Stalimene, or Lemnos, is of a ſquare form, being about 25 miles on each ſide. Samondrachi, or Samothrace, near the coaſt of Romania, is 25 miles in circuit. Embro contains four villages, one bearing the name of the iſland. Theſſus is famous for wine and marble. Macroniſi, is barren and uninhabited. Syra has a town of the ſame name, with a good harbour. Sikino produces plenty of figs, and the beſt wheat in the Archipelago; and Serphanto abounds in iron and loadſtone. This latter was the place where the Romans baniſhed their malefactors.

Cerigo, or Cytherea, is about 50 miles in circumference, but rocky and mountainous, and chiefly remarkable for being, according to the account of the ancients, the favourite reſidence of Venus, and the native place of Helen, who was the occaſion of the ſiege of Troy.

Santorini is one of the ſouthernmoſt iſlands in the Archipelago. Though ſeemingly covered with pumice ſtones, yet, through the induſtry of the inhabitants, it produces barley and wine, with ſome wheat. Near this iſland another aroſe, of the ſame name, from the bottom of the ſea, in 1707. At the time it aroſe there was an earthquake, attended with the moſt dreadful lightning and thunder, and boilings of the ſea for ſeveral days; ſo that it was a mere volcano: but the burning ſoon ceaſed. It is about 200 feet above the ſea, and, at the time of its firſt emerging, it was about a mile broad, and five miles in circumference; but it has ſince increaſed. Several other iſlands, in the Archipelago, appear to have had the like original; but the ſea in their vicinity is ſo deep as not to be ſathomed.

SUPPLEMENT.

PURSUANT to our propoſal of preſenting to our readers the moſt authentic accounts we could procure of diſcoveries that might be made by navigators, or events that might occur in any part of the world, through the progreſs of our work to the cloſe of it, we ſubjoin the following particulars.

That chain of iſlands called the PALOS, or PELEW ISLANDS, ſituated in the weſt part of the Pacific Ocean, between the 5th and 9th degrees of north latitude, and between 130 and 136 degrees of eaſt longitude, tho' heretofore imperfectly noticed by ſome ſhips making the eaſtern paſſage from China, were never viſited by any Europeans, till the crew of the Antelope, captain Wilſon, a packet belonging to the Eaſt India Company, which was wrecked, in Auguſt 1783, landed there, and were the means of diſcovering to us, a new world, or ſet of human beings, who, though of an uncultivated nature, appeared to be greatly different from thoſe commonly termed ſavages, and evince principles of humanity and generoſity, that would reflect the higheſt honour on the moſt exalted of our race.

As the Antelope, which ſailed from Macao, the 20th of June, 1783, was proceeding on her voyage from China, ſhe unfortunately ſtruck on a rock in the night of the 9th of the following Auguſt.

The crew, waiting with anxious ſuſpence the approach of morning, in order to diſcover whether any land was near, deſcried, at the dawn of day, a ſmall iſland to the ſouthward, about three or four leagues diſtant: and ſoon after ſome other iſlands were ſeen to the eaſtward, which proved to be thoſe under conſideration.

Apprehenſions were naturally felt on account of the natives. Boats, however, were manned, loaded with ſuch articles as were deemed moſt neceſſary, and diſpatched from the ſhip under the direction of a principal officer, whoſe deſign was to obtain, if poſſible, a friendly intercourſe with the inhabitants, in caſe they ſhould find any. As the ſhip was expected every moment to go to pieces, thoſe who remained went immediately to work to make a raft, on which, when compleated, with the aſſiſtance of two boats, they all, except one man, who fell over-board before they ſet out, reached the ſhore, after encountering many difficulties.

In the courſe of two days from their landing, the crew obſerved ſome natives approaching, in canoes, from the points of the bay. This ſpread ſo great a conſternation, that all ran to their arms: but as there were only two canoes, the captain ordered the people out of ſight till farther notice.

A very ſingular circumſtance much facilitated the intercourſe between our countrymen and the natives. A Malay, who ſome time before was caſt away upon this iſland, had acquired the language; and it happened that one of the Antelope's men was a native of Bengal, and ſpoke the Maylay tongue, by which means, a ready communication was maintained on both ſides.

When the canoes which advanced ſlowly towards the ſhore, got within hearing, the native of Bengal ſpoke to them in the Maylay tongue; on which, tho' they did not ſeem to underſtand him, they ſtopped their canoes. Soon after, however, one of them ſpoke in the above language, aſking our people "who they "were? whether they were friends or enemies?" The native of Bengal, by the captain's direction, replied, "That they were diſtreſſed Engliſhmen, who had loſt "their ſhip on the reef, and that they were friends." On this they ſeemed to commune together; and ſoon after came out of their canoes, which captain Wilſon obſerving, he waded into the water to meet them; and after embracing them in a friendly manner, conducted them to his officers, and the others who had retired.

Theſe people were entirely naked. They were of a deep copper colour, and their ſkins ſoft and gloſſy, owing to the external uſe of cocoa nut oil. Each chief had a baſket of beetle nut, and a bamboo, finely poliſhed, and inlaid at each end, in which they carried a kind of coral, burnt to a lime, called *chinam*. It was obſerved that all their teeth were black, and that the beetle nut, of which they had always a quid in their mouths,

mouths, rendered the ſaliva red, which, together with their black teeth, gave their mouths a very diſguſting appearance. They were of a middling ſtature, ſtrait, and muſcular, their limbs well formed, and they had a majeſtic gait. Their hair was black, long, and rolled up behind cloſe to their heads, which appeared neat and becoming. They tatooed their legs a little above the ancles to the middle of their thighs, which gave them a deeper colour than the other parts of their bodies. None of them had any beards, except the youngeſt of the king's brothers; and it was, in courſe of time, obſerved, that they plucked out the hairs by the roots, and that very few only, who had ſtrong thick beards, cheriſhed and let them grow.

Whatever ſurprize the ſingularity of theſe natives might excite in the minds of our people, the natives were no leſs wrapt in admiration at their appearance. The whiteneſs of colour attracted them ſo much, that it was evident they had never before ſeen any Europeans. They were continually exclaiming, *weel, weel!* and *weel-a-treecy*; words which implied that they were perfectly pleaſed with their viſitors. They ſtroked their bodies and arms outſide the garments, ſeeming to doubt whether their coverings were not a part of their real body, being totally ignorant of the uſe of cloaths. However, the Malay informed them, that the Engliſh, living in a much colder climate than theirs, were obliged to have recourſe to artificial warmth, to ſhield them from the inclemency of the weather, and that, from cuſtom, they could not diſpenſe with it, in a degree, even in the warmeſt regions.

The hands of the Europeans next engaged their attention, and particularly the black veins of the wriſts. They probably imagined the whiteneſs of the hands and face to be artificial; and the blackneſs of the veins cauſed them to think, that it was a mode of tatooing; for they deſired to look at the top parts of the arms, to ſee if the whiteneſs was continued. After this they requeſted a farther view of the body, when ſome of the crew opened their boſoms, and told them that the other parts were nearly the ſame as that. The hair on the breaſts of the Europeans excited their aſtoniſhment, as they conſider ſuch incumbrance highly indelicate, and pluck it out wherever it is found.

The natives having in ſome degree ſatisfied their curioſity, began to expreſs apprehenſions that they had intruded too much; but the captain convinced them, by means of the Malay, that their fears were groundleſs.

As the natives expreſſed a deſire that captain Wilſon would ſend one of his people to Pelew, that the king might ſee what kind of beings white men were, the captain complied, and appointed his brother for that purpoſe, giving him a ſmall remnant of blue cloth, a canniſter of tea, another of ſugar-candy, and a jar of preſerved fruit, as a preſent for the king. The natives behaved in the moſt friendly manner to the Engliſh; and their monarch ſoon after paid them a viſit, with his ſon and brother. His majeſty was perfectly naked, and had no kind of ornament or mark of diſtinction, like his principal officers, who wore a bracelet of bone at their wriſts. He bore a hatchet on his ſhoulder, the head of which was made of iron, a circumſtance which ſurprized our people much, as all the other hatchets they had ſeen were of ſhell. The handle of it, which formed a ſharp angle, ſtuck cloſe to his ſhoulder, lying before and behind, and wanting no tying to keep it ſteady in walking.

His majeſty would not go into the tents. A fail was therefore ſpread for him, on which he ſat down, with his chief miniſter oppoſite, and his two brothers on each ſide; and the whole was encompaſſed by his attendants, who were numerous. He drank a cup of tea, but did not approve of the taſte. Captain Wilſon availed himſelf of this opportunity to obtain permiſſion from the king to build a veſſel, in order to convey the crew to ſome European ſettlement; and highly gratified him by cauſing a party of men to be drawn up, and fire three vollies. This occaſioned ſuch hooting and chattering, as equalled in noiſe the report of the pieces.

Captain Wilſon dreſſed the king in a ſilk coat and blue trowſers. He was extremely well made, but had loſt his noſe, whether in battle, or from a ſcrophulous diſeaſe, which is prevalent there, was not known.

Arra Kooker, one of the king's brothers, requeſted a white ſhirt, and as ſoon as it was given him, he put it on, in tranſports of joy, which he indicated by dancing and jumping, and in forming a humourous contraſt between his ſhirt and his ſkin. This prince had a great propenſity to mimicry, and often amuſed our people by taking off their manners, but with ſo much good nature, that no one could feel the leaſt offence. He entertained a great partiality for their Newfoundland dog, which he often fed; till at length the creature felt a partiality for him, and, at his appearance, would jump, bark, leap, and play a variety of tricks. Arra Kooker would often imitate him in the ſame mode of ſalutation, by barking, jumping, &c. which could not fail of exciting the riſible faculties. This prince was ſeemingly about forty years of age, ſhort in ſtature, but ſo plump and fat, that he was almoſt as broad as he was long.

After various ceremonies had paſſed, the captain preſented his majeſty with a ſcarlet coat; who then making ſigns to go on ſhore, jumped into the water, and ſwam to land.

When the captain, and ſeveral officers, reached Pelew, on a viſit to the king, they came into a large ſquare pavement, round which were ſeveral houſes, and was conducted into one that ſtood in the center of one of the ſides. Out of this houſe iſſued a number of women, who were waiting to ſee thoſe new beings the Engliſh. Thoſe our people were given to underſtand were the wives of ſome of the rupacks, or great officers of ſtate. They were rather fairer than the reſt of the women, had ſome little ornaments about them, and their faces and breaſts were rubbed over with turmeric.

The king, and one of his brothers, led his gueſts into this houſe; the women then returned, and received them with much joy, preſenting their company with cocoa nuts and ſweet drink, which all ſat down and partook of. The ladies alſo ſeated themſelves, and taking a parcel of leaves, began to make nets, an employment in which they paſs great part of their time. The king informed his gueſts that his houſe was to be their abode as long as they remained at Pelew, and that there they were to ſleep. After this he roſe up, previouſly apologizing to the captain for retiring, ſaying he was going to bathe.

Soon after a meſſage came to Raa Hook from the queen, requeſting that ſhe might ſee the Engliſh at her dwelling. They attended him thither, and obſerved immediately before it a rail, on which were ſome tame pigeons tied by the leg. This is a bird held in ſuch eſtimation in thoſe iſlands, that none but rupacks and their families are allowed to eat them.

As they approached, the queen opened her window, and ſpoke to Raa Hook, to deſire the Engliſh would ſit down on the pavement before her, which being complied with, a number of attendants brought out yams, cocoa nuts, and ſweet drink. While they were partaking of theſe, the queen aſked Raa Hook many queſtions about our people, of whom ſhe took very great notice, and wiſhed ſome of them would come cloſe to the window, and draw up their coat ſleeves, that ſhe might ſee the colour of their ſkins. After ſhe had viewed them attentively, and aſked, through Raa Hook, as many circumſtances reſpecting them as ſhe thought ſhe could with propriety obtrude, ſhe ſignified that ſhe would not longer treſpaſs on their time, by detaining them; ſo they roſe and took their leave.

Raa Hook now took them to his own houſe, where they were welcomed without any parade. His wife,

among other things, gave them a broiled pigeon, a delicacy that, as before obſerved, only falls to the ſhare of the dignified.

There the character of the prince appeared in a new and intereſting light: his children encompaſſed him, and climbing to his knee, fondly careſſed their father, while his ſupreme pleaſure appeared to be in rolling and toſſing them about. This domeſtic ſcene, however, ſo much occupied the minds of the captain and officers, that it was dark before they thought of retiring. Raa Hook begged they would diſpenſe with his attendance, and ordered the Malay to conduct them to their deſtined habitation, where they found ſome fiſh for ſupper, ſent by the king. Though the night proved tempeſtuous, their houſe was ſo well thatched that the rain could not penetrate.

The king, whoſe name was Abba Thulle, having ſignified to captain Wilſon his pleaſure of tendering to him the iſland where the Engliſh reſided, as a preſent, and informed him that they diſtinguiſhed it by the name of Oroolong, in order to announce poſſeſſion of it, the Britiſh pennant was hoiſted, and three vollies of ſmall arms fired. To this iſland the captain would have returned the day following, (the night he paſſed with the officers under the roof of the hoſpitable prince Raa Hook,) if the weather had not turned unfavourable. They therefore took a ramble farther into the country, where the lands appeared to be pretty well cultivated, and the villages full of inhabitants. They obſerved that the lower orders of the women were buſied in looking after the yam plantations, which were moſtly in ſwampy ground. Others they found employed in making baſkets and mats, and in nurſing their children.

The employment of the men ſeemed to be that of gathering cocoa nuts, felling trees, and making ſpears and darts, the chief warlike inſtruments of the Pelewans. In the uſe of theſe they were remarkably expert, as they afforded abundant proof in divers engagements with the ſubjects of a neighbouring prince; in which they were aided by a ſelect party of the Engliſh at the requeſt of Abba Thulle, and obtained a compleat victory by dint of the ſuperior force of our fire arms.

As the Engliſh had been uſeful in their aſſiſtance againſt the enemy, the king was deliberating what preſent or compenſation he ſhould make to the Engliſh leader. After a while he ſent him, as a particular mark of his gratitude and eſteem, two lovely young women. Captain Wilſon, who was a grave ſober man, and had his ſon with him, a youth about ſeventeen, was particularly embarraſſed. He, however, thought proper to ſend them back again. The king of Pelew was exceedingly unhappy that his preſent was not accepted, and concluded, in his own mind, that their being rejected was owing to their not being ſufficiently young. To obviate this objection, after ſome ſtrong parental ſtruggles, he actually ſent captain Wilſon his own daughter, a ſweet little girl, who was no more than twelve years old. She was of courſe returned alſo; but it was extremely difficult to ſatisfy the king that in this rejection of his preſents no inſult was intended.

The death of Raa Hook's valiant ſon afforded our people an opportunity of being acquainted with their funeral ceremonies. Having been invited to an entertainment by one of the rupacks, they were ſurprized, when the repaſt was ended, at hearing the doleful lamentations of women at ſome diſtance; and going to the place from whence the ſound proceeded, they obſerved a concourſe of females following a dead body, held up in a mat, and laid on a ſort of bier, made of bamboos, carried by four men on their ſhoulders. Theſe were the only males in company. Our people followed to the place of interment, where the body was depoſited without any religious ceremony, the bearers filling up the grave with their hands and feet, while the women knelt down, and again vented the moſt piercing cries, at times indicating as if their phrenzy would lead them to tear up the corpſe.

The marriages of theſe people are ſimply a mutual contract between the ſexes, which is held inviolate. A plurality of wives is allowed; but they have ſeldom more than two. They had no eſtabliſhed religion, but ſeemed to poſſeſs an innate confidence of the efficacy of virtue, and the temporal advantages ariſing from moral rectitude.

After three months ſtay on the iſland, our countrymen were enabled, by the moſt perſevering toil, but ſtill more by the beneficence and integrity of the natives, to build a veſſel out of the fragments of their wreck. In this, after leaving one of the crew, named Madan Blanchard, who requeſted permiſſion to remain on the iſland, they departed on the 12th of November, and arrived at Macao on the 30th of the ſame month, whence they afterwards proceeded to England.

We cannot omit mentioning at the cloſe of this account, that a ſhort time before the departure of our people, the king of Pelew requeſted captain Wilſon to take with him his ſecond ſon, whoſe name was Lee Boo, to England, expreſſing a patriotic hope that he would acquire many things which, at his return, would greatly benefit his native country. This youth, who added, to an active and penetrating mind, the moſt ingenious and endearing manners, was treated with the greateſt care and attention by captain Wilſon, and was advancing rapidly in a knowledge of the Engliſh language, and of writing, when he fell a victim to the ſmall-pox, at the age of 20 years. In the extremity of his laſt illneſs he made uſe of theſe words to a perſon who came over with him. "When you go to Pelew, "tell Abba Thulle that his ſon take much drink to "make ſmall-pox go away, but he die;—that the "captain and mother (meaning Mrs. Wilſon) very "kind;—all Engliſh very good men;—was much "ſorry I could not ſpeak to the king my father the "number of fine things the Engliſh had got."

He was buried in Rotherhithe church, where a tomb was erected to his memory by the Eaſt-India Company, with the following inſcription:

TO THE MEMORY
Of Prince LEE BOO,
A Native of the Pelew, or Pelos Iſlands;
And ſon to ABBA THULLE,
Rupack or King of the Iſland COOROORAA;
Who departed this Life on the 17th of December, 1784,
Aged 20 years.
This ſtone is inſcribed
By the Honourable United Eaſt-India Company,
As a teſtimony of eſteem for the humane and kind treatment afforded by his father to the crew of their ſhip
The Antelope, Captain Wilſon,
Which was wrecked off that iſland,
On the night of the 9th of Auguſt, 1783.

Stop reader, ſtop!—let NATURE claim a tear;
A Prince of *mine*—LEE BOO lies bury'd here.

HISTORY OF THE RISE AND PROGRESS OF THE ENGLISH EAST INDIA COMPANY.

The capital commercial object in England being the Eaſt India company, it demands our attention to its riſe and progreſs. The firſt idea of it was formed in the reign of queen Elizabeth; but it has ſince admitted of vaſt alterations. Though the eſtabliſhment of this company was vindicated in the cleareſt manner by ſeveral able advocates, the partiality which the duke of York, afterwards James II. had for his favourite African trade, the loſſes it ſuſtained in wars with the Dutch, and the revolutions which had happened in the affairs of Hindoſtan, damped the ardour of the public to ſupport it, ſo that at the time of the revolution, when the

the war broke out with France, it was in a very indifferent ſituation. This was, in a great meaſure, owing to its having no parliamentary ſanction, whereby its ſtock was often ſold for one half leſs than its real value, therefore it was reſolved that a new company ſhould be eſtabliſhed under the authority of parliament.

The oppoſition given to all the public ſpirited meaſures of king William, by faction, rendered this propoſal a matter of vaſt difficulty; but at laſt, after many parliamentary enquiries, the new ſubſcription prevailed, and the ſubſcribers obtained an act of parliament in their favour. The old company, however, retained a vaſt intereſt, both in the parliament, and the nation, and the act being found in ſome reſpects defective, ſo violent a ſtruggle between the two companies aroſe, that, in the year 1702, they were united by an indenture tripartite. In 1708, from ſome important public conſiderations, the company obtained a prolongation of its excluſive privileges, and a new charter was granted them under the title of "The "United Company of Merchants trading to the Eaſt "Indies." Its excluſive right of trade was continued from time to time, and, from conſiderations ſimilar to the former, its privileges were extended; yet the intereſt of their capital was reduced to three per cent. and called the India three per cent. annuities.

Thoſe annuities are different from the trading ſtock of the company, the proprietors of which, inſtead of receiving a regular annuity, have, according to their different ſhares, a dividend of the profits ariſing from the company's trade; and that dividend riſes or falls according to the circumſtances of the company, either real or pretended. Out of the body of directors are choſen ſeveral committees, who have the peculiar inſpection of certain branches in the company's buſineſs. Theſe have under them a ſecretary, caſhier, clerks, and warehouſe-keepers.

The amazing territorial acquiſitions of this company muſt neceſſarily be attended with a proportionable increaſe of trade, and this, joined to the diſſentions among its managers both at home and abroad, have, of late, greatly engaged the attention of the legiſlature, inſomuch that a reſtriction has occaſionally been laid on their dividends for a certain time.

In November, 1783, a bill was brought forward by Mr. Fox, then ſecretary of ſtate, for new regulating the company, under the ſuppoſition of the incompetency of the directors, and the inſolvent ſtate of the company. The bill paſſed the commons, but an oppoſition being formed againſt it in the houſe of lords, after long and elaborate debates, it was thrown out. Various attempts for a new bill were afterwards made by Mr. Pitt, and the new miniſtry, but failed, which occaſioned, with other diſputes on privilege, a diſſolution of the houſe of commons.

A bill paſſed at the cloſe of the ſeſſions of 1784, including the three following particulars.

Firſt, the eſtabliſhing a power of controul in this kingdom, by which the executive power in India is to be connected with that over the reſt of the empire.

Secondly, the regulating the company's ſervants in India, in order to remedy the evils which have prevailed there.

Thirdly, the providing for the puniſhment of thoſe perſons who ſhall nevertheleſs continue in the practice of crimes which have brought diſgrace upon the company.

Earl, now Marquis Cornwallis, was appointed to the ſupreme government in India, both civil and military, an extent of authority never before veſted in an individual. Upon his arrival in that country he purſued ſuch meaſures as eventually tended to the aggrandizement of the Company, both in character and poſſeſſions, as well as promoting the true intereſts and happineſs of the natives. To check the turbulent ſpirit of Tippoo Saib, whoſe general object was to deſtroy the power of the Engliſh in India, the Marquis formed an alliance with the Mahrattas and the Nizam of the Decan, and a plan was concerted jointly to invade the dominions of the Sultan.

Purſuant to this deſign, war commenced in the beginning of the year 1790, which was attended with ſucceſs to the Britiſh arms; and in the following year his Lordſhip took the command himſelf, and advanced rapidly towards Seringapatam, the capital of Tippoo Saib's dominions; but upon the ſwelling of the river, and the weak ſtate of the draft cattle, his Lordſhip was reduced to the neceſſity of abandoning the enterprize for that ſeaſon. Accordingly, after rendering his battering train totally uſeleſs, he retreated with the army to Bandalore.

Early on the return of the enſuing ſeaſon, however, the Marquis, in conjunction with his allies, reſumed the important enterprize: he inveſted Seringapatam; and having carried ſome of the outpoſts, brought to terms of ſubmiſſion the haughty Tippoo, who purchaſed a peace by a treaty to ſurrender up one half of his dominions to the powers in alliance, and alſo to pay three crores and thirty lacks of rupees; for the performance of which he delivered up two of his ſons as hoſtages to Marquis Cornwallis, who, by this gallant atchievement greatly extended the territories and advanced the revenue of the Company, and tranſmitted his own name with honour to poſterity.

ORIGIN and PROGRESS of the ART of NAVIGATION.

VARIOUS opinions have been formed reſpecting the origin of that moſt important of arts, navigation, to which a diverſity of events might probably have given birth. The ſea-coaſts, in many places, are full of iſlands, at no great diſtance from the continent. Curioſity would naturally inſpire men with an inclination to paſs over into theſe iſlands. As this paſſage would not appear either very long, or very dangerous, they would attempt it. Succeſs in one of theſe attempts would encourage to a ſecond. Pliny relates, that anciently they ſailed only among the iſlands, and that on rafts.

Fiſhing, to which ſeveral nations applied themſelves in the earlieſt ages, might alſo contribute to the origin of navigation. We are, however, moſt inclined to think, that the firſt ideas of this art were owing to thoſe nations which were ſeated near the mouths of the rivers, where they fell into the ſea. As they ſailed upon theſe rivers, they would ſometimes be carried out to ſea, either by the current, by ſtorm, or even by deſign. They would be terrified at firſt at the violence of the waves, and the dangers with which they threatened them. But when they had got over theſe firſt terrors, they would ſoon be ſenſible of the great advantages which the ſea might procure them, and, of conſequence, would endeavour to find out the means of ſailing upon it.

In whatever way mankind became familiar with that terrible element, it is certain that the firſt eſſays in navigation were made in the moſt ancient times. Moſes informs us, that the grandſons of Japhet paſſed over into the iſlands near the continent, and took poſſeſſion of them. It is alſo an undoubted fact, that the colonies very ſoon ſailed from Egypt into Greece. Sanchoniathio aſcribes the inventtion of the art of building ſhips, and the glory of undertaking ſea-voyages, to the Caberites. The antient traditions of the Phœnicians make the Caberites cotemporary with the Titans.

Experience

Experience ſoon convincing them, that ſhips, deſigned for navigating the ſeas, ought to be of a different conſtruction from thoſe intended for rivers, they would make it their ſtudy to give ſuch a form and ſolidity to ſhips deſigned for the ſea, as would enable them to reſiſt the impetuoſity of its waves.

They would next endeavour to find out a method of guiding and directing them with eaſe and ſafety. Sculls and oars were the only inſtruments that occurred to them for ſome time. It muſt have been long before they thought of adding the helm. The ancients imagined, that it was the fins of fiſhes which firſt ſuggeſted the idea of oars, and that the hint of the helm was taken from obſerving how birds directed their flight by their tails. The ſhape of ſhips, excepting the ſails, ſeems to be copied from that of fiſhes: what the fins and tails are to fiſhes, that the oars and helm are to ſhips. But theſe are only conjectures more or leſs probable, and not worth examining to the bottom.

The action of the wind, whoſe effects are ſo ſenſible and ſo frequent, might ſoon ſuggeſt the uſe of ſails. But the manner of adjuſting and managing them was more difficult, and would not be ſo ſoon diſcovered. This, in all probability, was the very laſt part of the conſtruction of ſhips which was found out; and we are confirmed in this opinion by the practice of the ſavages, and other rude nations, who make uſe only of oars, but have no ſails. It would be the ſame in the firſt ages. The firſt navigators only coaſted, and cautiouſly avoided loſing ſight of land. In ſuch circumſtances ſails would have been more dangerous than uſeful. It required the experience of ſeveral ages to teach navigators the art of employing the wind in the direction of ſhips.

If we believe, however, the ancient traditions of the Egyptians, this art of uſing the wind, by means of maſts and ſails, was exceeding ancient. They give the honour of this diſcovery to Iſis. But over and above the little credit which is due to the greateſt part of the hiſtory of that princeſs, it evidently appears that this diſcovery cannot be aſcribed to the Egyptians.

Men muſt ſoon have endeavoured to find out ſome method of ſtopping ſhips at ſea, and keeping them firm at their moorings. They would at firſt make uſe of various expedients for this purpoſe, ſuch as large ſtones, hampers or ſacks full of ſand, or other heavy bodies. Theſe they fixed to ropes and threw into the ſea. Theſe methods would be ſufficient in the firſt ages, when the veſſels they uſed were only ſmall and light barks. But as navigation improved and larger ſhips were built, ſome other machine became neceſſary. We know not at what time, or by whom the anchor, that machine at once ſo ſimple and ſo admirable, was invented. We find nothing certain on this ſubject in ancient authors. Only they agree in placing this diſcovery in ages greatly poſterior to thoſe we are now examining. They aſcribe this invention to ſeveral different perſons. The anchor, like ſeveral other machines, might be found out in many different countries, much about the ſame time. It is certain that the firſt anchors were not made of iron, but of ſtone, or even of wood. Theſe laſt were loaded with lead. We are told this by ſeveral writers, and amongſt others by Diodorus. This author relates, that the Phœnicians, in their firſt voyage into Spain, having amaſſed more ſilver than their ſhips could contain, took the lead from their anchors, and put ſilver in its place. We may obſerve further, that the firſt anchors had only one flook. It was not till many ages after that Anacharſis invented one with two.

All theſe different kinds of anchors are ſtill in uſe in ſome countries. The inhabitants of Iceland, and of Bander Congo, uſe a large ſtone with a hole in the middle, and a ſtick thruſt through it. In China, Japan, Siam, and the Manillas, they have only wooden anchors, to which they tie great ſtones. In the kingdom of Calicut they are of ſtone. The ignorance of the firſt ages, and of many nations to this day, of the art of working iron, has been the occaſion of all theſe rude and clumſy contrivances.

Though the firſt navigators coaſted along the ſhores, and took all poſſible pains not to loſe ſight of land, yet, in the very firſt ages, they muſt frequently have been driven off to ſea by ſtorms. The confuſion and uncertainty they found themſelves in when theſe accidents happened would put them upon ſtudying ſome method of finding where they were in theſe circumſtances. They would ſoon be ſenſible, that the inſpection of the heavenly bodies was the only thing that could afford them any direction. It was in this manner, probably, that aſtronomy came to be applied to navigation.

From the firſt moment men began to obſerve the motions of the heavenly bodies, they would take notice that in that part of the heavens where the ſun never paſſes there are certain ſtars which appear conſtantly every night. It was eaſy to diſcover the poſition of theſe ſtars in reſpect of our earth. They appear always on the left hand of the obſervator, whoſe face is turned on the eaſt. Navigators were ſoon ſenſible, that this diſcovery might be of great advantage to them, as theſe ſtars conſtantly pointed out the ſame part of the world. When they happened to be driven from their courſe, they found, that, in order to recover it, they had only to direct their ſhip in ſuch a manner, as to bring her into her former poſition, with reſpect to thoſe ſtars which they ſaw regularly every night.

Antiquity gives the honour of this diſcovery to the Phœnicians, a people equally induſtrious and enterpriſing. The Great Bear would probably be the firſt guide which theſe ancient navigators made choice of. This conſtellation is eaſily diſtinguiſhed, both by the brightneſs and peculiar arrangement of the ſtars which compoſe it. Being near the pole, it hardly ever ſets with reſpect to thoſe places which the Phœnicians frequented. We know not in what age navigators firſt began to obſerve the northern ſtars, for the direction of their courſe; but it muſt have been in very ancient times. The Great Bear is mentioned in the book of Job, who ſeems to have converſed much with merchants and navigators. The name by which that conſtellation was known among the ancient inhabitants of Greece, and the tales which they related about its origin, prove it was obſerved for the direction of navigators in very remote ages.

But the obſervation of the ſtars in the Great Bear was a very imperfect and uncertain rule for the direction of a ſhip's courſe. The truth is, this conſtellation points out the pole only in a very vague and confuſed manner. Its head is not ſufficiently near it, and its extremities are more than 40 degrees diſtant from it. This vaſt extent occaſions very different aſpects, both at different hours of the night, in the ſame ſeaſon of the year, and in the ſame hour in different ſeaſons. This variation would be conſiderably increaſed, when it came to be referred to the horizon, to which the courſe of navigators muſt neceſſarily be referred. They have made an allowance for this variation by gueſs, which could not but occaſion great miſtakes and errors in thoſe ages, when they were guided only by practice inſtead of geometrical rules and tables, which were not invented till many ages after.

It muſt have been long before navigation arrived at any tolerable degree of perfection. There is no art or profeſſion which requires ſo much thought and knowledge. The art of ſailing is of all others the moſt complicated; its moſt common operation depends upon various branches in different ſciences. It appears, however, that even in the ages we are now examining, ſome nations had made ſome progreſs in maritime affairs. Theſe diſcoveries can be aſcribed to nothing but that love to commerce with which theſe nations were animated, and their great ardour for the advancement of it; the like of which continuing in future ages, has brought the art of navigation to its preſent ſtate of perfection.

A

GENERAL TABLE OF COINS,

INCLUDING

All the MONIES, *real* or *imaginary*, whether actually used in Commercial and Domestic Affairs, in making Payments, &c. or ideally employed in keeping Accounts, in all the Countries of the KNOWN WORLD.

Note, To the Imaginary Monies, which are employed for the greater Facility of keeping Accounts, this Mark * is prefixed.

*** All Fractions in this TABLE are Parts of an Engliſh Penny.

EUROPE, Northern Parts.

ENGLAND AND SCOTLAND.

London, Briſtol, Liverpool, &c.
Edinburgh, Glaſgow, Aberdeen, &c.

equal to		£.	s.	d.	
A farthing	- -	0	0	0	¼
2 Farthings	a Halfpenny	0	0	0	½
2 Halfpence	a Penny -	0	0	1	
4 Pence	a Groat - -	0	0	4	
6 Pence	a Half Shilling	0	0	6	
12 Pence	a Shilling -	0	1	0	
5 Shillings	a Crown -	0	5	0	
20 Shillings	*a Pound -	1	0	0	
21 Shillings	a Guinea -	1	1	0	

IRELAND.

Dublin, Cork, Londonderry, &c.

A Farthing	- -	0	0	0	$\frac{1}{3}$
2 Farthings	a Halfpenny	0	0	0	$\frac{2}{3}$
2 Halfpence	*a Penny -	0	0	1	$\frac{1}{3}$
6½ Pence	a Half Shilling	0	0	6	
12 Pence	*a Shilling Iriſh	0	0	11	$\frac{1}{13}$
13 Pence	a Shilling -	0	1	0	
65 Pence	a Crown -	0	5	0	
20 Shillings	*a Pound Iriſh	0	18	5	½
22½ Shillings	a Guinea -	1	1	0	

FLANDERS AND BRABANT.

Ghent, Oſtend, &c. Antwerp, Bruſſels, &c.

*Pening	- -	0	0	0	$\frac{8}{10}$
4 Peningens	an Urche -	0	0	0	$\frac{8}{10}$
8 Peningens	*a Grote -	0	0	0	$\frac{8}{10}$
2 Grotes	a Petard -	0	0	0	$\frac{1}{10}$
6 Petards	*a Scalin -	0	0	5	$\frac{1}{2}$
7 Petards	a Scalin - -	0	0	6	$\frac{1}{10}$
40 Grotes	*a Florin -	0	1	6	
17½ Scalins	a Ducat -	0	9	3	
240 Grotes	*a Pound Flem.	0	9	0	

HOLLAND AND ZEALAND.

Amſterdam, Rotterdam, Middleburg, Fluſhing, &c.

* Pening	- -	0	0	0	$\frac{21}{30}$
8 Peningens	*a Grote - -	0	0	0	$\frac{24}{40}$
2 Grotes	a Stiver -	0	0	1	$\frac{1}{30}$
6 Stivers	a Scalin -	0	0	6	$\frac{1}{10}$
20 Stivers	a Guilder -	0	1	9	
50 Stivers	a Rix-dollar	0	4	4	½
60 Stivers	a Dry Guilder	0	5	3	
105 Stivers	a Ducat - -	0	9	3	
6 Guilders	*a Pound Flem.	0	10	6	

EUROPE, Northern Parts. GERMANY.

HAMBURG.

Altena, Lubec, Bremen, &c.

equal to		£.	s.	d.	
* A Tryling	- -	0	0	0	$\frac{1}{17}$
2 Trylings	*a Sexling -	0	0	0	$\frac{2}{17}$
2 Sexlings	a Fening -	0	0	0	$\frac{3}{17}$
12 Fenings	a Shilling Lub.	0	0	1	$\frac{5}{6}$
16 Shillings	*a Marc -	0	1	6	
2 Marcs	a Slet-dollar	0	3	0	
3 Marcs	a Rix-dollar	0	4	6	
6½ Marcs	a Ducat -	0	9	4	$\frac{1}{2}$
120 Shillings	*a Pound Flem.	0	11	3	

HANOVER.

Lunenburgh, Zell, &c.

* Fening	- -	0	0	0	$\frac{7}{18}$
3 Fenings	a Dreyer -	0	0	0	$\frac{7}{9}$
8 Fenings	a Marien -	0	0	1	$\frac{5}{6}$
12 Fenings	a Groſh -	0	0	1	$\frac{1}{4}$
8 Groſhen	a Half Gulden	0	1	2	
16 Groſhen	a Gulden -	0	2	4	
24 Groſhen	*a Rix-dollar	0	3	6	
32 Groſhen	a Double Gulden	4	8		
4 Guldens	a Ducat -	0	9	2	

SAXONY AND HOLSTEIN.

Dreſden, Leipſig, &c. Wiſmar, Keil, &c.

* An Heller	- -	0	0	0	$\frac{7}{8}$
2 Hellers	a Fening -	0	0	0	$\frac{7}{8}$
6 Hellers	a Dreyer -	0	0	0	$\frac{7}{8}$
16 Hellers	a Marien -	0	0	1	$\frac{1}{6}$
12 Fenings	a Groſh -	0	0	1	$\frac{1}{4}$
16 Groſhen	a Gould -	0	2	4	
24 Groſhen	*a Rix-dollar	0	3	6	
32 Groſhen	a Specie-dollar	0	4	8	
4 Goulds	a Ducat -	0	9	4	

BRANDENBURGH AND POMERANIA.

Berlin, Potſdam, &c. Stetin, &c.

* A Denier	- -	0	0	0	$\frac{1}{17}$
9 Deniers	a Polchen -	0	0	0	$\frac{1}{2}$
18 Deniers	a Groſh -	0	0	0	$\frac{1}{8}$
3 Polchens	an Abraſs -	0	0	0	$\frac{1}{8}$
20 Groſhen	*a Marc -	0	0	9	$\frac{1}{2}$
30 Groſhen	a Florin -	0	1	2	
90 Groſhen	*a Rix-dollar	0	3	6	
108 Groſhen	an Albertus	0	4	2	
8 Florins	a Ducat -	0	9	4	

EUROPE, Northern Parts. GERMANY.

COLOGN, *Mentz, Triers, Liege, Munich, Munſter, Paderbourn, &c.*

equal to		£	s	d.	
A Dute	- -	0	0	0	7/8
3 Dutes	a Cruitzer -	0	0	0	5/8
2 Cruitzers	an Albus -	0	0	0	3 1/2
8 Dutes	a Stiver -	0	0	0	7/8
3 Stivers	a Plapert -	0	0	2	1/8
4 Plaperts	a Copſtuck	0	0	8	1/2
40 Stivers	a Guilder -	0	2	4	
2 Guilders	a Hard Dollar	0	4	8	
4 Guilders	a Ducat -	0	9	4	

BOHEMIA, SILESIA, AND HUNGARY.

Prague, Ereſlau, Preſburg, &c.

A Fening	- -	0	0	0	3/8
2 Fenings	a Dreyer -	0	0	0	3/4
3 Fenings	a Groſh - -	0	0	0	1 1/8
4 Fenings	a Cruitzer -	0	0	0	1 1/2
2 Cruitzers	a White Groſh	0	0	0	1 1/2
60 Cruitzers	a Gould -	0	2	4	
90 Cruitzers	*a Rix-dollar	0	3	6	
3 Goulds	a Hard Dollar	0	4	8	
4 Goulds	a Ducat -	0	9	4	

AUSTRIA AND SWABIA.

Vienna, Trieſte, &c. Augsburg, Bleuheim, &c.

A Fening	- -	0	0	0	3/8
2 Fenings	a Dreyer -	0	0	0	3/4
4 Fenings	a Cruitzer -	0	0	0	1 1/2
14 Fenings	a Groſh -	0	0	1	1 1/2
4 Cruitzers	a Batzen -	0	0	1	1 1/2
15 Batzen	a Gould -	0	2	4	
90 Cruitzers	*a Rix-dollar	0	3	6	
30 Batzen	a Specie-dollar	0	4	8	
60 Batzen	a Ducat -	0	9	4	

FRANCONIA.

Frankfort, Nuremburg, Dettingen, &c.

A Fening	- -	0	0	0	3/8
4 Fenings	a Cruitzer -	0	0	0	1 1/2
3 Cruitzers	a Keyſer Groſh	0	0	1	1/2
4 Cruitzers	a Batzen -	0	0	1	1 1/2
15 Cruitzers	an Ort Gould	0	0	7	
60 Cruitzers	a Gould -	0	2	4	
90 Cruitzers	*a Rix-dollar	0	3	6	
2 Goulds	a Hard-dollar	0	4	8	
240 Cruitzers	a Ducat -	0	9	4	

POLAND AND PRUSSIA.

Cracow, Warſaw, &c. Dantzic, Koningsberg, &c.

A Shelon	- -	0	0	0	3/8
3 Shelons	a Groſh -	0	0	0	1 1/2
5 Groſhen	a Couſtic -	0	0	2	1/2
3 Couſtics	a Tinſe - -	0	0	7	
18 Groſhen	an Ort - -	0	0	8	1/2
30 Groſhen	a Florin -	0	1	2	
90 Groſhen	*a Rix-dollar	0	3	6	
8 Florins	a Ducat -	0	9	4	
5 Rix-dollars	a Frederic d'Or	0	17	6	

LIVONIA.

Riga, Revel, Narva, &c.

A Blacken	- -	0	0	0	3/8
6 Blackens	a Groſh - -	0	0	0	1 1/2
9 Blackens	a Vording -	0	0	0	2 1/8
2 Groſhen	a Whiten -	0	0	0	1/2
6 Groſhen	a Marc - -	0	0	2	1/2
30 Groſhen	a Florin -	0	1	2	
90 Groſhen	*a Rix-dollar	0	3	6	
108 Groſhen	an Albertus	0	4	2	1/2
64 Whitens	a Copper-pl. Dol.	5	0		

EUROPE, Northern Parts. SWITZERLAND.

DENMARK, ZEALAND, AND NORWAY.

Copenhagen, Sound, &c. Bergen, Drontheim, &c.

equal to		£.	s.	d.	
A Skilling	- -	0	0	0	1/8
6 Skillings	a Doggen -	0	0	3	1/2
16 Skillings	*a Marc -	0	0	9	
20 Skillings	a Rix-marc	0	0	11	1/2
24 Skillings	a Rix-ort -	0	1	1	1/2
4 Marcs	a Crown -	0	3	0	
6 Marcs	a Rix-dollar	0	4	6	
11 Marcs	a Ducat -	0	8	3	
14 Marcs	a Hatt Ducat	0	10	6	

SWEDEN AND LAPLAND.

Stockholm, Upſal, &c. Thorn, &c.

*Runſtick	- -	0	0	0	1/8
2 Runſticks	a Stiver -	0	0	0	1/8
8 Runſticks	a Copper Marc	0	0	1	1/2
3 Copper Marcs	a Silver Marc	0	0	4	1/2
4 Copper Marcs	a Copper Dollar	0	0	6	1/2
9 Copper Marcs	a Caroline -	0	1	2	
3 Copper Dollars	a Silver Dollar	0	1	6	1/2
3 Silver Dollars	a Rix-dollar	0	4	8	
2 Rix-dollars	a Ducat -	0	9	4	

RUSSIA AND MUSCOVY.

Peterſburg, Archangel, Moſcow, &c.

A Poluſca	- -	0	0	0	1/2 1/2
2 Poluſcas	a Denuſca -	0	0	0	1 1/2
2 Denuſcas	*a Copec -	0	0	0	1/2
3 Copecs	an Altin -	0	0	1	1/2
10 Copecs	a Grievener	0	0	5	1/2
25 Copecs	a Polpotin -	0	1	1	1/2
50 Copecs	a Poltin -	0	2	3	
100 Copecs	a Ruble -	0	4	6	
2 Rubles	a Xervonitz	0	9	0	

BASIL.

Zurick, Zug, &c.

A Rap	- -	0	0	0	1/8
3 Rapen	a Fening -	0	0	0	1/2
4 Fenings	a Cruitzer -	0	0	0	1/2
12 Fenings	*a Sol - -	0	0	1	1/2
15 Fenings	a Coarſe Batzen	0	0	1	1/2
18 Fenings	a Good Batzen	0	0	2	1/2
20 Sols	*a Livre -	0	2	6	
60 Cruitzers	a Gulden -	0	2	6	
108 Cruitzers	a Rix-dollar	0	4	3	

ST. GAUL.

Appenzel, &c.

An Heller	- -	0	0	0	1/8
2 Hellers	a Fening -	0	0	0	1/2
4 Fenings	a Cruitzer -	0	0	0	1/2
12 Fenings	*a Sol - -	0	0	1	1/2
4 Cruitzers	a Coarſe Batzen	0	0	2	
5 Cruitzers	a Good Batzen	0	0	2	1/2
20 Sols	*a Livre -	0	2	6	
60 Cruitzers	a Gould -	0	2	6	
102 Cruitzers	a Rix-dollar	9	4	3	

BERN.

Lucer, Neufchatel, &c.

A Denier	- -	0	0	0	1/12
4 Deniers	a Cruitzer -	0	0	0	1/2
3 Cruitzers	*a Sol - -	0	0	0	1/2
4 Cruitzers	a Plapert -	0	0	1	1/2
5 Cruitzers	a Gros - -	0	0	2	
6 Cruitzers	a Batzen -	0	0	2	1/2
20 Sols	*a Livre - -	0	2	0	
75 Cruitzers	a Gulden -	0	2	6	
135 Cruitzers	a Crown -	0	4	6	

GENEVA.

SWITZERLAND. EUROPE, Southern Parts. FRANCE and NAVARRE. SPAIN and CATALONIA.

EUROPE, Southern Parts.

SWITZERLAND.

GENEVA.

Pekay, Bonne, &c.

equal to		£.	s.	d.
A Denier	- - -	0	0	0 1/12
2 Deniers	a Denier current	0	0	0 1/6
12 Deniers	a Small Sol -	0	0	0 1/2
12 Den. cur.	a Sol current	0	0	0 1/2
12 Small Sols	*a Florin - -	0	0	4 1/2
20 Sols cur.	*a Livre current	0	1	3
10 3/4 Florins	a Patacon - -	0	3	11 3/4
15 3/4 Florins	a Croiſade - -	0	5	10 3/4
24 Florins	a Ducat -	0	9	0

FRANCE and NAVARRE.

Liſle, Cambray, Valenciennes, &c.

A Denier	- - -	0	0	0 1/24
12 Deniers	a Sol - - -	0	0	0 1/2
15 Deniers	*a Patard -	0	0	0 5/8
15 Patards	*a Piette -	0	0	9 5/8
20 Sols	a Livre Tournois	0	10	
20 Patards	*a Florin -	0	1	0 1/2
60 Sols	an Ecu. of Ex.	0	2	6
10 3/4 Livres	a Ducat -	0	9	3
24 Livres	a Louis d'Or	1	0	0

Dunkirk, St. Omer's St. Quintin, &c.

A Denier	- - -	0	0	0 1/24
12 Deniers	a Sol - -	0	0	0 1/2
15 Deniers	*a Patard -	0	0	0 5/8
15 Sols	*a Piette -	0	0	7 5/8
20 Sols	a Livre Tournois	0	10	
3 Livres	an Ecu of Ex.	0	2	6
24 Livres	a Louis d'Or	1	0	0
24 Livres	a Guinea -	1	1	0
30 3/4 Livres	a Moeda -	1	7	0

Paris, Lyons, Marſeilles, &c. Bourdeaux, Bayonne, &c.

A Denier	- - -	0	0	0 1/24
3 Deniers	a Liard -	0	0	0 1/8
2 Liards	a Dardene -	0	0	0 1/4
12 Deniers	a Sol - -	0	0	0 1/2
20 Sols	*a Livre Tournois	0	10	
60 Sols	an Ecu of Ex.	0	2	6
6 Livres	an Ecu -	0	5	0
10 Livres	*a Piſtole -	0	8	4
24 Livres	a Louis d'Or	1	0	0

PORTUGAL.

Liſbon, Oporto, &c.

* A Re	- - -	0	0	0 3/10 7/8
10 Rez	a Half Vintin	0	0	0 2 7/8
20 Rez	a Vintin -	0	0	1 2 7/8
5 Vintins	a Teſtoon -	0	0	6 3/4
4 Teſtoons	a Cruſade of Ex.	0	2	3
24 Vintins	a New Cruſade	0	2	8 3/4
10 Teſtoons	*a Milre -	0	5	7 1/4
48 Teſtoons	a Moeda -	1	7	0
64 Teſtoons	a Joaneſe -	1	16	0

SPAIN and CATALONIA.

Madrid, Cadiz, Seville, &c. New Plate.

A Maravedie	- -	0	0	0 1/34 1/2
2 Maravedies	a Quartil -	0	0	0 1/17 3/16
34 Maravedies	a Rial -	0	0	5 4
2 Rials	a Piſtarine -	0	0	10 1/4
8 Rials	*a Piſtare of Ex.	0	3	7
10 Rials	a Dollar -	0	4	6
375 Maravedies	*a Ducat of Ex.	0	4	11 1/2
32 Rials	*a Piſtole of Ex.	0	14	4
36 Rials	a Piſtole -	0	16	9

EUROPE, Southern Parts.

SPAIN and CATALONIA.

Gibraltar, Malaga, Denia, &c. Velon.

equal to		£.	s.	d.
*A Maravedie	- -	0	0	0 2/17 3/8
2 Maravedies	an Ochavo -	0	0	0 1/17 3/8
4 Maravedies	a Quartil -	0	0	0 3/8
34 Maravedies	*a Rial Velon	0	0	2 7/8
15 Rials	*a Piaſtre of Ex.	0	3	7
512 Maravedies	a Piaſtre -	0	3	7
60 Rials	*a Piſtole of Ex.	0	14	4
2048 Maravedies	a Piſtole of Ex.	0	14	4
70 Rials	a Piſtole -	0	16	9

Barcelona, Saragoſſa, Valencia, &c. Old Plate.

A Maravedie	- -	0	0	0 1/17 7/8
16 Maravedies	a Soldo -	0	0	3
2 Soldos	a Rial Old Plate	0	6	1/4
20 Soldos	*a Libra -	0	5	7 1/4
24 Soldos	*a Ducat -	0	6	9
16 Soldos	*a Dollar -	0	4	6
22 Soldos	*a Ducat -	0	6	2 1/4
21 Soldos	*a Ducat -	0	5	10 1/4
60 Soldos	a Piſtole -	0	16	9

GENOA. *Novi, St. Remo, &c.*

ITALY.

CORSICA. *Baſtia, &c.*

A Denari	- -	0	0	0 1/240
12 Denari	a Soldi -	0	0	0 1/20
4 Soldi	a Chevalet -	0	0	1 1/21
20 Soldi	*a Lire -	0	0	8 1/4
30 Soldi	a Teſtoon -	0	1	0 1/8
5 Lires	a Croiſade -	0	3	7
115 Soldi	*a Pezzo of Ex.	0	4	2
6 Teſtoons	a Genouine	0	6	2
20 Lires	a Piſtole -	0	14	4

PIEDMONT, SAVOY AND SARDINIA.

Turin, Chamberry, Cagliari, &c.

A Denari	- - -	0	0	0 1/12
3 Denari	a Quatrini -	0	0	0 1/16
12 Denari	a Soldi -	0	0	0 1/4
12 Soldi	*a Florin -	0	0	9
20 Soldi	*a Lire -	0	1	3
6 Florins	a Scudi -	0	4	6
7 Florins	a Ducatoon	0	5	3
13 Lires	a Piſtole -	0	16	3
16 Lires	a Louis d'Or	1	0	0

Milan, Modena, Parma, Pavia, &c.

A Denari	- - -	0	0	0 1/24
12 Denari	a Soldi -	0	0	0 1/2 1/2
20 Soldi	*a Lire -	0	0	8 1/2 1/2
115 Soldi	a Scudi current	0	4	2 1/2
117 Soldi	*a Scudi of Ex.	0	4	3
6 Lires	a Philip -	0	4	4 1/2
22 Lires	a Piſtole -	0	16	0
23 Lires	a Spaniſh Piſtole	16	9	

Leghorn, Florence, &c.

A Denari	- - -	0	0	0 1/4 1/2
4 Denari	a Quatrini -	0	0	0 1/16
12 Denari	a Soldi -	0	0	0 1/4
5 Quatrini	a Craca -	0	0	0 5/16
8 Cracas	a Quilo -	0	0	5 1/2
20 Soldi	*a Lire -	0	0	8 1/2
6 Lires	a Piaſtre of Ex.	0	4	2
7 1/2 Lires	a Ducat -	0	5	2 1/2
22 Lires	a Piſtole -	0	15	6

EUROPE, Southern Parts.

ITALY.

ROME.

Civita Vecchia, Ancona, &c.

A Quatrini	equal to		£.	s.	d.	
5 Quatrini	a Bayoc	-	0	0	0	1/2
8 Bayocs	a Julio	-	0	0	6	
10 Bayocs	a Stampt Julio		0	0	6	
24 Bayocs	a Teſtoon	-	0	1	7	1/4
10 Julios	a Crown current			5	0	
12 Julios	*a Crown ſtampt			6	0	
18 Julios	a Chequin	-	0	9	0	
31 Julios	a Piſtole	-	0	15	6	

NAPLES.

Gaieta, Capua, &c.

A Quatrini		-	-	0	0	0	2/12
3 Quatrini	a Grain	-		0	0	0	1/3
10 Grains	a Carlin	-		0	0	4	
40 Quatrini	a Paulo	-		0	0	5	1/3
20 Grains	a Tarin	-		0	0	8	
40 Grains	a Teſtoon	-		0	1	4	
100 Grains	a Ducat of Ex.			0	3	4	
23 Tarins	a Piſtole	-		0	15	4	
25 Tarins	a Span. Piſtole			1	16	9	

SICILY and MALTA.

Palermo, Meſſina, &c.

A Pichila		-	-	0	0	0	3/12
6 Pichili	a Grain	-		0	0	0	1/12
8 Pichili	a Ponti	-		0	0	0	3/12
10 Grains	a Carlin	-		0	0	1	1/12
20 Grains	a Tarin	-		0	0	3	1/12
6 Tarins	*a Florin of Ex.			0	1	6	6/12
13 Tarins	a Ducat of Ex.			0	3	4	
60 Carlins	*an Ounce	-		0	7	8	4/12
2 Ounces	a Piſtole	-		0	15	4	

Bologna, Ravenna, &c.

A Quatrini		-	-	0	0	0	1/12
6 Quatrini	a Bayoc	-		0	0	0	1/2
10 Bayocs	a Julio	-		0	0	6	
20 Bayocs	*a Lire	-		0	1	0	
3 Julios	a Teſtoon	-		0	1	6	
85 Bayocs	a Scudi of Ex.			0	4	3	
105 Bayocs	a Ducatoon			0	5	3	
100 Bayocs	a Crown	-		0	5	0	
31 Julios	a Piſtole	-		0	15	6	

VENICE.

Bergham, &c.

A Picoli		-	-	0	0	0	1/12
12 Picoli	a Soldi	-		0	0	0	1/2
6½ Soldi	*a Gros	-		0	0	2	1/6
18 Soldi	a Jule	-		0	0	6	
20 Soldi	*a Lire	-		0	0	6	1/2
3 Jules	a Teſtoon	-		0	1	6	
124 Soldi	a Ducat current				3	5	1/2
24 Gros	*a Ducat of Ex.			0	4	4	
17 Lires	a Chequin	-		0	9	2	

TURKEY.

Morea, Candia, Cyprus, &c.

A Mangar		-	-	0	0	0	1/12
4 Mangars	*an Aſper			0	0	0	1/4
3 Aſpers	a Parac	-		0	0	1	1/3
5 Aſpers	a Beſtic	-		0	0	3	
10 Aſpers	an Oſtic	-		0	0	6	
20 Aſpers	a Solota	-		0	1	0	
80 Aſpers	*a Piaſtre	-		0	4	0	
100 Aſpers	a Caragrouch			0	5	0	
10 Solotas	an Xeriff	-		0	10	0	

ASIA.

ARABIA.

Medina, Mecca, Mocha, &c.

A Carret	equal to		£.	s.	d.	
5¼ Carrets	a Caveer	-	0	0	0	1/4
7 Carrets	a Comaſhee		0	0	0	1/8
80 Carrets	a Larin		0	0	10	1/8
18 Comaſhees	an Abyſs	-	0	1	4	1/4
60 Comaſhees	*a Piaſtre	-	0	4	6	
80 Caveers	a Dollar	-	0	4	6	
100 Comaſhees	a Sequin	-	0	7	6	
80 Larins	*a Tomond	-	3	7	6	

PERSIA.

Iſpahan, Ormus, Gombroon, &c.

A Coz		-	-	0	0	0	1/5
4 Coz	a Biſti	-		0	0	1	1/5
10 Coz	a Shahee	-		0	0	4	
20 Coz	a Mamooda			0	0	8	
25 Coz	a Larin	-		0	0	10	
4 Shahees	an Abaſhee			0	1	4	
5 Abaſhees	an Or	-		0	6	8	
12 Abaſhees	a Bovello	-		0	16	0	
50 Abaſhees	*a Tomond	-		3	6	8	

MOGUL.

GUZZURAT.

Surat, Cambay, &c.

A Pecka		-	-	0	0	0	1/64
2 Peckas	a Piece	-		0	0	0	1/32
4 Pieces	a Fanam	-		0	0	1	1/8
5 Pieces	a Viz	-		0	0	2	1/4
16 Pieces	an Ana	-		0	0	7	1/2
4 Anas	a Rupee	-		0	2	6	
2 Rupees	an Engliſh Cr.			0	5	0	
14 Anas	a Pagoda	-		0	8	9	
4 Pagodas	a Gold Rupee			1	15	0	

MALABAR.

Bombay, Dabul, &c.

*A Budgrook		-	-	0	0	0	1/320
2 Budgrooks	*a Ree	-		0	0	0	1/160
5 Rez	a Piece	-		0	0	0	1/80
16 Pieces	a Laree	-		0	0	5	2/3
20 Pieces	a Quarter			0	0	6	1/4
240 Rez	a Xeraphimo			1	4		1/5
4 Quarters	a Rupee			0	2	3	
14 Quarters	a Pagoda			0	8	0	
60 Quarters	a Gold Rupee			1	15	0	

Goa, Viſapour, &c.

*A Rez		-	-	0	0	0	1/480
2 Rez	a Bazaraco			0	0	0	1/240
20 Rez	a Vintin			0	0	0	1/80
4 Vintins	a Laree	-		0	0	5	1/3
3 Larees	a Xeraphim			0	1	4	
42 Vintins	a Tangu	-		0	4	6	
4 Tangus	a Paru	-		0	18	0	
8 Tangus	a Gold Rupee			1	15	0	

COROMANDEL.

Madraſs, Pondicherry, &c.

A Caſh		-	-	0	0	0	1/80
5 Caſh	a Viz	-		0	0	0	1/16
2 Viz	a Piece	-		0	0	0	1/8
6 Pieces	a Pical	-		0	0	2	1/4
8 Pieces	a Fanam	-		0	0	3	
10 Fanams	a Rupee	-		0	2	6	
2 Rupees	an Eng. Crown			0	5	0	
36 Fanams	a Pagoda			0	8	9	
4 Pagodas	a Gold Rupee			1	15	0	

BENGAL.

ASIA.

MOGUL.

AFRICA.

ASIA. MOGUL.

BENGAL.

Calicut, Calcutta, &c.

	equal to	£.	s.	d.
A Piece	- -	0	0	0
4 Pieces	a Fanam -	0	0	0
6 Pieces	a Viz - -	0	0	0
12 Pieces	an Ana -	0	0	1
10 Anas	a Fiano -	0	1	6
16 Anas	a Rupee -	0	2	6
2 Rupees	a French Ecu	0	5	0
2 Rupees	an Eng. Crown	0	5	0
56 Anas	a Pagoda -	0	8	9

SIAM.

Pegu, Malacca, Cambodia, Sumatra, Java, Borneo, &c.

A Cori	- -	0	0	0
800 Cori	a Fettee -	0	0	0
125 Fettees	a Sataleer -	0	0	7
250 Fettees	a Soco -	0	1	3
500 Fettees	a Tutal -	0	2	6
900 Fettees	a Dollar -	0	4	6
2 Ticals	a Rial -	0	5	0
4 Soocos	an Ecu -	0	5	0
8 Sateleers	a Crown -	0	5	0

CHINA.

Pekin, Canton, &c.

A Caxa	- - -	0	0	0
10 Caxa	a Candareen	0	0	0
10 Candareens	a Mace -	0	0	8
35 Candareens	a Rupee -	0	2	6
2 Rupees	a Dollar -	0	4	6
70 Candareens	a Rix-dollar	0	4	4
7 Maces	an Ecu -	0	5	0
2 Rupees	a Crown -	0	5	0
10 Maces	*a Tale -	0	6	8

JAPAN.

Jeddo, Meaco, &c.

A Piti	- -	0	0	0
20 Pitis	a Mace -	0	0	4
15 Maces	an Oun. Silver	0	4	10
20 Maces	a Tale -	0	6	8
30 Maces	an Ingot -	0	9	8
13 Ounces Silv.	an Oun. Gold	3	3	0
2 Ounces Gold	a Japaneſe	6	6	0
2 Japaneſes	a Double -	12	12	0
21 Ounces Gold	*a Cattee -	66	3	0

AFRICA.

EGYPT.

Old and New Cairo, Alexandria, Sayde, &c.

An Aſper	-	0	0	0
3 Aſpers	a Medin -	0	0	1
24 Medins	an Ital. Duc.	0	3	4
80 Aſpers	*a Piaſter -	0	4	0
30 Medins	a Dollar -	0	4	6
96 Aſpers	an Ecu -	0	5	0
32 Medins	a Crown -	0	5	0
200 Aſpers	a Sultanin -	0	10	0
70 Medins	a Pargo Dol.	0	10	6

BARBARY.

Algiers, Tunis, Tripoli, Una, &c.

An Aſper	- -	0	0	0
3 Aſpers	a Medin -	0	0	1
10 Aſpers	a Rial old Plate	0	6	
2 Rials	a Double -	0	1	1
4 Doubles	a Dollar -	0	4	6
24 Medins	a Silv. Chequin		3	4
30 Medins	a Dollar -	0	4	6
180 Aſpers	a Zequin -	0	8	10
15 Doubles	a Piſtole -	0	16	9

AFRICA.

MOROCCO.

SantaCruz, Mequinez, Fez, Tangiers, Sallee, &c.

	equal to	£.	s.	d.
A Fluce	- -	0	0	0
24 Fluces	a Blanquil	0	0	2
4 Blanquils	an Ounbe	0	0	8
7 Blanquils	an Octavo	0	1	2
14 Blanquils	a Quarto	0	2	4
2 Quartos	a Medio	0	4	8
28 Blanquils	a Dollar	0	4	6
54 Blanquils	a Xequin	0	9	6
100 Blanquils	a Piſtole	0	16	9

AMERICA. WEST INDIES.

ENGLISH.

Jamaica, Barbadoes, &c.

*Halfpenny	- -	0	0	0
2 Halfpence	*a Penny	0	0	0
7½ Pence	a Bit -	0	0	5
12 Pence	*a Shilling	0	0	8
75 Pence	a Dollar	0	4	6
7 Shillings	a Crown	0	5	0
20 Shillings	*a Pound	0	14	3
24 Shillings	a Piſtole	0	16	9
30 Shillings	a Guinea	1	1	0

FRENCH.

St. Domingo, Martinico, &c.

* A Half Sol	- -	0	0	0
2 Half Sols	*a Sol	0	0	0
7½ Sols	a Half Scalin	0	2	
15 Sols	a Scalin	0	5	
20 Sols	*a Livre	0	0	7
7 Livres	a Dollar	0	4	6
8 Livres	an Ecu	0	4	10
26 Livres	a Piſtole	0	16	9
32 Livres	a Louisd'Or	1	0	0

CONTINENT.

ENGLISH.

Nova Scotia, New England, Virginia, &c.

* A Penny	-	0	0	1
12 Pence	*a Shilling	0	1	0
20 Shillings	*a Pound	1	0	0
2 Pounds				
3 Pounds				
4 Pounds				
5 Pounds				
6 Pounds				
7 Pounds				
8 Pounds				
9 Pounds				
10 Pounds				

The Value of the Currency alters according to the Plenty or Scarcity of Gold and Silver Coins that are imported.

Canada, Florida, Cayena, &c.

* A Denier	
12 Deniers	* a Sol
20 Sols	* a Livre
2 Livres	
3 Livres	
4 Livres	
5 Livres	
6 Livres	
7 Livres	
8 Livres	
9 Livres	
10 Livres	

The value of the Currency alters according to the Plenty or Scarcity of Gold and Silver Coins that are imported.

Note. For all the *Spaniſh*, *Portugueſe*, *Dutch*, and *Daniſh* Dominions, either on the Continent or in the WEST INDIES, ſee the Monies of the reſpective Nations.

A

NEW GEOGRAPHICAL TABLE,

FROM THE MINUTEST OBSERVATION,

CONTAINING THE

Names and Situations of the chief Cities, Towns, Seas, Gulphs, Bays, Streights, Capes, and other remarkable Places in the known World;

WITH

THEIR RESPECTIVE LATITUDES AND LONGITUDES.

Towns.	*Provinces.*	*Countries.*	*Quarters.*	*Latitude.* D. M.	*Longitude.* D. M.
A					
ABerdeen,	Aberdeenſhire,	Scotland,	Europe	57 22 N.	1 20 W.
Acapulco,	Mexico,	North	America	17 10 N.	101 40 W.
Adriatic Sea, or Gulph of Venice,	between	Italy and Turkey,	Europe, Mediterranean Sea.		
Adrianople	Romania,	Turkey,	Europe	42 00 N.	26 30 E.
Agra,	Agra,	Eaſt India,	Aſia	26 42 N.	76 30 E.
Air,	Airſhire,	Scotland	Europe	53 30 N.	4 35 W.
Aleppo,	Syria,	Turkey,	Aſia	35 42 N.	37 24 E.
Alexandria,	Lower Egypt,	Turkey	Africa	31 10 N.	30 19 E.
Albany,	New-York,	North	America	42 48 N.	73 30 W.
ALGIERS,	Algiers,	Barbary,	Africa	36 50 N.	3 16 E.
Amboyna,	Amboyna Iſle,	Eaſt India,	Aſia	4 25 S.	127 25 E.
AMSTERDAM,	Holland,	Netherlands,	Europe	52 23 N.	5 04 E.
Annapolis,	Nova-Scotia,	North	America	45 00 N.	64 00 W.
ANNAPOLIS,	Maryland,	North	America	39 00 N.	76 50 W.
Antioch,	Syria,	Turkey,	Aſia	36 30 N.	32 46 E.
Antwerp,	Brabant,	Netherlands,	Europe	51 13 N.	4 29 E.
Archipelago,	Iſlands of	Greece	Europe, Mediterranean Sea.		
Archangel,	Dwina,	Ruſſia,	Europe	64 30 N.	40 30 E.
Aſtracan,	Aſtracan,	Ruſſia,	Aſia	47 00 N.	52 00 E.
Athens,	Achaia,	Turkey,	Europe	37 58 N.	24 05 E.
Atlantic Ocean,	ſeparates	Europe, Aſia, and	Africa from America.		
AVA,	Ava,	Eaſt India,	Aſia	20 20 N.	95 30 E.
B					
BAY of Biſcay,	Coaſt of	France,	Europe,	Atlantic Ocean.	
— of Beng,	Coaſt of	India,	Aſia,	Indian Ocean.	
Baltic Sea,	between	Germ. and Sweden	Europe,	Atlantic Ocean.	
Baldivia,	Chili,	South	America	39 35 S.	81 10 W.
Balbec,	Syria,	Turkey,	Aſia	33 40 N.	37 00 E.
Barcelona,	Catalonia,	Spain,	Europe	42 26 N.	2 18 E.
Baſtia,	Corſica Iſle,	Italy,	Europe	42 20 N.	9 40 E.
Bath,	Somerſetſhire,	England,	Europe	51 27 N.	2 32 W.
Bagdat,	Eyraca Arabia,	Turkey,	Aſia	33 40 N.	45 00 E.
Baſſora,	Eyraca Arabia,	Turkey,	Aſia	30 45 N.	48 00 E.
BATAVIA,	Java Iſle,	Eaſt India,	Aſia	6 00 S.	107 00 E.
BAZIL,	Bazil,	Switzerland,	Europe	47 40 N.	7 40 E.
Belfaſt,	Ulſter,	Ireland,	Europe	54 39 N.	6 30 W.
Bender,	Beſſarabia,	Turkey,	Europe	46 40 N.	29 00 E.
BERGEN,	Bergen,	Norway,	Europe	60 10 N.	5 40 E.
BERLIN,	Brandenburg,	Germany,	Europe	52 33 N.	13 32 E.
Bern,	Bern,	Switzerland,	Europe	47 00 N.	7 20 E.
Berwick,	Berwick,	Scotland,	Europe	55 48 N.	1 45 W.
Belgrade,	Servia,	Turkey,	Europe	45 00 N.	21 20 E.
Bencoolen,	Sumatra Iſle,	Eaſt India,	Aſia	3 55 S.	101 00 E.
Bilboa,	Biſcay,	Spain,	Europe	43 26 N.	3 18 W.
Birmingham,	Warwickſhire,	England,	Europe	52 30 N.	1 50 W.
Bombay,	Bombay Iſle,	Eaſt India,	Aſia	19 00 N.	71 30 E.
Bokharia,	Uſbec	Tartary,	Aſia	39 15 N.	67 00 E.

Towns.	*Provinces.*	*Countries.*	*Quarters.*	*Latitude.* D. M.	*Longitude.* D. M.
Bourdeaux,	Guienne,	France,	Europe	44 50 N	00 38 W.
Borroughſtonneſs,	Linlithgowſhire,	Scotland,	Europe	59 48 N.	3 44 W.
Boſton,	Lincolnſhire,	England,	Europe	53 10 N.	00 25 E.
BOSTON,	Maſſachuſets,	New England,	America	42 20 N.	70 40 W.
Breda,	Brabant,	Netherlands,	Europe	51 40 N.	4 40 E.
Breſt,	Bretany,	France,	Europe	48 23 N.	4 25 W.
Bremen,	Lower Saxony,	Germany,	Europe	53 25 N.	8 20 E.
BRESLAU,	Sileſia,	Bohemia,	Europe	51 15 N.	16 50 E.
Briſtol,	Somerſetſhire,	England,	Europe	51 33 N.	2 40 W.
Britiſh Sea,	between	Brit. and Germ.	Europe		
Black, or Euxine Sea,	Turkey in	Europe and	Aſia	Atlantic Ocean.	
BRUSSELS,	Brabant,	Netherlands,	Europe	50 50 N.	4 06 E.
Bruges,	Flanders,	Netherlands,	Europe	51 16 N.	3 05 E.
Brunſwick,	Lower Saxony,	Germany,	Europe	52 30 N.	10 30 E.
Buda,	Lower,	Hungary,	Europe	47 40 N.	19 20 E.
BURLINGTON,	Jerſey,	North	America	40 08 N.	75 00 E.
BUENOS AYRES,	La Plata,	South	America	34 35 S.	57 54 W.

C

CAIRO,	Lower	Egypt,	Africa	30 00 N.	32 00 E.
Cagliari,	Sardinia,	Italy,	Europe	39 25 N.	9 38 E.
CACHAO,	Tonquin,	Eaſt India,	Aſia	21 30 N.	105 00 E.
Calais,	Picardy,	France,	Europe	50 58 N.	1 54 E.
Cambletown,	Argyleſhire,	Scotland,	Europe	55 30 N.	5 40 E.
Cambridge,	Cambridgeſhire,	England,	Europe	52 15 N.	00 05 E.
Cadiz,	Andaluſia,	Spain,	Europe	36 33 N.	6 01 W.
Calcutta,	Bengal,	Eaſt India,	Aſia	22 00 N.	87 00 E.
Canterbury,	Kent,	England,	Europe	51 16 N.	1 15 E.
Candia,	Candy Iſland,	Turkey,	Aſia	35 19 N.	25 23 E.
CANTON,	Canton,	China,	Aſia	23 14 N.	113 06 E.
CAMBODIA,	Siam,	Eaſt India,	Aſia	13 30 N.	105 00 E.
Carliſle,	Cumberland,	England,	Europe	54 47 N.	2 35 W.
Cathageruins,	Tunis,	Barbary,	Africa	36 30 N.	9 00 E.
CARTHAGENA,	Terra Firma,	South	America	10 28 N.	77 00 W.
Cardigan,	Cardiganſhire,	Wales,	Europe	52 10 N.	4 38 W.
Candy,	Ceylone Iſles,	Eaſt India,	Aſia	7 54 N.	79 00 E.
Caſpian Sea,	Ruſſian	Tartary,	Aſia		
Caſſel,	Heſſe Caſſel,	Germany,	Europe	51 20 N.	9 20 E.
Cape Clear,	Cork,	Ireland,	Europe	51 10 N.	9 40 W.
—— Finiſterre,	Galicia,	Spain,	Europe	43 12 N.	10 05 W.
—— Vincent,	Algrave,	Portugal,	Europe	36 53 N.	9 06 W.
—— Verd,		Negroland,	Africa	14 43 N.	17 20 W.
—— of Good Hope,	Hottentots,	Caffraria,	Africa	34 07 S.	19 35 E.
—— Comorin,	Hither India,	Mogul Empire,	Aſia	7 50 N.	77 30 E.
—— Florida,	Eaſt Florida,	North	America	24 57 N.	80 30 W.
—— Horn,	Del-Fuego Iſle,	South	America	56 35 S.	79 55 W.
Cattegate Sea,	between	Swed. and Denm.	Europe	Atlantic Ocean	
Ceuta	Fez,	Morocco,	Africa	35 4 N.	6 30 W.
Cheſter,	Cheſhire,	England,	Europe	53 15 N.	3 00 W.
CHARLES TOWN,	South Carolina,	North	America	32 45 N.	79 12 W.
Civita Vecchia,	Pope's Territories,	Italy,	Europe	42 05 N.	12 30 E.
COPENHAGEN,	Zealand Iſle,	Denmark,	Europe	55 41 N.	12 50 E.
Cork,	Munſter,	Ireland,	Europe	51 49 N.	8 40 W.
Coventry,	Warwickſhire,	England,	Europe	52 25 N.	1 25 W.
CONSTANTINOPLE,	Romania,	Turkey,	Europe	41 00 N.	28 56 E.
Conſtance,	Swabia,	Germany,	Europe	47 37 N.	9 12 E.
Corinth,	Morea,	Turkey,	Europe	37 30 N.	23 00 E.
Craco,	Little Poland,	Poland,	Europe	50 00 N.	19 30 E.
Curaſſou,	Curaſſou Iſle,	Weſt India,	America	11 56 N.	68 20 W.
Cuſco,	Peru,	South	America	12 25 S.	70 00 W.

D

DAmaſcus,	Syria,	Turkey,	Aſia	33 15 N.	37 20 E.
Dantzic,	Poliſh Pruſſia,	Poland,	Europe	54 22 N.	18 36 E.
Dacca,	Bengal,	Eaſt India,	Aſia	23 30 N.	89 20 E.
DELLY,	Delly,	Eaſt India,	Aſia	29 00 N.	76 30 E.
Delft,	Holland,	Netherlands,	Europe	52 06 N.	4 05 E.
Derbent,	Dagiſtan,	Perſia,	Aſia	41 40 N.	50 30 E.
Derby,	Derbyſhire,	England,	Europe	52 58 N.	1 30 W.
Derry,	Ulſter,	Ireland,	Europe	54 52 N.	7 40 W.
Dieu,	Malabar,	Eaſt India,	Aſia	21 37 N.	69 30 E.
Dover,	Kent,	England,	Europe	51 08 N.	1 25 E.

DRESDEN,

Towns.	*Provinces.*	*Countries.*	*Quarters.*	*Latitude.* D. M.	*Longitude.* D. M.
DRESDEN,	Saxony,	Germany,	Europe	51 00 N.	13 36 E.
Dundee,	Forfar,	Scotland,	Europe	56 26 N.	2 48 W.
DUBLIN,	Leinſter,	Ireland,	Europe	53 20 N.	6 28 W.
Durham,	Durham,	England,	Europe	54 48 N.	1 25 W.
Dumbarton,	Dumbartonſhire,	Scotland,	Europe	55 54 N.	4 20 W.
Dunkirk,	Flanders,	Netherlands,	Europe	51 00 N.	2 20 E.
Dunbar,	Haddington,	Scotland,	Europe	55 58 N.	2 25 W.
Dumfries,	Dumfrieſſhire,	Scotland,	Europe	55 08 N.	3 25 W.
E					
ENgliſh Chan.	between	Engl. and France,	Europe	Atlantic Ocean.	
Epheſus,	Natolia,	Turkey,	Aſia	38 01 N.	27 53 E.
EDINBURGH,	Edinburghſhire,	Scotland,	Europe	55 58 N.	3 00 W.
Elbing,	Pruſſia,	Poland,	Europe	54 15 N.	20 00 W.
Embden,	Lower	Germany,	Europe	53 25 N.	7 10 E.
Ethiopian Sea,	Coaſt of	Guinea,	Africa	Atlantic Ocean.	
Exeter,	Devonſhire,	England,	Europe	50 44 N.	3 30 W.
F					
FAlkirk,	Stirling,	Scotland,	Europe	55 58 N.	3 48 W.
Falmouth,	Cornwall,	England,	Europe	50 10 N.	5 20 W.
Fez,	Fez,	Morocco,	Africa	33 30 N.	6 00 W.
Ferrol,	Galicia,	Spain,	Europe	43 30 N.	8 40 W.
FLORENCE,	Tuſcany,	Italy,	Europe	43 30 N.	12 15 E.
Fort St. David,	Coromandel,	Eaſt-India,	Aſia	12 05 N.	80 55 E.
G					
GEneva,	Geneva,	Switzerland,	Europe	46 20 N.	6 00 E.
GENOA,	Genoa,	Italy,	Europe	44 25 N.	9 00 E.
Ghent,	Flanders,	Netherlands,	Europe	51 00 N.	3 36 E.
Gibraltar,	Andaluſia,	Spain,	Europe	36 00 N.	6 00 W.
Glaſgow,	Lanerkſhire,	Scotland,	Europe	55 50 N.	4 05 W.
Glouceſter,	Glouceſterſhire,	England,	Europe	51 05 N.	2 16 W.
Goa,	Malabar,	Eaſt India,	Aſia	15 31 N.	74 20 E.
Gombroon,	Farſiſtan,	Perſia,	Aſia	27 30 N.	57 25 E.
Gottenburg,	Gothland,	Sweden,	Europe	58 00 N.	11 30 E.
Greenock,	Renfrewſhire,	Scotland,	Europe	55 52 N.	4 22 W.
Guam,	Ladrone Iſles,	Eaſt India,	Aſia	14 00 N.	140 30 E.
Gulph of Bothnia,	Coaſt of	Sweden,	Europe,	Baltic Sea.	
—— Finland,	between	Sweden and Ruſ.	Europe,	Baltic Sea.	
—— Venice,	between	Italy and Turkey,	Europe,	Mediterranean Sea.	
—— Ormus,	between	Perſia and Arabia,	Aſia,	Indian Ocean.	
—— Perſia,	between	Perſia and Arabia,	Aſia,	Indian Ocean.	
—— St. Lawr.	Coaſt of	New Scotland,	North America,	Atlantic Ocean.	
—— California,	between	Calif. and Mexico,	North America,	Pacific Ocean.	
—— Mexico,	Coaſt of	Mexico,	North America,	Atlantic Ocean.	
H					
HAGUE,	Holland,	Netherlands,	Europe	52 10 N.	4 00 E.
Hamburgh,	Holſtein,	Germany,	Europe	53 41 N.	9 40 E.
Helleſpont,	Med. and Bl. Sea.	Europe and	Aſia		
Halifax,	Yorkſhire,	England,	Europe	53 45 N.	1 52 W.
HALIFAX,	Nova Scotia,	North	America	44 40 N.	63 15 W.
Hanover,	Saxony,	Germany,	Europe	52 32 N.	9 35 E.
Havannah,	Cuba,	Iſland,	America	23 00 N.	84 00 W.
Haerlem,	Holland,	Netherlands,	Europe	52 20 N.	4 10 E.
Hughly,	Bengal,	Eaſt India,	Aſia	21 45 N.	87 55 E.
Hereford,	Herefordſhire,	England,	Europe	52 06 N.	2 38 W.
Hull,	Yorkſhire,	England,	Europe	53 45 N.	0 12 W.
Hudſon's Bay,	Coaſt of	Labrador	North America,	Northern Ocean.	
I					
ISthmus of Suez,	joins	Africa to	Aſia		
—— Corinth,	joins the Morea to	Greece,	Europe		
—— Panama,	joins	North and South	America		
—— Malacca,	joins Malacca to	Further India,	Aſia		
JEDDO,	Japan Iſle,	Eaſt India,	Aſia	36 20 N.	139 00 E.
JERUSALEM,	Paleſtine,	Turkey,	Aſia	32 00 N.	36 00 E.
Indian Ocean,	Coaſt of	India,	Aſia	Southern Ocean.	
Inverneſs,	Invernſeſhire,	Scotland,	Europe	57 33 N.	4 02 W.
Iriſh Sea,	between	G. Brit. and Irel.	Europe	Atlantic Ocean.	
ISPAHAN,	Irac Agem,	Perſia,	Aſia	32 50 N.	51 30 E.
Ivica,	Ivica Iſle,	Italy,	Europe	38 50 N.	1 40 E.

KELSO,

Towns.	Provinces.	Countries.	Quarters.	Latitude. D. M.	Longitude. D. M.
K					
KELSO,	Roxboroughſhire,	Scotland,	Europe	55 38 N.	2 12 W.
Kilmarnoc,	Airſhire,	Scotland,	Europe	55 38 N.	4 30 W.
Kinſale,	Munſter,	Ireland,	Europe	51 32 N.	8 20 W.
KINGSTON,	Jamaica,	Weſt India,	America	17 40 N.	77 00 W.
KONINGSBERG,	Pruſſia,	Poland,	Europe	54 43 N.	21 35 E.
L					
LAncaſter	Lancaſhire,	England,	Europe	54 05 N.	2 55 W.
Levant Sea,	Coaſt of	Syria,	Aſia,	Mediterranean Sea.	
Lahor,	Lahor,	Eaſt India,	Aſia	32 40 N.	75 30 E.
Leith,	Edinburgſhire,	Scotland	Europe	55 58 N.	3 00 W.
Leeds,	Yorkſhire,	England,	Europe	53 48 N.	1 24 W.
Leyden,	Holland,	Netherlands,	Europe	52 12 N.	4 05 E.
Leipſic,	Saxony,	Germany,	Europe	51 20 N.	12 40 E.
Leiceſter,	Leiceſterſhire,	England,	Europe	52 40 N.	1 05 W.
Linlithgow,	Linlithgowſhire,	Scotland,	Europe	55 56 N.	3 30 W.
Lincoln,	Lincolnſhire,	England,	Europe	53 15 N.	00 27 W.
Liſle,	Flanders,	Netherlands,	Europe	50 42 N.	3 00 E.
Limerick,	Munſter,	Ireland,	Europe	52 35 N.	8 48 W.
LISBON,	Eſtramadura,	Portugal,	Europe	38 42 N.	8 53 W.
LIMA,	Peru,	South	America	12 15 S.	77 30 W.
Litchfield,	Staffordſhire,	England,	Europe	52 43 N.	1 40 W.
LOUISBOURG,	Cape Breton Iſle,	North	America	45 54 N.	59 30 W.
Loretto	Pope's Territories,	Italy,	Europe	43 15 N.	14 15 E.
LONDON,	Middleſex,	England,	Europe	51 30 N.	*Firſt Mer.*
Londonderry,	Ulſter,	Ireland,	Europe	55 00 N.	7 40 W.
Lubec,	Holſtein,	Germany,	Europe	54 00 N.	11 40 E.
Lyons,	Lyons,	France,	Europe	45 46 N.	4 55 E.
Luxemburg,	Luxemburg,	Netherlands,	Europe	49 40 N.	5 40 E.
M					
MAcao,	Canton,	China,	Aſia	22 13 N.	113 51 E.
Majorca,	Majorca Iſle,	Spain,	Europe	39 30 N.	3 03 E.
MADRID,	New Caſtile,	Spain,	Europe	40 30 N.	4 15 W.
Manchester,	Lancaſhire,	England,	Europe	53 30 N.	2 22 W.
Malta,	Malta Iſle,	Mediterranean,	Europe	35 53 N.	14 32 E.
MANTUA,	Mantua,	Italy,	Europe	45 20 N.	10 47 E.
Malacca,	Malacca,	Eaſt India,	Aſia	2 12 N.	101 00 E.
Madraſs,	Coromandel,	Eaſt India,	Aſia	13 11 N.	80 32 E.
Manilla,	Philippine Iſles,	Eaſt India,	Aſia	20 14 N.	118 00 E.
Marſeilles,	Provence,	France,	Europe	43 15 N.	5 20 E.
Medina,	Arabia Deſerta,	Arabia,	Aſia	25 00 N.	39 53 E.
MECCA,	Arabia Deſerta,	Arabia,	Aſia	21 45 N.	41 00 E.
Mediterran. Sea,	between	Europe and	Africa,	Atlantic Ocean.	
Mequinez,	Fez,	Barbary,	Africa	34 3 N.	6 00 E.
MESSINA,	Sicily Iſland,	Mediterranean Sea,	Europe	38 30 N.	15 40 E.
MEXICO,	Mexico,	North	America	20 00 N.	103 00 W.
Milford Haven,	Pembrokeſhire,	Wales,	Europe	51 45 N.	5 15 W.
MILAN,	Milaneſe,	Italy,	Europe	45 25 N.	9 30 E.
MOCHO,	Arabia Felix,	Arabia,	Aſia	13 40 N.	43 50 E.
MODENA,	Modena,	Italy,	Europe	44 45 N.	11 20 W.
Montreal,	Canada,	North	America	45 35 N.	73 11 W.
Montpelier,	Languedoc,	France,	Europe	43 30 N.	3 50 E.
Montroſe,	Forfar,	Scotland,	Europe	56 34 N.	2 20 W.
MOROCCO,	Morocco,	Barbary,	Africa,	30 32 N.	6 10 W.
MOSCOW,	Moſcow,	Ruſſia,	Europe	55 45 N.	37 51 E.
Munſter,	Weſtphalia,	Germany,	Europe	52 00 N.	7 10 E.
N					
NANCY,	Lorrain,	Germany,	Europe	48 44 N.	6 00 E.
Nanking,	Nanking,	China,	Aſia	32 00 N.	118 30 E.
NAPLES,	Naples,	Italy,	Europe	41 00 N.	14 19 E.
NARVA,	Livonia,	Ruſſia,	Europe	59 00 N.	27 35 E.
Newcaſtle,	Northumberland,	England,	Europe	55 03 N.	1 24 W.
Nice,	Piedmont,	Italy,	Europe	43 42 N.	7 05 E.
Newport,	Rhode Iſland,	North	America	41 35 N.	71 06 W.
NEW YORK,	New York,	North	America	40 40 N.	74 00 W.
NINEVEH,	Aſſyria,	Turkey,	Aſia	36 00 N.	45 00 E.
Nottingham,	Nottinghamſhire,	England,	Europe	53 00 N.	1 06 W.
Northampton,	Northamptonſhire,	England,	Europe	52 15 N.	00 55 W.
Norwich,	Norfolk,	England,	Europe	52 40 N.	1 25 E.

Towns.	*Provinces.*	*Countries.*	*Quarters.*	*Latitude.* D. M.	*Longitude.* D. M.
O					
OLympia,	Greece,	Turkey,	Europe	37 30 N.	22 00 E.
OLMUTZ,	Moravia,	Bohemia,	Europe	49 30 N.	16 45 E.
Oporto,	Duoro,	Portugal,	Europe	41 10 N.	9 00 W.
Ormus,	Ormus Iſle,	Perſia,	Aſia	26 50 N.	57 00 E.
Oran,	Algiers,	Barbary,	Africa	36 30 N.	0 05 E.
Oſtend,	Flanders,	Netherlands,	Europe	51 15 N.	2 45 E.
Oxford,	Oxfordſhire,	England,	Europe	51 45 N.	1 15 W.
P					
PAcific, or Oriental Ocean,	between	Aſia and	America		
Padua,	Venice,	Italy,	Europe	45 30 N.	12 15 E.
Paiſley,	Renfrewſhire,	Scotland,	Europe	55 48 N.	4 08 W.
PALERMO,	Sicily Iſle,	Mediterranean,	Europe	38 30 N.	13 43 E.
Palmyra,	Syria,	Turkey,	Aſia	33 00 N.	39 00 E.
PANAMA,	Darien,	Terra Firma,	America	8 50 N.	81 52 W.
PARIS,	Iſle of France,	France,	Europe	48 50 N.	2 25 E.
PARMA,	Parmeſan,	Italy,	Europe	44 45 N.	10 51 E.
Patna,	Bengal,	Eaſt India,	Aſia	25 45 N.	83 00 E.
PEGU,	Pegu,	Eaſt India,	Aſia	17 00 N.	97 00 E.
Pekin,	Pekin,	China,	Aſia	40 00 N.	116 28 E.
Pembroke,	Pembrokeſhire,	Wales,	Europe	51 45 N.	4 50 W.
Penzance,	Cornwall,	England,	Europe	50 08 N.	6 00 W.
PENSACOLA,	Weſt Florida,	North	America	30 22 N.	87 20 W.
Perth,	Perthſhire,	Scotland,	Europe	56 22 N.	3 12 W.
Perthamboy,	New York,	North	America	40 30 N.	74 20 W.
Perſepolis,	Irac Agem,	Perſia,	Aſia	30 30 N.	54 00 E.
PETERSBURGH,	Ingria,	Ruſſia,	Europe	60 00 N.	30 25 E.
PHILADELPHIA,	Pennſylvania,	North	America	40 00 N.	75 20 W.
Piſa,	Tuſcany,	Italy,	Europe	43 36 N.	11 15 E.
PLACENTIA,	Newfound. Iſle,	North	America	47 26 N.	55 00 W.
Plymouth,	Devonſhire,	England,	Europe	50 26 N.	4 15 W.
Plymouth,	New England,	North	America	41 48 N.	70 25 W.
Pondicherry,	Coromandel,	Eaſt India,	Aſia	12 27 N.	80 00 E.
Portſmouth,	Hampſhire,	England,	Europe	50 48 N.	1 06 W.
Portſmouth,	New England,	North	America	43 10 N.	70 20 W.
Porto Bello,	Darien,	Terra Firma,	America	10 00 N.	82 00 W.
Port l'Orient,	Britany,	France,	Europe	47 42 N.	3 15 W.
Port Royal,	Jamaica Iſle,	Weſt India,	America	18 00 N.	77 00 W.
Potoſi,	Peru,	South	America	21 00 S.	67 00 W.
PRAGUE,	——	Bohemia,	Europe	50 00 N.	14 20 E.
Preſton,	Lancaſhire,	England,	Europe	53 45 N.	2 50 W.
PRESBURG,	Upper	Hungary,	Europe	48 20 N.	17 30 E.
Q					
QUEBEC,	Canada,	North	America	46 55 N.	69 48 W.
Quito,	Peru,	South	America	0 30 N.	78 00 W.
R					
RIO Janeiro,	Brazil,	South	America	22 40 S.	43 10 W.
Raguſa,	Dalmatia,	Venice,	Europe	42 45 N.	18 25 E.
Ratiſbon,	Bavaria,	Germany,	Europe	48 56 N.	12 05 E.
Revel,	Livonia,	Ruſſia,	Europe	59 00 N.	25 07 E.
Rheims,	Champagne,	France,	Europe	49 14 N.	4 00 E.
RHODES,	Rhodes Iſland,	Levant Sea,	Aſia	36 20 N.	28 00 E.
Riga,	Livonia,	Ruſſia,	Europe	56 55 N.	24 00 E.
ROME,	Pope's Territ.	Italy,	Europe	41 54 N.	12 45 E.
Roſetto,	Egypt,	Turkey,	Africa	31 10 N.	41 35 E.
Rotterdam,	Holland,	Netherlands,	Europe	51 55 N.	4 30 E.
Rouen,	Normandy,	France,	Europe	49 26 N.	1 10 E.
S					
ST. AUGUSTIN,	Eaſt Florida,	North	America	29 45 N.	81 12 W.
—Domingo,	Hiſpaniola Iſle,	Weſt India,	America	18 20 N.	70 00 W.
—Helena,	St. Helena,	Iſland,	Africa	16 00 S.	6 20 W.
—JAGO,	Chili,	South	America	34 00 S.	77 00 W.
—Salvador,	Brazil,	South	America	13 00 S.	38 00 W.
Sallee,	Fez,	Barbary,	Africa	34 00 N.	6 20 W.
SAMARCHAND,	Uſbec	Tartary,	Aſia	40 40 N.	69 00 E.
Saliſbury,	Wiltſhire,	England,	Europe,	51 00 N.	1 45 W.
SANTA FE,	New Mexico,	North	America	36 00 N.	104 00 W.
SAVANNAH,	Georgia,	North	America	31 55 N.	80 20 W.
Sayd, or Thebes,	Upper	Egypt,	Africa	27 00 N.	32 20 E.

Towns.	Provinces.	Countries.	Quarters.	Latitude. D. M.	Longitude. D. M.
Samaria Ruins,	Holy Land,	Turkey,	Aſia	32 40 N.	38 00 E.
St. George's Chan.	between	Eng. and Irel.	Europe	Atlantic Ocean.	
Scarborough,	Yorkſhire,	England,	Europe	54 18 N.	0 10 W.
Scone,	Perthſhire,	Scotland,	Europe	56 24 N.	3 10 W.
Sea of Aſoph,	Little Tartary,	Europe and	Aſia,	Black Sea.	
—— Marmora,	Turkey in	Europe and	Aſia,	Black Sea.	
—— Kamſchatka,	Coaſt of	Kamſchatka,	Aſia,	Pacific Ocean.	
—— Korea,	Coaſt of	Korea,	Aſia,	Pacific Ocean.	
Shrewſbury,	Shropſhire,	England,	Europe	52 43 N.	2 46 W.
Sheilds,	Durham,	England,	Europe	55 02 N.	1 15 W.
Sheerneſs,	Kent,	England,	Europe	51 25 N.	00 50 E.
Schiras,	Farſiſtan,	Perſia,	Aſia	29 30 N.	53 00 E.
Seville,	Andaluſia,	Spain,	Europe	37 15 N.	6 05 W.
SIAM,	Siam,	Eaſt India,	Aſia	14 18 N.	100 55 E.
Sidon,	Paleſtine,	Turkey,	Aſia	33 33 N.	36 15 E.
Smyrna,	Natolia,	Turkey,	Aſia	38 28 N.	29 00 E.
Southampton,	Hampſhire,	England,	Europe	50 55 N.	1 25 W.
Spaw,	Liege,	Germany,	Europe	50 30 N.	5 40 E.
Sound,	between	Denm. and Swed.	Europe,	Baltic Sea.	
Stafford,	Staffordſhire,	England,	Europe	52 50 N.	2 00 W.
Stirling,	Sterlingſhire,	Scotland,	Europe	56 10 N.	3 50 W.
Straſund,	Pomerania,	Germany,	Europe	54 23 N.	13 22 E.
Straſburgh,	Alſace,	Germany,	Europe	48 38 N.	7 51 E.
STOCKHOLM,	Uplandia,	Sweden,	Europe	59 30 N.	18 08 E.
Streights of Dover,	between	Eng. and France,	Europe,	Engliſh Channel.	
—— Gibraltar,	between	Europe and	Africa,	Mediterranean Sea.	
—— Babelmandel,	between	Africa and	Aſia,	Red Sea.	
—— Ormus,	between	Perſia and Arab.	Aſia,	Perſian Gulph.	
—— Malacca,	between	Mal. and Sumat.	Aſia,	Indian Ocean.	
—— Magellan,	in Patagonia,	South	America,	Atlant. & S. Sea.	
—— La Mare,	in Patagonia,	South	America,	Atlant. & S. Sea.	
Suez,	Suez,	Egypt,	Africa	29 50 N.	33 27 E.
Sunderland,	Durham,	England,	Europe	54 55 N.	1 10 W.
SURINAM,	Surinam,	South	America	6 00 N.	55 30 W.
SURAT,	Cambaya,	Eaſt India,	Aſia	21 10 N.	72 25 E.
SYRACUSE,	Sicily Iſle,	Mediterranean,	Europe	37 04 N.	15 05 E.
T					
TANGIER,	Fez,	Barbary,	Africa	35 42 N.	5 45 W.
Tanjour,	Tanjour,	Eaſt India,	Aſia	11 27 N.	79 07 E.
Tauris, or Ecbatana,	Medea,	Perſia,	Aſia,	38 20 N.	46 30 E.
Teflis,	Georgia,	Perſia,	Aſia,	43 30 N.	47 00 E.
Tetuan	Fez,	Barbary,	Africa	35 40 N.	5 18 W.
Thorn,	Regal Pruſſia,	Poland,	Europe	52 56 N.	19 00 E.
TOBOLSKI,	Siberia,	Ruſſia,	Aſia	58 00 N.	69 00 E.
Toledo,	New Caſtile,	Spain,	Europe	39 45 N.	4 12 W.
Toulon,	Provence,	France,	Europe	43 07 N.	6 00 E.
Trapeſond,	Natolia,	Turkey,	Aſia	41 50 N.	40 30 E.
Trent,	Trent,	Germany,	Europe	46 05 N.	11 02 E.
Troy Ruins,	Natolia,	Turkey,	Aſia	39 30 N.	26 30 E.
TRIPOLI,	Tripoli,	Barbary,	Africa	33 30 N.	14 30 E.
Tripoli,	Syria,	Turkey,	Aſia	34 30 N.	36 15 E.
TUNIS,	Tunis,	Barbary,	Africa	36 47 N.	10 00 E.
TURIN,	Piedmont,	Italy,	Europe	44 50 N.	7 30 E.
Tyre,	Judea,	Turkey,	Aſia	32 32 N.	36 00 E.
U					
UTRECHT,	Holland,	Netherlands,	Europe	52 07 N.	5 00 E.
V					
VENICE,	Venice,	Italy,	Europe	45 25 N.	12 10 E.
Vera Cruz,	Old Mexico,	North	America	18 30 N.	97 48 W.
Verſailles,	Iſle of France,	France,	Europe	41 40 N.	2 15 E.
VIENNA,	Auſtria,	Germany,	Europe	48 20 N.	16 20 E.
W					
WARWICK,	Warwickſhire,	England,	Europe	52 18 N.	1 32 W.
WARSAW,	Warſovia,	Poland,	Europe	52 15 N.	21 05 E.
Waterford,	Munſter,	Ireland,	Europe	52 12 N.	7 16 W.
Whitehaven,	Cumberland,	England,	Europe	54 38 N.	3 36 W.
WILLIAMSBURGH,	Virginia,	North	America	37 12 N.	76 48 W.
Wells,	Somerſetſhire,	England,	Europe	51 12 N.	2 40 W.
Winchester,	Hampſhire,	England,	Europe	51 06 N.	1 5 W.
Worms,	Lower Rhine,	Germany,	Europe	49 38 N.	8 05 E.
Worceſter,	Worceſterſhire,	England,	Europe	52 10 N.	2 15 W.
Y					
YARMOUTH,	Norfolk,	England,	Europe	52 45 N.	1 48 E.
York,	Yorkſhire,	England,	Europe	54 00 N.	1 03 W.

The

The Superficial CONTENTS *of the* GLOBE *of the* EARTH, *and its Diviſions in Square Miles.*

GLOBE of EARTH and SEA, 148,510,627 Square Miles.

Seas and unknown Parts 117,843,822

The inhabitable Parts 30,666,805

Aſia	10,257,487	Perſian Preſent	800,000	Netherlands	12,968
Africa	8,506,208	Ruſſian Empire	3,303,485	Norway	71,400
Europe	2,749,349	Turkiſh Empire	960,057	Poland	226,414
North America	3,699,087	Denmark	163,000	Spain with Portugal	144,236
South America	5,454,675	France	131,095	Sweden	76,835
Chineſe Empire	1,749,000	Germany	56,950	Switzerland	7,533
Mogul's Empire	1,116,000	Hungary	75,525		
Perſian under Darius	1,650,000	Italy	75,525		

ISLANDS in Order of Magnitude.

Borneo	228,000	Formoſa	17,000	Negropont	1,300	Lemnos	220
Madagaſcar	168,000	Aniany	11,900	Teneriff	1,272	Corfu	194
Sumatra	129,000	Sicily	9,400	Gothland	1,000	Providence	168
Japan	118,000	Timor	7,800	Madeira	950	Man	160
Great Britain	72,926	Sardinia	6,600	St. Michael	920	Bornholm	160
Celebes	68,000	Cyprus	6,300	Skye	900	Wight	150
Manilla	58,000	Jamaica	6,000	Lewis	880	Malta	150
Iceland	46,000	Ceram	5,400	Funen	768	Barbadoes	140
Terra del Fuego	42,075	Cape Breton	4,000	Yvica	625	Zant	120
Mindanao	39,000	Socotora	3,600	Minorca	520	Antigua	100
Cuba	38,400	Candia	3,220	Rhodes	480	St. Chriſtopher's	80
Java	38,250	Porto Rico	3,200	Cephalonia	420	St. Helena	80
Hiſpaniola	36,000	Corſica	2,520	Amboyna	400	Guernſey	50
Newfoundland	35,500	Zealand	1,935	Orkney Pomona	324	Jerſey	43
Ceylon	27,730	Majorca	1,400	Scio	300	Bermudas	40
Ireland	27,457	St. Jago	1,400	Martinico	260	Rhodes	36

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2,968	
1,400	
6,414	
4,236	
6,835	
7,533	
220	
194	
168	
160	
160	
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GUIDE

Engraved for BANKES's New System of GEOGRAPHY. Published by Royal Authority.

A

GUIDE

TO

GEOGRAPHY, ASTRONOMY, the USE of the GLOBES, MAPS, &c.

GEOGRAPHY is a term derived from two Greek words, (γη, ſignifying *the earth*, and γραφω, *to deſcribe*,) implying a general Deſcription of what is called the Terraqueous or Terreſtrial Globe.

There are other terms, which, though compriſed in the general one of Geography, may be defined abſtractedly: thus, *Hydrography* implies a deſcription of water; *Chorography* ſignifies the deſcription of a country, or province; *Topography* means the deſcription of a particular diſtrict, city, town, village, &c.

TERMS USED IN GEOGRAPHY.

THE principal terms uſed in Geography, reſpecting the deſcription of land and water, are as follow:

A Continent implies a large portion of earth, comprifing ſeveral countries, which are not ſeparated by the ſea.

An Iſland is a portion of earth entirely ſurrounded by water.

A Peninſula is a quantity of land, joined to the continent by a ſmall neck, and every where elſe ſurrounded by water.

An Iſthmus is that neck which connects the peninſula to the main land.

A Promontory, or Cape, is a high point of land, which ſtretches into the ſea.

An Ocean is an immenſe collection of water, ſurrounding a great part of the continent.

A Sea is a ſmaller collection of water, or an inferior ocean.

A Gulph is a part of the ſea almoſt ſurrounded by land, except at one ſmall part, where it joins the main ſea.

A Bay is, in general, leſs than a gulph, and has a wider entrance.

A Creek is leſs than a bay, and may be deemed a ſmall inlet of water, running a little way into the land.

A Road is a place on the coaſt, where there is a good anchorage.

A Streight, or Strait, is a narrow paſſage of water, which joins two ſeas, two gulphs, a ſea and a gulph, &c.

A Lake is a collection of water, ſurrounded by land.

A River is a ſtream of water, which derives its ſource from ſome inland ſpring, meanders through the country, and empties itſelf either into the ocean, the ſea, or ſome other river.

For the help of memory, we ſhall recapitulate the foregoing geographical terms in verſe.

A *Continent*'s a *Track* of land defin'd,
Compriſing countries not by ſeas disjoin'd.
The wat'ry element an *Iſland* bounds,
And ev'ry where with circling waves ſurrounds;
And a *Peninſula*'s an earthly ſpace,
Which (one part only) flowing waves embrace.
That part, or neck, which joins it to the main,
By the word *Iſthmus* fully we explain.
A *Promontory* is, as all agree,
A point of land projecting in the ſea.
The earthly globe the ſurging *Oceans* bound,
And leſſer *Seas* more narrow ſhores ſurround.
For an inferior ſea a *Gulph* may ſtand,
Almoſt enclos'd and circumſcrib'd by land.
A *Bay* is a ſmaller *Gulph* defin'd:
A *Creek*'s a ſmaller bay, leſs mov'd by wind.
A *Road* is where a ſhip may ride with eaſe:
A *Streight*'s a narrow paſs that joins two ſeas.
A *Lake*'s an inland ſea with certain bounds,
Which banking earth on ev'ry ſide ſurrounds.
A *River* through the land meand'ring goes,
Streams from its ſource, and to the ocean flows.

OF THE ARTIFICIAL SPHERE, OR GLOBE.

THE Sphere is an artificial machine, conſiſting of many circles, invented by the ſagacity of mathematicians, to explain the doctrine of the Globe, or Orrery; and to illuſtrate the motions of the earth, planets, &c.

Every circle is divided into 360 equal parts, which we call degrees; each degree into 60 more equal parts, called minutes.

The *Plane* of a circle means that ſurface on which it is drawn; and if the ſurface be ſuppoſed of an infinite extent from the center, it is ſtill called the Plane of that circle. But circles are ſaid to be in different Planes, when the ſurfaces on which they are made incline to or interſect each other.

The *Axis* is that line which we conceive to paſs through the middle of the earth, and on which the whole maſs turns round, repreſented in the artificial Globe by a wire. The two extremities of the Axis are called the Poles of the Equator; and if the Axis be imagined to reach the ſtars, one point is called the Arctic, and the other the Antarctic, or the North and South Poles of the World.

The principal Great Circles are theſe:

The *Equator* is a great circle, going from eaſt to weſt, which parts the globe into the north and ſouth hemiſpheres. It is named the Equator, or Equinoctial Line, becauſe when the ſun arrives there the nights and days are equal. It is alſo divided into 360 degrees, reckoned eaſtward from the firſt Meridian.

The *Horizon* is that great circle which parts the upper hemiſphere from the lower, or the viſible from the inviſible hemiſphere. So much of the earth as we comprehend in our view, in a circular manner when we ſtand on a plain, is called the Senſible Horizon. It is a moveable circle, having the zenith point over the ſpectator's head, and the nadir point under his feet, for its two poles. But the Rational Horizon is to ſuppoſe the eye at the center of the earth, viewing the whole celeſtial hemiſphere upwards; which is repreſented by a broad wooden circle encompaſſing the globe, on which are deſcribed ſeveral other circles. The inner one is divided into twelve equal parts, ſhewing the twelve ſigns of the zodiac; each of which is ſubdivided into thirty degrees, marked 10, 20, 30. The next contains a calendar, according to the Old Style, divided into months and days; and the other is a calendar according to the New Style.

The *Meridian* is a great circle, dividing the globe into the eaſt and weſt hemiſpheres; it lies directly north and ſouth, paſſing through the poles of the equator. The Meridian is changeable, being properly that part of the heavens where the ſun is at noon; ſo that every place on the earth has a different Meridian, if we move eaſt or weſt; but paſſing north or ſouth, it remains the ſame. The Meridians marked on the Globe are 24 ſemicircles, ending in the poles, which we may multiply at pleaſure; for Geographers uſually ſettle one Meridian, from whence they reckon the longitude of any place, eaſt or weſt; as in the new ſet of Maps for this Geography, London is made the firſt Meridian. The globe hangs in a braſs circle, on which is placed another ſmall braſs one, called the horary circle; this is divided into 24 equal parts, and deſcribes the hours of day and night, which, in turning of the Globe, are pointed out by an index fitted to the pole. This is to ſhew the riſing and ſetting of the ſun, moon, and ſtars; or the time of day in all parts of the earth. The degrees of latitude are marked on any Meridian line; but in maps always on the two outermoſt.

There are two other meridians, called *Colures*, which being alſo great circles, cut the ſphere into four equal parts. The Solſtice Colure goes through the poles, and cuts the ecliptic at the firſt degree of Cancer and Capricorn: the Equinox Colure goes likewiſe through the poles, but cuts the ecliptic at the beginning of Aries and Libra. By theſe the ſeaſons are diſtinguiſhed; for when the earth, in its annual courſe, paſſes under the Equinox Colure, then commence the ſpring and autumn; but when it paſſes under the Solſtice Colure, the winter and ſummer begin.

The *Ecliptic* is a great oblique circle, cutting the equator at angles of 23 degrees, 29 minutes. It deſcribes the annual courſe of the earth, north and ſouth: but the courſe of the planets and moon lies eight degrees farther on each ſide; which broad part of the ſphere is commonly called the Zodiac, containing 16 degrees; the Ecliptic being that circle in the middle, which is divided into 12 ſigns, each containing 30 degrees. The characters and names of the ſigns are thus:

Aries	♈	*Cancer*	♋	*Libra*	♎	*Capricorn*	♑
Taurus	♉	*Leo*	♌	*Scorpio*	♏	*Aquarius*	♒
Gemini	♊	*Virgo*	♍	*Sagittarius*	♐	*Piſces*	♓

There are two more Great Circles, called *Vertical*, or *Azimuth Circles*. Theſe are perpendicular to the horizon, and paſs through the zenith and nadir. They are not drawn on the Globe, but repreſented by the quadrant of altitude, which is a very thin plate of braſs, made to ſcrew on the zenith of any place, and to reach the horizon; being alſo divided into 90 degrees, for taking the altitude of the ſun or ſtars, when they are not on the meridian.

The Leſſer Circles are four.

The two *Tropics* are thoſe of Cancer and Capricorn: the firſt is 23 degrees, 29 minutes, north from the equator; and the other is the ſame diſtance to the ſouth. On all globes and maps they are known by a double line.

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The two remaining Circles are ſtill ſmaller, called the *Arctic* or *Polar Circles*. The North Pole Circle is diſtant 23 degrees, 29 minutes, from the North Pole; and the South Pole Circle is equidiſtant from the South Pole. Theſe Circles have alſo double lines.

The Cardinal Points are the four quarters of the world, eaſt, weſt, north, and ſouth.

The Collateral Points are the principal diviſions and ſubdiviſions of the four chief: in all 32.

The earth being divided into five parts, by the two Tropics and the two Polar Circles, thoſe five parts are named Zones. Two Temperate, two Frigid, and the Torrid Zone.

The North Temperate Zone includes all the land between the Tropic of Cancer and the North Pole Circle; and the South Temperate Zone includes all between the Tropic of Capricorn and the South Pole Circle.

The two Frigid Zones contain all the land from the two Polar Circles to the very Poles. Theſe, by the ancients, were thought uninhabitable; but navigators have diſcovered many well-peopled countries within the Arctic Circle, almoſt round the North Pole; though none as yet has been diſcovered within the Antarctic, or South Frigid Zone.

The Torrid Zone includes all the ſpace between the two Tropics, the Equator being in the middle. The whole is thoroughly inhabited, thought it lies under the full annual courſe of the ſun; for which reaſon the ancients thought it could not be peopled for extreme heat, any more than the Frigid Zones for extreme cold.

The Temperate Zones contain, in latitude, each 43 degrees, 2 minutes, being the ſpace between each Tropic and the Pole Circle. The Frigid Zones contain each 46 degrees, 58 minutes; that is to ſay, 23 degrees, 29 minutes, on either ſide the Pole: and the Torrid Zone, in like manner, contains 46 degrees, 58 minutes, latitude; that is, 23 degrees, 29 minutes, on each ſide the Equator.

OF SHADOWS.

THE ancients alſo named the inhabitants of the earth according to which way the Shadows of their bodies were caſt by the noontide ſun.

Periſcii are thoſe beyond the Polar Circles, whoſe bodily Shadows turn round every 24 hours.

Heteroſcii are thoſe people in the Temperate Zones, whoſe noon Shadows ever fall one way; the North Temperate Zone throwing it north, and the South Temperate Zone throwing it ſouth.

Amphiſcii are thoſe who live in the Torrid, or Middle Zone. Their noon Shadows fall different ways at different Seaſons: for when the ſun gets to the ſign Cancer, being the North Tropic, their Shadows fall ſouth; and when the ſun reaches Capricorn, or the South Tropic, the Shadows go North. And becauſe, twice a year, their bodies make no ſhade at all, the ſun paſſing juſt over their heads, they are therefore called *Aſcii*.

Periſcii is from περὶ, which means *round about*; and σκιὰ, *a Shadow*. *Heteroſcii is from* ἕτερος, meaning *one only*, and σκιὰ. *Amphiſcii* is from ἀμφὶ, *both ways*. And *Aſcii* is from α, and σκιὰ; that is, *without a Shadow*.

OF SITUATIONS.

THE *Perieci* are thoſe people who live in the ſame parallel, have the ſame latitude and ſeaſons, and the ſame pole elevated; but have oppoſite meridians, and conſequently oppoſite days and nights.

The *Antieci* are thoſe who have the ſame meridian, but oppoſite parallels; equidiſtant from the Equator, though on contrary ſides. Their longitude is the ſame, and conſequently the ſame length of day and night; but they have contrary poles and ſeaſons; and when it is noon with one, it is midnight with the other.

Antipodes are ſuch whoſe parallel and meridian are both oppoſite. They have the whole globe of the earth between them, in diametrical oppoſition: they have contrary poles elevated: their feet are directly oppoſite, and conſequently their nights and days, winter and ſummer.

OF LATITUDE AND LONGITUDE.

THE exact ſituation of cities and places, where the inhabitants of the earth reſide, is more particularly called their Latitude and Longitude. Latitude is the diſtance of any place from each ſide of the Equator to either of the Poles; which diſtance being but 90 degrees each, no Latitude can exceed that number.

Longitude is the diſtance of a place from the firſt, or ſome other meridian. When Ptolemy invented the way of diſtinguiſhing the ſituation of places, he did it by parallel and meridian lines; the latter paſſing round the globe through the Equator and Poles, and the former lying parallel to the Equator, which parallel lines were found very convenient for marking the Latitude into degrees and minutes. Then for Longitude, he fixed upon Teneriffe, one of the Canary Iſlands, as the moſt weſtern part of the then known world; which having a very high mountain, was a good mark for mariners, and the fitteſt place from whence to begin a general computation

putation. Accordingly all the old maps begin their East Longitude from Teneriffe; and, becauſe then only one ſide of the globe was known, the degrees were only 180: but ſince the diſcovery of America, they are carried quite round to 360. This method was always eſteemed, and Teneriffe reckoned a good ſtanding meridian, till the French, who like nothing which they themſelves do not invent, thought proper to alter it, and make the Iſland Faro their new meridian, which, by late obſervations, lies juſt two degrees more weſt. Wherefore, to prevent confuſion, our modern Geographers, and delineators of maps, make the metropolis of their own nation the firſt real meridian; and, in this caſe, Longitude is two-fold, being, from London, either weſt or eaſt; as at ſea it is computed from ſome known port or head-land.

The Longitude of any place from London being known, the difference in the hour of the day is alſo known. For as the ſun performs his diurnal circuit in 24 hours, he gains in each hour 15 degrees, being a twenty-fourth part of 360, or one degree in four minutes. So that at any place 15 degrees eaſt of us, noon is an hour ſooner with them, as it is an hour later with thoſe who live 15 degrees weſt from us. The town of Pembroke, in Wales, being five degrees weſt of London, their noon is therefore 20 minutes later. If a clock, or any time-piece, could be ſo made as to go equal and true at any ſeaſon, or diſtance, the theory of Longitude at ſea would be no more a myſtery; but as that is impracticable, our modern Aſtronomers have contented themſelves with obſerving the Solar and Lunar Eclipſes; for if their appearances and calculations are exactly known with us, and the ſame appearances are obſerved in any other part of this globe, the difference ariſing from thoſe times will ſettle the difference in Longitude by the foregoing rule. The Eclipſes alſo of Jupiter's Moons, and the ſpheroidal figure of the Earth, two important diſcoveries of the ſeventeenth century, will each, in their turn, lead us farther on to a true ſyſtem of Longitude.

Laſtly, Though all degrees of Latitude are equal in length, yet degrees of Longitude vary in every new parallel of Latitude: for all the meridian lines meeting and interſecting each other at the poles, the degrees of Longitude do naturally diminiſh as they proceed either way from the Equator. The beſt explanation of which is an orange with the peel ſtripped off; where the natural partitions not only reſemble, but are truely the meridians of a Globe, croſſing each other at the top and bottom: whereas, if the orange is cut in ſlices the contrary way, the diviſions are parallel, and the degrees of Latitude all equal.

The following Table ſhews how the degrees of Longitude diminiſh throughout all the parallels of Latitude; reckoning 60 parts, or miles, for a degree at the Equator.

A TABLE, *ſhewing the Number of Miles contained in a Degree of Longitude, in each Parallel of Latitude from the Equator.*

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

A TABLE, *ſhewing in what Climate any Country lies, ſuppoſing the Length of the Day, and the Diſtance of Place from the Equator, to be known.*

Cli.	Latitude. D.	M.	Breadth. D.	M.	Longeſt Day. H.	M.	Names of Countries and remarkable Places, ſituated in every Climate North of the Equator.
1	8	25	8	25	12	30	I. Within the firſt climate lie the Gold and Silver Coaſt, in Africa; Malacca, in the Eaſt-Indies; Cayenne and Surinam, in Terra Firma, South America.
2	16	25	8		13		II. Here lie Abyſſinia, in Africa; Siam, Madraſs, and Pondicherry, in the Eaſt-Indies; Straits of Darien, between North and South America; Tobago, Granades, St. Vincent, and Barbadoes, in the Weſt Indies.
3	23	50	7	25	13	30	III. Contains Mecca, in Arabia; Bombay, part of Bengal, in the Eaſt-Indies; Canton, in China; Mexico, Bay of Campeachy, in North America; Jamaica, Hiſpaniola, St. Chriſtopher's, Antigua, Martinico, and Guadaloupe, in the Weſt-Indies.
4	30	25	6	30	14		IV. Egypt, and the Canary Iſlands, in Africa; Delli, capital of the Mogul Empire, in Aſia; Gulph of Mexico, and Eaſt-Florida, in North America; the Havannah, in the Weſt-Indies.
5	36	28	6	8	14	30	V. Gibraltar, in Spain; part of the Mediterranean Sea; the Barbary Coaſt, in Africa; Jeruſalem; Iſpahan, capital of Perſia; Nanking, in China; California, New Mexico, Weſt Florida, Georgia, and the Carolinas, in North America.
6	41	22	4	54	15		VI. Liſbon, in Portugal; Madrid, in Spain; Minorca, Sardinia, and part of Greece, in the Mediterranean; Aſia Minor, part of the Caſpian Sea; Samarcand, in Great Tartary; Peking, in China; Corea and Japan; Williamſburgh, in Virginia; Maryland and Philadelphia, in North America.
7	45	29	4	7	15	30	VII. Northern Provinces of Spain; Southern ditto of France; Turin, Genoa, and Rome, in Italy; Conſtantinople, and the Black Sea, in Turkey; the Caſpian Sea, and part of Tartary; New York, Boſton, in New England, North America.
8	49	01	3	32	16		VIII. Paris; Vienna, capital of Germany; New Scotland, Newfoundland, and Canada, in North America.
9	52	00	2	57	16	30	IX. London, Flanders, Prague, Dreſden; Cracow, in Poland; ſouthern Provinces of Ruſſia; part of Tartary; north part of Newfoundland.
10	54	27	2	29	17		X. Dublin, York, Holland, Hanover; Warſaw, in Poland; Labradore, and New South Wales, in North America.
11	56	37	2	10	17	30	XI. Edinburgh, Copenhagen; Muſcow, capital of Ruſſia.
12	58	29	1	52	18		XII. South part of Sweden; Tobolſki, capital of Siberia.
13	59	58	1	29	1	30	XIII. Orkney Iſles; Stockholm, capital of Sweden.
14	61	18	1	20	19		XIV. Bergen, in Norway; Peterſburgh, in Ruſſia.
15	62	25	1	7	19	30	XV. Hudſon's Straits, North America.
16	63	22		57	20		XVI. Siberia, and the ſouth part of Weſt Greenland.
17	64	06		44	20	30	XVII. Drontheim, in Norway.
18	64	49		43	21		XVIII. Part of Finland, in Ruſſia.
19	65	21		32	21	30	XIX. Archangel, on the White Sea, Ruſſia.
20	65	47		22	22		XX. Hecla, in Iceland.
21	66	06		19	22	30	XXI. Northern parts of Ruſſia and Siberia.
22	66	20		14	23		XXII. New North Wales, in North America.
23	66	28		8	23	30	XXIII. Davis's Straits, in ditto.
24	66	31		3	24		XXIV. Samoieda.
25	67	21		1	Month		XXV. South part of Lapland.
26	69	48		2	Months		XXVI. Weſt Greenland.
27	73	37		3	Months		XXVII. Zembla Auſtralis,
28	78	30		4	Months		XXVIII. Zembla Borealis.
29	84	05		5	Months		XXIX. Spitſbergen, or Eaſt Greenland.
30	90			6	Months		XXX. Unknown.

THE SOLAR SYSTEM.*

TO explain the diſpoſition of the ſeveral parts of the univerſe, and demonſtrate the nature of the heavenly motions with reſpect to each other, and to the earth, it is neceſſary to underſtand the *Syſtem of the World.*

Several *Syſtems* have, at various times, been formed chiefly from conjecture; but, the aſtoniſhing improvements in aſtronomy, made in later ages, have exploded erroneous ſuppoſitions; and experience, aſſiſted by experiment, have, at length, fixed, on a permanent baſis, the only true Syſtem, called the *Solar Syſtem.*

This admirable Syſtem was invented by Copernicus, a Pruſſian, and afterwards fully domonſtrated and explained by the incomparable Sir Iſaac Newton, who clearly elucidated the harmony of the univerſe;

" Where order in variety we ſee;
" And where, tho' all things differ, all agree."

This Syſtem conſiſts of the Sun in the center, and the Planets and Comets moving about it.

The Planets are vaſt bodies, which, to us, appear like ſtars; not that they have any light in themſelves, but ſhine merely by reflecting the light of the ſun.

" Each Planet, ſhining in his proper ſphere,
" Does, with juſt ſpeed, his radiant voyage ſteer:
" Each ſees his lamp with different luſtre crown'd,
" Each knows his courſe with different periods bound;
" And, in his paſſage through the liquid ſpace,
" Nor haſtens, nor retards, his neighbours' race.
" Now ſhine theſe Planets with ſubſtantial rays?
" Does innate luſtre gild their meaſur'd days?
" No; but they do, as is by ſyſtem ſhewn,
" Dart fertive beams, and glory, not their own;
" All ſervants to that ſource of light, the Sun."

The Planets are either *Primary*, or *Secondary*.

The Primary Planets are ſix in number, viz.

Mercury,	Earth,	Jupiter,
Venus,	Mars,	Saturn.

Theſe are called Primary Planets, becauſe they move round the Sun; and the other Planets are called Secondary, becauſe they move round the Primary Planets.

The Secondary Planets are ten in number, and go under the general name of *Moons:* of theſe *one* moves round the *Earth*, *four* round *Jupiter*, and *five* round *Saturn*.

With reſpect to *Comets*, it is univerſally agreed, that they are immenſe bodies, revolving about the ſun in elliptical orbits. Their periodical times are equally conſtant, certain, and regular, as thoſe of the Planets; but the bodies themſelves are abundantly more denſe, as they paſs through greater extremes of heat and cold, without any ſenſible diminution.

All Comets are Spheres, with large atmoſpheres ſurrounding them. Theſe, in their neareſt acceſs to the ſun, by the intenſe heat emitted therefrom, are ſo much rarified, as to be abundantly lighter than the ſun's atmoſphere, and extended into long lucid tails, towards thoſe parts oppoſite the ſun. As Comets recede from the ſun, their tails diminiſh, and their atmoſpheres increaſe gradually, until they approach the greateſt diſtance from the ſun, and then their tails are contracted into circumambient atmoſpheres. With regard to motion, Comets and Planets have this difference: all Planets move from eaſt to weſt in the plane of the ecliptic, and in orbits nearly circular; but Comets, in their very elliptical orbits, traverſe the compaſs in all directions, (the plane of the ecliptic excepted), and that in a manner ſo wonderful, as not to interfere in the orbits of each other. Superſtition long held them as ominous, and the vulgar ſuppoſed they were certain forerunners of ſome tremendous event.

" Thus terribly in air the Comets roll,
" And ſhoot malignant gleams from pole to pole:
" 'Tween worlds and worlds they move, and, from their air,
" Shake the blue plague, the peſtilence, and war."

SUN.

THE Sun, ſituated in the centre of the univerſe, is the fountain of light, the ſource of the ſeaſons, the cauſe of the viciſſitudes of day and night, the parent of vegetation, and the friend of man. It is a prodigious body of intenſe heat, and amazing illumination. In fine, when we view the Sun we behold a globe of liquid fire, whoſe diameter is equal to 100 diameters of the earth; the thickneſs being 793,000 miles. Its ſurface is 10,000 times larger than the earth, and its ſolidity 1,000,000 greater: that is, the ſurface is the ſquare of the thickneſs, and the ſolidity its cube.

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* Though the Newtonian Syſtem ſeems to differ, in ſome reſpects, from the account of the Creation by Moſes, yet both are true, and the variation is only in point of expreſſion. Moſes alludes to the rotation of the ſun round its own axis, which ſome have miſtaken for a motion round the earth. But it ſhould be recollected, that Moſes had an ignorant and ſtiff-necked people to deal with; in conſequence of which he talked as a *Moraliſt*, not as a *Philoſopher*, and wiſhed to make them *good*, not *learned*: he therefore ſacrificed mathematical diſtinctions to the more immediate duties of his function as a religious Law-giver.

" The

" The Sun, that rolls his beamy orbs on high,
" Pride of the world, and glory of the ſky,
" Illuſtrious in his courſe, in bright array,
" Marches along the heav'ns, and ſcatters day
" O'er earth, and o'er the main, and the ethereal way.
" He in the morn renews his radiant round,
" And warms the fragrant boſom of the ground;
" But, ere the noon of day, in firy gleams,
" He darts the glory of his blazing beams.
" Beneath the burnings of his ſultry ray,
" Earth, to her center pierc'd, admits the day."

MERCURY.

THE Planet Mercury is about two-thirds of the earth's magnitude, being 2700 miles in diameter. His diſtance from the earth is 88,000,000 of miles, and from the ſun 32,000,000 of miles. His revolution round the ſun is made in a little more than 88 days, with the velocity of 100,000 miles in an hour, which is almoſt as ſwift again as the earth travels; for we only go 56,000 miles in the ſame ſpace. The heat of the ſun in this Planet is ſomething more than ſeven times greater than the heat of the hotteſt part of the earth in the moſt ſultry ſummer, which is ſufficient to make water boil.

" Mercury, neareſt to the central Sun,
" Does, in his oval orbit, circling run;
" But ſeldom is the object of our ſight,
" In ſolar glory ſunk, and more prevailing light."

VENUS.

THE Planet Venus appears to the eye to be the brighteſt of all the Planets: and, from its ſuperior luſtre, it cannot be miſtaken for any of them. The diſtance of Venus from the ſun is 60,000,000 of miles: her revolution round the ſun is performed in little more than 224 days, and her motion in an hour is 70,000 miles. From the uncommon brightneſs of this Planet, the poets have made it the Goddeſs of Beauty.

——" She turn'd, and made appear
" Her neck refulgent, and diſhevel'd hair;
" Which, flowing on her ſhoulders, reach'd the ground,
" And widely ſpread ambroſial ſcents around:
" In length of train deſcends her ſweeping gown;
" And by her graceful walk the Queen of Love is known."

EARTH.

THE Earth forms its revolution round the ſun in 365 days, 5 hours, and 49 minutes, which revolution makes what we term a year. The Earth is near 80,000 miles in diameter, and diſtant from the ſun about 81,000,000 of miles. The line which this Planet deſcribes in its annual motion is called the Ecliptic, through which it proceeds from weſt to eaſt, according to the ſigns of the Zodiac; and it is this motion which cauſes the different ſeaſons of ſpring, ſummer, autumn, and winter, and of the various lengths of days and nights in thoſe ſeaſons.

The Earth, in paſſing through the ecliptic, always keeps its axis in a ſituation parallel to itſelf, and equally inclined to the plane of the ecliptic, which is 23 degrees and a half.

The rotation of the Earth round its own axis, makes it day in thoſe parts which are turned towards the ſun, and night in thoſe parts which are turned from the ſun.

" While the bright radiant ſun in centre glows,
" The Earth, in annual motion, round it goes;
" At the ſame time on its own axis reels,
" And gives us change of ſeaſons as it wheels:
" Hence ſtars we ſee in various order bright;
" Hence we are bleſt with change of day and night."

MARS.

MARS is ſituated next above the earth in the ſyſtem of the univerſe, his courſe being in the interval between the orbit of Jupiter and that of the Earth, but very diſtant from both. It is the leaſt of all the Planets, Mercury excepted; has leſs luſtre than any other ſtar, and appears of a duſky red hue. Mars is conſiderably leſs than the Earth, its diameter being only 4400 miles. His diſtance from the ſun is 123,000,000 of miles; and he revolves about that central luminary in 687 days, proceeding at the rate of 45,000 miles in an hour. From the ſanguinary appearance of this Planet, the ancient poets, in their fables, deemed it the God of War.

" Thus on the banks of Hebrus' freezing flood,
" The God of Battles, in his angry mood,
" Claſhing his ſword againſt his brazen ſhield,
" Lets looſe the reigns, and ſcours along the field.
" Before the wind his firy courſers fly;
" Groans the ſad earth, reſounds the rattling ſky.
" *Wrath*, *Terror*, *Treaſon*, *Tumult*, and *Deſpair*,
" Dire faces, and deform'd, ſurround the car;
" Friends of the God, and followers of the war.

JUPTER.

JUPITER is the largeſt of all the Planets; but being very remote from the Sun, would ſcarce enjoy any light, had not the great Author of Nature provided it with four moons, or ſatellites, which revolve round it in different orbits.

The diameter of Jupiter is upwards of 80,000 miles, and the maſs of matter it contains 220 times greater than our Earth. His diſtance from the ſun is 424,000,000 of miles. He revolves round his own axis in 9 hours and 56 minutes; round the ſun in 11 years and 10 months; and proceeds at the rate of 24,000 miles an hour.

Excluſive of a famous ſpot by which the diurnal motion of this Planet was originally determined, it has ſwathes, or belts, round it, that are moveable, and which are formed by clouds; and like the trade winds to us, lie in tracks parallel to the equator. The poets feigned this Planet to be the head of the heathen Deities, or fabulous Gods, and repreſented him as having the command of the thunderbolts.

" The pow'r immenſe, eternal energy,
" The king of Gods and men, whoſe awful hand
" Diſperſes thunder on the ſeas and land,
" Diſpoſing all with abſolute command."

SATURN.

SATURN is the moſt diſtant Planet in the whole ſyſtem, being 779,000,000 of miles from the ſun. He is 30 years in performing his revolution, and yet moves at the rate of 18,000 miles an hour. He is 61,000 miles in diameter, contains 94 times as much matter as the Earth; but his denſity is not more than a ſeventh part of the matter which compoſes our Planet.

As the light and heat in Saturn are not above a ninetieth part of what we enjoy from the ſun, the wiſe Creator of the Univerſe hath accommodated Saturn with five moons, which revolve round him in different orbs. But the moſt ſingular circumſtance relative to this Planet is his ring. This is a vaſt body of earth, of the thickneſs of near 800 miles, which ſurrounds Saturn in form of a circle, at the diſtance of 21,000 miles from its ſurface.

SECONDARY PLANETS.

THE Secondary Planets, as we have already obſerved, are ten in number, vix. five belonging to Saturn, four to Jupiter, and one to our Earth.

With reſpect to nine of theſe Moons, or Satellites, namely, thoſe belonging to Saturn and Jupiter, they were unknown till the laſt century, by reaſon of their being ſo diminutive, that they could not be ſeen from our Earth without the uſe of long teleſcopes; hence, till thoſe optical glaſſes were improved, theſe Secondary Planets were unobſerved.

The Moon, which lights our Earth, contains about the fortieth part of the quantity, or maſs of matter, which compoſe the Planet we reſide upon. It is near 2200 miles in diameter, 240,000 miles diſtant from us; and its ſurface is about 14,000,000 of ſquare miles.

The Moon is the quickeſt in its motion of all the Planets, making its revolution in 27 days, ſeven hours, and three quarters. The light which this Planet affords us at night is not the only benefit we receive from it; for it governs the waters, and occaſions the tides, which are of infinite benefit to mankind.

———" The Moon, as day-light fades,
" Lifts her broad circle in the deep'ning ſhades:
" Array'd in glory, and enthron'd in light,
" She breaks the ſolemn terrors of the night:
" Sweetly inconſtant in her varying flame,
" She changes ſtill, another, yet the ſame:
" Now, in decreaſe, by ſlow degrees ſhe ſhrouds
" Her fading luſtres in a vale of clouds:
" Now, at increaſe, her gath'ring beams diſplay
" A blaze of light, and give a paler day.
" Ten thouſand ſtars adorn her glitt'ring train,
" Fall when ſhe falls, and riſe with her again;
" And o'er the deſerts of the ſky unfold
" Their burning ſpangles of fidereal gold.
" Thro' the wide heav'ns ſhe moves ſerenely bright,
" Queen of the gay attendants of the night.
" Orb above orb in ſweet confuſion lies,
" And with a bright diſorder paints the ſkies."

FIXED STARS.

THE difference, with regard to viſion, between the fixed Stars and Planets is, that the latter have a more placid luſtre than the former. The fixed Stars have the ſource of light within themſelves, being Suns; but the Planets are compoſed of opake matter, and have no light but what they receive from the Sun, or their own Satellites. Hence, though the fixed ſtars are at an immenſe diſtance, their brightneſs exceeds that of the Planets, and they are to be diſtinguiſhed by their twinkling; though Venus and Mercury both twinkle, but not in ſo great a degree as the fixed Stars.

Beyond the atmoſphere of our Syſtem the heavens are filled with a fluid much more rarified than our air, and here the fixed Stars are placed at different, but immenſe, diſtances from us, and very great diſtances from each other.

other. "We muſt have a vaſt idea of this ſpace, (ſays an accurate writer,) when we conſider that the largeſt of the fixed Stars, which are probably the neareſt to us, are at a diſtance too great for the expreſſion of all that we can conceive from figures, and for all means of admeaſurement. The ſmalleſt are, doubtleſs, more and more remote, to the leaſt, which are of the ſixth magnitude. Theſe muſt be in a part of the heavens more remote from us than the others; and yet beyond theſe teleſcopes diſcover to us more Stars, too diſtant to be at all perceptible to the naked eye; and in proportion to the power of theſe inſtruments, more or leſs we diſcover." Hence we may obtain ſome idea of the infinite wiſdom and power of the Great Creator of the Univerſe;

"Who ſpread the pure cerulean fields on high,
"And arch'd the chambers of the vaulted ſky;
"Which he, to ſuit their glory with their height,
"Adorn'd with globes that reel, as drunk, with light.
"His hand directed all the timeful ſpheres;
"He turn'd their orbs, and poliſh'd all the Stars."

OF THE CLIMATES.

THERE are 24 Climates on each ſide the equator; and under the equator the longeſt day is no more than twelve hours; and in proportion as we advance towards the Polar Circle, the days increaſe in every Climate half an hour; and at the Polar Circles the longeſt day is 24 hours. To know what Climate any city, town, or village, is in, obſerve the longeſt day, from which deduct 12, and multiply the remainder by two, when the product will be the number of the Climate.

EXAMPLE.

	Hours.
The longeſt day in London is —	16
From which deduct	12
	4
Multiply the remainder by	2
The product is the Climate of London —	8

Like ſeaſons, climes muſt differ ev'ry where;
But man is fitted ev'ry clime to bear.

OF THE COMPASS.

IN the Compaſs there are four Cardinal Points, viz. Eaſt, Weſt, North, and South. Between theſe four grand points many intermediate points are formed; but theſe, for the purpoſes of Geography and Navigation, are confined to 32. As all theſe reſpect the poſition of places, we find by them how empires, kingdoms, ſtates, provinces, diſtricts, &c. are ſituated with regard to each other; that is, whether they lie northerly, ſoutherly, eaſterly, or weſterly, or agreeable to any of the inferior or intermediate points.

The invention of the Mariner's Compaſs has been, perhaps, of as great and general utility as any diſcovery that ever benefited mankind, as, by its means, the wants of one country are accommodated with the ſuperfluities of another; the welfare of individuals, ſituated at a great diſtance, becomes intereſting to each other; and the inhabitants of the whole univerſe are linked in one great ſociety.

"While the touch'd Needle trembles to the Pole,
"The ſailor ſteers wherever waves can roll,
"Loſt to the ſight of earth, and light of day,
"Thro' boundleſs oceans he explores his way:
"On the true Compaſs all his hopes depend,
"His faithful guide, and his directing friend."

The Number of Miles to a Degree of Latitude in other Nations, in Proportion to ours of Sixty-nine.

Statute Britiſh miles — — —	69
Italian miles, each 475 Rhinland perch (according to Varenius) —	60
Common Turkiſh miles ditto — — —	60
Spaniſh miles — — — —	17
Marine leagues of France (ours the ſame) —	20
German leagues — — — —	15
Low Dutch travelling hours — — —	20
Great leagues of Poland and Denmark — —	15
Swediſh miles — — — —	12
Hungarian miles — — — —	10
Verſts of Moſcovy — — —	80
Perſian, Arabian, and Egyptian parſanga — —	20
Chineſe leis — — — —	250

The French meaſures is to ours as 15 to 16. Therefore 4950 Paris feet are equal to 5280 Britiſh, being our ſtatute mile.

OF MAPS.

IN all Maps the north is at top, the ſouth at bottom, the eaſt on the right, and the weſt on the left; or, if it be otherwiſe, it is always expreſſed either by words on each ſide, or by a Mariner's Compaſs, wherein the mark of a fleur-de-lis always denotes the north.

Maps are laid down and proportioned to a certain ſcale, which is always taken from the degrees of Latitude.

The degrees of Latitude are always marked on the eaſt and weſt ſide of the Map.

The degrees of Longitude are always marked on the north and ſouth ſide of the Map.

A degree of Latitude is always of the ſame breadth: wherefore the diſtance of two places ſeated directly north and ſouth, is immediately known by knowing the different Latitudes. But a degree of Longitude is of different extent.

The Latitude and Longitude of a place being known, you may find it immediately in the Map, by drawing a line, or thread, croſs the Map both ways; and where the two lines cut one another, the place ſtands.

The Earth being a Globe, a Map of the whole Earth muſt neceſſarily conſiſt of two parts, both ſides of the Globe not being viſible at once. Accordingly, in a univerſal Map, the right hand circle ſhews the Old World, or Europe, Aſia, and Africa; and the left hand circle ſhews the New World, or America.

Upon the general Map are marked the Circles correſpondent to thoſe in the Sphere, namely, the Equinoctial Line, the two Tropics, and the two Polar Circles, all which croſs the Map from eaſt to weſt; and the firſt Meridians ſurrounding the two Hemiſpheres from north to ſouth, the Parallels lying from north to ſouth at ten degrees diſtance; and the Meridians at the ſame diſtance from weſt to eaſt, are alſo marked upon general Maps.

Particular Maps, being parts of this, retain the Meridians and Parallels belonging to that particular part, which are made ſmaller or larger, as the paper on which it is drawn will admit; and the diſtance of places mentioned in it are always exactly proportioned to the breadth of the Parallels. So that let a Map be ever ſo ſmall, the diſtance of places is exactly ſhewn, if meaſured according to the degrees of Latitude in that particular Map.

In both general and particular Maps, the thick ſhadowing denotes the Sea-coaſt. Rivers are marked by large ſhadowed ſerpentine lines; Roads by double lines; diviſions of Countries by dotted lines; larger for Provinces, and ſmaller for Subdiviſions; and diviſions of Nations are often ſhewn by chain lines. Foreſts are repreſented by trees; Mountains by riſing ſhadows; Sands by dotted beds; Marſhes by ſhadowed beds; Lakes by ſhadowed coaſts.

The names of Provinces are written in larger capitals; and ſmaller Diviſions in ſmaller capitals; great Cities in round Roman characters; ſmaller Towns in *Italic*.

The exact ſituation of a Town is ſhewn by a little round o; but larger places have the addition of a church for a Market-Town, if the ſize of the Map will admit. A city is noted by a church with houſes about it, as much as the ſcale will allow. Particular qualifications of Cities are diſtinguiſhed by marks, as a Biſhopric has a croſs, or ſometimes a mitre over it.

An Archbiſhopric has a double croſs over it.

An Univerſity has a ſtar, or ſometimes a *Caduceus*.

An Abbey is ſhewn by a crook, or paſtoral ſtaff.

A Fortreſs by angles like baſtions.

A Caſtle by a little flag.

A Gentleman's Seat by a houſe only.

Other marks are affected by particular engravers, which they explain in the margin.

OF THE EARTH ABSTRACTEDLY CONSIDERED.

THE firſt thing that preſents itſelf to our view is that huge maſſy ſubſtance the Globe of the Earth, conſiſting of many ſolid materials, as well as great quantities of ſalt and freſh water; for which reaſon the philoſophers commonly call it the Terraqueous Globe. And though the ſolid matter may, perhaps, be more than the fluid, yet the water takes up much the greater part of the ſurface of the Globe, as is plain to any one who looks upon a Map of the Earth: for, beſide the rivers and lakes, pools and fountains, which water the Earth in various places, the ocean, and its particular ſeas, are much more extended than the dry land; which, doubtleſs, was ordered by the Maker of all Things, for the good of mankind; there being ſuch great occaſion for water to moiſten the Earth, ſupply us with fiſh, and facilitate commerce and navigation.

But referring to another place what we ſhall ſay about the waters, if we conſider the Earth properly ſo called, we ſhall find it to be a heap of various bodies; for therein are diſcovered ſand, clay, mould of various colours, ſeveral ſorts of ſtones, many ſalts, ſulphur, bitumen, minerals, and metals, without number. Nor is it neceſſary to dig to the center of the earth, whither human induſtry can never penetrate, for the diſcovery of theſe things; they are ſometimes met with, in great abundance, not many feet deep. But in the mines of Hungary and Peru, which are ſaid to be deeper than ordinary, great ſtore of ſuch things appear.

The ancient philoſophers (and ſchoolmen, who followed their opinion, and maintained that the Earth is one of thoſe four Elements whereof all things conſiſt) obſerving ſuch a medley of things to lie under the ſurface of the Earth, ſaid this was not the pure Element they meant, but that it was ſomewhere about the center; but ſince no man can ever come at thoſe parts near the center of the Earth, this conjecture of theirs is uſeleſs.

If Des Cartes's hypotheſis were but well grounded, that the Planets were once of the like nature with the fixed Stars, conſiſting of a firy ſubſtance, and came afterwards to be cruſted over with thick and ſolid matter, there might be ſtill, at this day, a great fire in the center of the Earth, as ſome people imagine. But ſince the grounds on which he ſuppoſed the Planets to be derived, may be reckoned among thoſe things which are every way doubtful, and only ſeem not impoſſible, though, perhaps, as far from being true as real impoſſibilities, it is a raſhneſs in his followers to take this imaginary fire at the center of the Earth for a certain truth.

If thoſe parts which now make up the Earth were once looſe, and carried round the ſame center in a circular motion, we could then gather, from moſt certain experiments, that the groſſeſt of all the parts fell down to the center of the Earth. Now, ſince we know nothing heavier than metals, it would not be abſurd to ſuppoſe, that the inmoſt bowels of the Earth were filled with a prodigious ſtore of various metals; and this being preſumed,

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our opinion would receive confirmation from magnetic experiments, by which it generally appears, that the Earth is of the nature of a great loadſtone. Therefore we might, with great reaſon, ſuſpect, that at the heart of the Earth, there are iron and loadſtone in great abundance, which would be juſt contrary to their opinion who hold a firy center. But this our hypotheſis is built upon no certain reaſon, and therefore, for the avoiding of error, it is much the ſafeſt way to ſuſpend our aſſent in this caſe.

However, this is obſervable, that the deeper we dig into the ground, the heavier the matter is; and though there be no coming near the center of the Earth, yet ſuch metals are dug out of the deepeſt mines as are rarely found on the ſurface; and if, inſtead of digging mines a mile and a half deep, which is hardly ever done, we could go ſome miles downward, perhaps the matter would ſtill be cloſer and heavier.

But be this as it will, thus much we are ſure of, as to the parts about the ſurface of the Earth, that they are under a continual change and alteration, which may proceed from various cauſes. Among thoſe cauſes we will not reckon human labours; but this we ſee, that the hardeſt bodies in the world, the very adamant itſelf not excepted, being expoſed to the open air, do wear and waſte in time, and undergo various alterations without the hand of man; and, therefore, the whole ſurface of the Earth, whereon the air perpetually preſſes, muſt needs be ſubject to ſuch alterations.

Beſide the perpetual change of ſeaſons, heat and cold, rain and wind, earthquakes and running waters, are always making a wonderful change in that part of the Earth which is next the ſurface: and if we take in the daily mutations of innumerable animals and plants, which are fed by the fruits and moiſture of the Earth, and, after a ſhort time, putrify and return to Earth again, we ſhall have reaſon to believe, that this ſurface on which we tread, eſpecially in countries that have been long inhabited, is, for the moſt part, compoſed of the bodies of men and beaſts, or rather of a matter which is every day putting on new forms.

And by ſuch perpetual variations of matter, there muſt needs happen an increaſe of dry Earth, and a decay of moiſture; for it does not appear that the parts of fluid bodies, which have been once blended with ſolids, and have been ſo impregnated with ſalts as to loſe their fluidity, do ever retrieve it again. This is evident in plants and animals, which grow bigger ſo long as they receive ſpirit and nouriſhment from liquors, but afterwards turn to corruption. Some conclude from hence, that, in order to prevent too great a decay, or total failure of moiſture in the Planets, God created Comets; that ſo their fumes, diffuſing themſelves through the vortex of the Sun, might fall into the latter vortices of the Planets, and augment their liquids.

Moreover, there muſt needs be a vaſt change made in the Earth by means of the many fires which prey upon it within.

Philoſophers ſometimes conſider the Earth as a huge loadſtone, which, when we come to ſpeak of the loadſtone, we ſhall have an opportunity to enlarge upon. Meanwhile we may here obſerve, that, in this reſpect alſo the Earth is much altered, as appears from the variations of the Magnetic Needle, which ſometimes points directly at the Pole, and ſometimes declines ſeveral degrees eaſt or weſt. But this cannot happen without an alteration in the pores of that magnetic matter which flows out of the Earth, and which ſeems to come at one time directly from the Pole, and at another time from thoſe parts which are on the right or left ſide of the Pole. And whether this variation proceeds from the fires under ground, which may ſpoil here and there a mine of loadſtone, (yet ſo as that it may afterwards recover its virtue again,) or whether it be from ſome other cauſe, is what no man certainly knows.

GEOGRAPHICAL PROBLEMS.

PROBLEM I.

The Latitude of any Place being given, to rectify the Globe for that Place.

LET it be required to rectify the Globe for the Latitude of London, 51 deg. 32 min. north; and Madrid, 40 deg. 10 min. north, proceed thus:

Turn the Pole, on which the dial-plate is fixed, towards the verge of the Horizon, ſlipping or moving the Globe backwards or forwards in the notches of the Horizon, till the Horizon cuts the brazen Meridian in 52 deg. 32 min. (viz. a little more than 51 and a half); ſo is the Globe rectified for the Latitude of London; that is, the North Pole will then be elevated 51 deg. 32 min. above the Horizon; and London being brought to the Meridian itſelf, will then be in Zenith, or right up, and at equal diſtance from all parts of the Horizon.

Depreſs the Pole till the Horizon cuts the brazen Meridian at 40 deg. 10 min. and you have then the poſition of the inhabitants at Madrid; and turning the Globe till Madrid comes to the Meridian, you will find it in the Zenith, or top of the Globe, under 40 deg. 10 min.

Note. If it were required to rectify the Globe for South Latitude, then you muſt elevate the South Pole to the given Latitude, inſtead of the North Pole; but this is better explained by the next Problem.

PROBLEM II.

The Latitude and Longitude of any Place given, to find the ſame.

Firſt, You are to obſerve whether the Longitude be reckoned from Longitude, or from the firſt Meridian; for on ſome Globes the firſt Meridian begins 23 deg. on others 20 deg. and on Senex's Globes 18 deg. weſt of London; but if once you know where the firſt Meridian is on the Globe, it is very eaſy to know the difference from the Meridian in London.

EXAMPLE.

There are two certain places; one has 18 deg. North Latitude, and 77 deg. 5 min. Weſt Longitude; the other is 33 deg. 45 min. South Latitude, and 18 deg. Eaſt Longitude from London; I demand what Places theſe are.

Rule. For the firſt Place, I elevate to the North Pole 18 deg. becauſe it is 18 deg. North Latitude: then I turn the Globe to the right hand, or eaſtward, (becauſe the place lies weſtward,) till 77 deg. 5 min. on the Equator, counted from the Meridian of London, (which on Senex's Globe has a cypher thus (0) on the Equator,) paſſes through or under the Meridian: or, in other words, I turn the Globe till 77 deg. 5 min. weſtward, be brought under the Meridian

Meridian, and here I fix the Globe with a quill thruſt in betwixt the Globe and the Horizon; then I look under the Latitude 18 deg. (which is in the Zenith,) on the Meridian a-top of the Globe, and under 18 deg. on the Meridian I find Port Royal, in Jamaica, the place required.

For the ſecond Place I elevate the South Pole (though there is no occaſion to elevate the Pole barely to find a place, but it is better, becauſe you have then the real ſituation of the inhabitants) to the given Latitude 34 deg. 45 min. and then turn the Globe till 18 deg. Eaſt Longitude of London come under the Meridian; and juſt under this I find the Cape of Good Hope, the place required.

PROBLEM III.

The Latitude of any Place given, to tell all thoſe Places that have the ſame Latitude.

DEFINITION.

All thoſe places that have the ſame Latitude, have the days and nights of the ſame length, at the ſame time of the year.

Rule. Bring the given place or places to the Meridian (ſuppoſe London 50 deg. 32 min. and Madrid 40 deg. 10 min. North); then turn the Globe; and all thoſe places that paſs under 50 deg. 32 min. have the ſame Latitude as London, viz. Prague, in Germany, &c. and all that paſs under 40 deg. 10 min. have the ſame Latitude as Madrid, which you will find to be Pekin nearly for one, and many other places.

PROBLEM IV.

To tell the Difference of the Latitude of Places.

Here are two Variations or Rules.

Firſt. If the Latitudes be both North or both South, then ſubſtract the leſs from the greater Latitude, and the remainder is the difference, or anſwer. Thus between London and Madrid is 12 deg. 32 min. the firſt being 50 deg. 32 min. and the other 40 deg. And between Candy and Stockholm is 52 deg. 30 min. for Stockholm is about 59 deg. 30 min. North, and Candy 7 deg. 30 min. North.

Secondly. If one lies on the North, and the other on the South ſide of the Equator, (that is to ſay, if one be North, and the other South Latitude,) then add them together, and their ſum is the difference of the Latitude required.

Thus Copenhagen is 55 deg. 40 min. North, and the Iſland of Madagaſcar is 19 deg. 30 min. South: theſe added together make 75 deg. 10 min. the difference of Latitude required.

PROBLEM V.

The Longitude of any Place given from any Meridian, to tell thoſe Places having the ſame Latitude.

This is done after the ſame manner as the other; only here the anſwer will be on the Equator, as the others were on the Meridian.

I would know what places have the ſame Longitude as London, and the ſame Longitude as Moſcow.

The *Rule* is, bring London to the Meridian, then all thoſe places on the Globe (from the North Pole to the South part of the Horizon) that lie under the edge of the Meridian, have the ſame Longitude as London: thus Fort Naſſau, and Fort Mina, in Guinea, have the ſame, or very nearly the ſame Longitude as London.

And Moſcow, in Muſcovia, has very nearly the ſame Longitude as Aleppo, in Syria: alſo Scandaroon, Antioch, and Tripoli, in Syria, have the ſame Longitude, viz. 37 deg. 30 min. from London.

PROBLEM VI.

To tell the Difference of Longitude of Places.

Rule. Here are two Variations.

Firſt. If the places lie both Eaſt or both Weſt of the firſt Meridian, or where you reckon the Longitude from, viz. if they both be Eaſt, or both be Weſt Longitude, then ſubſtract one from the other, and you have the difference.

Thus I find Jeruſalem has 36 deg. 15 min. Eaſt Longitude from London, and Pekin 110 deg. 52 min. Eaſt Longitude; therefore ſubſtract 36 deg. 15 min. from 110 deg. 52 min. and there remains 74 deg. 37 min. difference of Longitude Eaſt or Weſt; that is, Pekin is 74 deg. 37 min. Eaſt Longitude of Jeruſalem, or Jeruſalem is 74 deg. 37 min. Weſt Longitude of Pekin.

Secondly. If one place be Eaſt, and the other Weſt Longitude, of the firſt Meridian (ſuppoſe London, or any other Meridian) then add their Longitudes together, and the ſum is the difference of Longitude required.

EXAMPLE I.

I would know the difference of the Longitude between Jeruſalem, 36 deg. 15 min. Eaſt of London, and Port Royal, in Jamaica, 77 deg. 5 min. Weſt.

Here, as one is Eaſt, and the other Weſt, I add 36 deg. 15 min. and 77 deg. 5 min. together, and their ſum makes 113 deg. 20 min. difference of Longitude; that is, Jeruſalem is 113 deg. 20 min. Eaſt of Port Royal, or Port Royal is 113 deg. 20 min. Weſt of Jeruſalem.

EXAMPLE II.

Pekin, in China, is 110 deg. 15 min. Eaſt Longitude, and Port Royal 77 deg. 5 min. Weſt; I add theſe ſums together, and find it 187 deg. 20 min. difference of Longitude; but becauſe it is more than 180 deg. I ſubſtract 187 deg. 20 min. from 360 deg. and there remains 172 deg. 40 min. the difference required.

PROBLEM

PROBLEM VII.

The Day of the Month given to find the Sun's Place in the Ecliptic.

Rule. The day of the month being given, look on the inner Calendar on the new Globes, and you have the ſign and the degree of that ſign that the Sun is in for that day, according to the New Style.

If it be upon old Globes, look on the outer Calendar, you have the ſign, and degree of the ſign.

N.B. You may further obſerve, that the Calendar uſed throughout Europe is the Calendar for New Style, viz. New Style is always known from the other, becauſe it has the Saints Days, and ſeveral other things, wrote on the Horizon.

EXAMPLE.

I would know the Sun's place in the Ecliptic on May 21, New Style; March 21, June 21, September 22, and December 21.

I look for theſe days of the months in order as they ſtand in the new Calendar, (viz. for New Style before deſcribed,) and right againſt the day of the month in the innermoſt Circle, on the Horizon, I find the Sun's place among the ſigns, as follows:

Thus, right againſt May 21 I find one deg. of Gemini: and alſo on March 21 I find he enters Aries: on June 21 he enters Cancer: on September 22 he enters Libra: and on December 21 he enters Capricorn.

PROBLEM VIII.

The Sun's Place given, to find the Day of the Month.

This is only the reverſe of the former Problem: for having the Sun's place given, ſeek it in the Circles among the ſigns; then againſt that degree in the Calendar, New Style, you have the day of the month required.

EXAMPLE.

I would know what time of the year the Sun is in 1 deg. of Gemini: as alſo when he enters Aries, Cancer, Libra and Capricorn? Proceed according to the rule, and you will find the days to be May the 21ſt, June the 21ſt, September the 22d, and December the 21ſt, as in the laſt.

PROBLEM IX.

The Latitude and Day of the Month given, to find the Sun's Place in the Ecliptic, and rectify the Globes for uſe.

Rule. Find the Sun's place on the Horizon by Problem the Seventh; and having noted what degree he is in, look upon the Ecliptic on the Globe, and find the ſame ſign and degree as you did on the Horizon; then bring this degree of the Ecliptic very carefully to the graduate edge of the brazen Meridian, and holding the Globe ſteady, turn the Index exactly to the upper twelve, (which repreſents twelve at noon); and thus is the Globe rectified for that day; and the degree of the Ecliptic that lies under the Equator repreſents the Sun's place at noon, or twelve o'clock that day.

*** The Aſtronomer's day is reckoned from, or begins at, twelve o'clock; and if you fix the Quadrant of Altitude to the Latitude in the Zenith, the Globe will be completely rectified.

PROBLEM X.

To tell the Declination of the Sun on any Day of the Year.

Rule. Having found the Sun's place in the Ecliptic for the given day, bring it to the brazen Meridian, and obſerve what degree of the Meridian it lies under, and whether it be on the North or on the South ſide of the Equator, for that is the declination required, which is called North or South declination accordingly. Thus, on April 21ſt the Sun has 11 deg. 30 min. North declination; and on May the 21ſt he has 20 deg. 30 min. declination; but on October the 27th he has 12 deg. 30 min. South declination.

PROBLEM XI.

The Latitude and Day of the Month given, to tell the Sun's Meridian Altitude, viz. his Height at Noon.

Rule. Bring the Sun's place to the Meridian, and obſerve what degree of the Meridian the Sun's place is under; for thoſe degrees on the Meridian that are intercepted, or lie between the South Verge of the Horizon, and the degree which is over the Sun's place on the Meridian, (counted on the Meridian,) is the Sun's Meridian Altitude required.

Thus, I find his Meridian Altitude in London, May the 21ſt, to be 59 deg. but on November the 5th he has but 23 deg. 30 min. Altitude.

PROBLEM XII.

The Latitude and Day of the Month given, to tell the Sun's Altitude at any Time.

Example. On May the 21ſt, at nine in the morning, and at five in the afternoon, at London, I would know the Sun's Altitude or height?

Rule. Rectify the Globe for the Latitude, and bring the Sun's place (1 deg. Gemini) to the Meridian, and the Index to the upper twelve on the Dial-plate; then ſcrew the Quadrant of altitude on the Zenith, (viz. the left edge of the Nut muſt be fixed on the Meridian, at 51 deg. 30 min.) then turn the Globe till the Index points to the hour, viz. nine in the morning: this done, fix the Globe by thruſting a quill between it and the Horizon: laſtly, turn the Quadrant about till the graduated or figured edge touch the Sun's place, (viz. 1 deg. Gemini,) and the degrees on the Quadrant, counted from the Horizon upwards on the Quadrant, is his height at that time, viz. 43 deg. 30 min. Then turn the Globe till the Index points at five in the afternoon; and alſo turn the Quadrant on the Weſt-ſide (without unſcrewing it) till it touches the Sun's place, and you have about 24 deg on the Quadrant, his Altitude at that time.

N.B. At North Cape, (viz. North Latitude, 72 deg. at nine in the morning,) May the 21ſt, he will be but about 32 deg. high.

PROBLEM XIII.

The Latitude given, to tell the Riſing and Setting of the Sun, and Length of the Day and Night, at any Time of the Year in any Place.

Rule. Rectify the Globe, (viz. elevate it for the Latitude; bring the Sun's place to the Meridian, and Index to the upper twelve); then turn it till the Sun's place comes even with, or lies right againſt, the inner Verge, on the Eaſt-ſide of the Horizon, then the Index will ſhew you the time of the Sun's riſing; turn it to the Weſt-ſide, or Verge of the Horizon, and the Index will ſhew you the ſetting. Or thus; having got the hour the Sun riſes, count how many it wants of twelve, for ſo many hours will it ſet after. Thus, if the Index points to four in the morning at riſing, it will of courſe be at eight at night, &c.

Proceed thus, and you will find the Sun, on May the 26th, at London, to riſe about four in the morning, and ſets at eight at night. Now double what he wants of twelve at riſing, viz. eight hours, and it gives the length of that day in London, viz. ſixteen hours.

PROBLEM XIV.

To tell the Sun's right Aſcenſion.

Bring the Sun's place to the brazen Meridian, and note what degree of the Equator is cut by the Meridian, for that is his right Aſcenſion required.

I would know the Sun's right Aſcenſion on March the 21ſt, June the 21ſt, September the 22d, and December the 21ſt?

I find the Sun's place for theſe different days, and bring it to the Meridian; I find the Meridian cuts the Equator in (0), in (90), in (180), and in (270 deg.) his right Aſcenſion required.

Note. When the Sun enters Aries, March the 21ſt, he has no right Aſcenſion, becauſe it is counted from, or begins at, Aries; therefore, on March the 20th, he muſt have his greateſt right Aſcenſion, viz. 359 deg.

PROBLEM XV.

To find the Sun's oblique Aſcenſion and Deſcenſion at any Time, and in any Latitude.

Rule. Rectify the Globe for the Latitude, and bring the Sun's place down to the eaſtern Verge of the Horizon; then obſerve what degree the Horizon cuts the Equator in, for that is the oblique Aſcenſion required.

Thus, on March the 21ſt, June the 21ſt, September the 22d, and December the 21ſt, viz. when the Sun enters Aries, Cancer, Libra, and Capricorn, you will find his oblique Aſcenſion at London to be (0,) (56), (180), and (304).

And on the ſame days his oblique Deſcenſion will be (0), (123,) (180), and (237 and a half.)

PROBLEM XVI.

The Latitude and Day of the Month given, to tell the Sun's aſcenſional Difference, viz. how much he riſes, or ſets before and after Six; and conſequently to tell the Length of the Days, ſuppoſe there were no Index to the Globe.

Rule. By the laſt Problem find the Sun's right and oblique Aſcenſion; then ſubtract the oblique from the right Aſcenſion, or the contrary, and the remainder is the aſcenſional difference required; which divided by fifteen, the degrees of the Equator that paſs through the Meridian of one hour, (or ſeven and a half for half an hour,) gives the anſwer in time, that the Sun riſes and ſets before and after ſix.

Thus, on May the 26th I find the Sun 6 deg. of Gemini, and his right Aſcenſion is 64 deg. and on the ſame day, his oblique aſcenſion is 34 deg. now 34 deg. from 64 deg. there remains 30 deg. his aſcenſional difference; which, divided by 15, gives two hours, the time that he riſes before, or ſets after ſix.

PROBLEM XVII.

The Latitude and Day of the Month given, to tell the Sun's Amplitude, viz. his Diſtance from the Eaſt and Weſt Points of the Compaſs he riſes and ſets upon.

Rule. The Globe being rectified, bring the Sun's place to the eaſtern Verge of the Horizon, (which ſhews its riſing,) then the degree upon the innermoſt Circle of the Horizon, counted from the true Eaſt Point to the place where the Sun's place lies againſt on the Horizon, ſhews you the Sun's Amplitude.

Proceed according to the rule, you will find the Sun's Amplitude at London, (May the 21ſt,) at riſing, to be about 34 deg. from the Eaſt to the North, and at ſetting, 34 deg. from the Weſt to the North; and the Point he riſes upon is North-Eaſt by Eaſt, and he ſets North-Weſt by Weſt; but on November the 5th he has about 25 deg. and a half Amplitude from the Eaſt to the South, and at ſetting 25 deg. and a half from the Weſt to the South. The Point he riſes upon is Eaſt-South-Eaſt, and the Point he ſets upon is Weſt-South-Weſt.

PROBLEM XVIII.

The Latitude and Day given, to tell the Sun's Azimuth, viz. his Diſtance from the Eaſt and Weſt, or from the North and South Points, at any Time.

Rule. Rectify the Globe in general, then turn the Globe till the Index points to the given hour: this being done, turn the Quadrant till it touches the Sun's place for the given day; and then the Quadrant will cut the Horizon in the Azimuth required, from the Eaſt or Weſt Points, or from the North or South Points; for you may reckon from either, only then name it properly, and accordingly.

Thus, on Auguſt the 17th, at nine in the morning, the Sun will have about 30 deg. Azimuth, from the Eaſt to the South, or, which is the ſame, 60 deg. from South to the Eaſt: for 60 deg. and 30 deg. make 90 deg. the whole quarter from Eaſt to South.

PROBLEM

PROBLEM XIX.

The Latitude, Day, and Hour given, to tell the Sun's Almicanter.

DEFINITION.

Almicanters are Circles of Altitude, that run parallel to the Horizon, whoſe Poles are the Zenith and Nadir; ſo that you may imagine as many Circles of Altitude, viz. Almicanters, as you pleaſe.

Rule. The Almicanter is found the ſame as the Altitude of the Sun at any time, therefore I refer you back to Problem 13.

PROBLEM XX.

The Latitude and Length of the Day given, to tell what other Day of the Year will be of the ſame Length.

Rule. Having found the Sun's place for the given day, bring it to the Meridian, and obſerve well its declination; then turn the Globe till ſome other degree of the Ecliptic comes under the ſame degree of declination under the Meridian; this being done, ſee what day of the Month anſwers to the Sun's place then under the Meridian, for that is the day required; which you may eaſily prove. Thus, you will find July the 13th, and Auguſt the 20th, of the ſame length as May the 26th, and April the 17th.

PROBLEM XXI.

The Latitude and Day given, to tell the Beginning, Ending, and (conſequently) the Length, or Continuance, of Twilight.

DEFINITION.

Twilight is that faint light which begins immediately after the Sun ſets in the evening, till he is 18 deg. below the Horizon; and it begins in the morning, when the Sun comes within 18 deg. of the Horizon on the Eaſt-ſide, and ends when he riſes. Therefore it is plain, that Twilight is not only longer when days increaſe in length, but it is alſo much ſtronger, as will be ſeen by the work of the Problem.

OBSERVATION.

Note. You were told that Twilight begins and ends when the Sun is 18 deg. below the Horizon; and as the Quadrant of Altitude reaches no lower than the Horizon, therefore the rule is this:

Rectify the Globe, and bring the oppoſite degree of the Sun's place to the Quadrant of Altitude, ſo that it touches juſt 18 deg. on the Quadrant, (then it is plain that the Sun's real place will be depreſſed 18 deg. below the Horizon); then look at the Index, for that will point (if among the morning hours) to the beginning, or (if among the evening hours) ending of Twilight.

Proceed then according to the rule, and you will find that on March the 21ſt, and September the 22d, Twilight begins about four in the morning, and ends about eight at night.

The Sun on theſe days, you know, riſes and ſets at ſix. Add, therefore, the length of morning and evening Twilight to twelve hours, (the length of the day then,) and it gives ſixteen hours; this, ſubtracted from twenty-four hours, leaves eight hours, the length of the real or dark night.

So alſo on April the 24th, Twilight begins about half paſt two, ends about half paſt nine, which is in all ſeven hours. But on December the 20th it begins at ſix, and ends at ſix, which is in all but three hours and forty minutes.

PROBLEM XXII.

The Hour given where you are, to tell what Hour it is in any other Part of the World.

Rule. Bring the given place to the Meridian, and ſet the Index at the given hour; then turn the Globe till the other place, or places, come under the Meridian, and the Index will point to the real time in the place required.

Example. When it is two o'clock in the afternoon at London, I would know the time at Jeruſalem, and at Port-Royal in Jamaica?

Proceed according to the rule, and you will find that when it is two in the afternoon at London, it is twenty-five minutes paſt four at Jeruſalem; and but fifty-two minutes paſt eight in the morning at Port-Royal.

Or thus, by Problem the Sixth, Jeruſalem is 36 deg. 15 min. Eaſt Longitude of London; I divide, therefore 36 deg. 15 min. by fifteen, and the Quotient is two hours, and the remainder is ſix, which is ſix times, or twenty-four minutes, and the odd fifteen minutes, or miles, in one minute; ſo that the difference is two-hours, twenty-five minutes; and as Jeruſalem is Eaſt of London, it has its hour before us; therefore it is twenty-five minutes afterfour in the afternoon. And thus for other places.

PROBLEM XXIII.

The Day of the Month given, to tell thoſe Inhabitants that will have the Sun in their Zenith (or over their Head) on that Day.

This cannot happen to any other inhabitants but thoſe in the Torrid Zones; that is, to all ſuch as have not above 23 deg. and a half of Latitude, either North or South.

Rule. Bring the Sun's place to the Meridian, and obſerve exactly his declination for that day; then t un the Globe any way, and obſerve what places paſs under that degreee of declination on the Meridian; for all ſuch will have the Sun right over their heads, ſome time or other on that day.

I would know what inhabitants, or places, will have the Sun in their Zenith on May the 21ſt?

Proceed as directed by the rule, you will find St. Jago, in Hiſpaniola; St. Jago, in Cuba; Campeachy, and many other places, will paſs under that degree of declination, viz. (20 deg. North,) and will have the Sun in their Zenith that day.

Alſo, on April the 16th, the inhabitants of Porto-Bello, the Oroonoko-Iſlands, Bay of Siam, Iſle of Ceylon, and the Philippine-Iſlands, will have the Sun in, or near, their Zenith, on that day.

PROBLEM XXIV.

The Day and Hour given in any Place, to tell thoſe Inhabitants, or that Place, to which the Sun is then vertical, viz. in the Zenith.

Rule. Bring the given place to the brazen Meridian, and turn the Index to the given hour; this done, turn the Globe till the Index points to the upper 12, or noon; then look under the degree of declination on the Globe of that day, for that is the very ſpot, or place, to which the Sun is then vertical.

Example

Example. On May the 13th, at eight minutes paſt five in the afternoon at London, I would know what place has the Sun in their Zenith? Anſwer, Port-Royal, in Jamaica.

Thus alſo you will find, when it is thirty-three minutes paſt ſix in the morning at London, on April the 12th, and Auguſt the 28th, the inhabitants of Candy, in the Iſland of Ceylon, will have the Sun then nearly in their Zenith.

OF THE MAGNET, OR LOADSTONE.

WE ſhall not enquire when the Loadſtone was firſt known, our preſent buſineſs being only to give the Natural Hiſtory of it. Firſt, then, we will obſerve its various properties which experience has made known; and, in the next place, propoſe the opinions of philoſophers concerning its internal nature and diſpoſition.

The Loadſtone is found in iron-mines, and is much of a colour and weight with iron. However, it is not to be melted and hammered out like iron, but flies to pieces under the hammer, and turns to a calx in the fire; which ſhews that its parts exceed thoſe of iron for hardneſs, rigidneſs, and an intricate combination one with another. This is worth obſerving, becauſe it will be of uſe in the following diſcourſe:

Its known properties are theſe: Firſt, when it moves freely, and without any obſtacle, it points North and South, ſo as that part of it which ſtands to one Pole, never turns to the other. The way to give it a free motion, is to ſwim it in the water upon a piece of wood.

Philoſophers have obſerved, that the Loadſtone does not always point full North and South; but ſometimes inclines to the Eaſt or Weſt without any rule.

Two Loadſtones placed at a certain diſtance from each other, do mutually approach or recede, according to their various poſitions. Their parts which ſtand North, being oppoſed, go off to a diſtance from each other; but the South-end of the one draws to the North-end of the other; and ſo *vice verſâ*. Theſe parts of the Loadſtones we call their Poles; and, for a reaſon which will appear hereafter, we ſhall call that the South-Pole which turns to the North, and that the North-Pole which points to the South.

Two Loadſtones will hold up one another in the air by turns, if the North-Pole of the one be put to the South-Pole of the other; and *vice verſâ*. Sometimes a lighter Loadſtone will hold up a heavier, when the heavier will not hold up a lighter.

It is obſervable that all Loadſtones are not equally briſk and nimble in turning to the Poles of the World; nor is their attracting virtue all alike.

Though a Loadſtone generally has two Poles, pointing North and South, as we ſaid before, yet there are ſome irregular ones, which ſeem to have more Poles.

As one Loadſtone holds up another, ſo it does iron, of greater or leſs weight than itſelf.

If iron-duſt be ſtrewed upon a Loadſtone, the particles will diſpoſe themſelves directly between the Poles, and then by degrees incline to an orbicular figure, ſo as to lie parallel with the axis of the Loadſtone, unleſs it be one of the irregular ſorts before-mentioned.

The Loadſtone imparts its virtues to iron ſo effectually, that iron, touched with a Loadſtone, appears to have all the properties aforeſaid, though not in an equal degree. The great uſe of this communication is experienced in the Mariner's Needle, by the help whereof they readily find the North and South, and all other parts of the world.

It is obſervable that, on this ſide the Equator, the North-Point of the Needle is more depreſſed than that which ſtands to the South; on the further ſide the North-Point is elevated, and the South depreſſed; but under the Line it keeps no ſituation, nor is of any uſe.

As the Loadſtone communicates its virtue to iron, ſo when it is ſet in iron, it attracts a greater weight of it than it does by itſelf.

Loadſtones are ſpoiled if they lie long near one another, with the North or South Pole of one oppoſed to the ſame Pole of the other; or if they are thoroughly heated in the fire, which likewiſe ſpoils the magnetic virtue in iron: and this virtue is much impaired in iron by its ruſt, to which the Loadſtone is not ſo liable.

Laſtly, iron placed at length North and South, and continuing ſo for a long time without alteration, has often acquired a magnetic virtue: as the old croſſes upon churches are found to do.

OF THE SEA.

AFTER fountains and rivers, it is now proper to view the common receptacle of them all, the Sea, which is that vaſt quantity of ſalt water extending from North to South, and from Weſt to Eaſt, ſurrounding the dry land on every ſide, into which all ſtreams diſcharge themſelves, and out of which mighty gulphs and bays are formed, the greateſt of which is the Mediterranean. The whole is, in one word, called the Ocean, but variouſly diſtinguiſhed and named, from the ſeveral countries by whoſe coaſts it runs. In it there are theſe three properties chiefly conſidered by Naturaliſts: Firſt, its inſeparable ſaltneſs; Secondly, its conſtant equality of bulk, notwithſtanding the inceſſant flowing of all rivers into it; and Thirdly, the tide or flowing and ebbing of its waters twice every day: all which properties we ſhall conſider.

The ſaltneſs of the ſea-water ſeems to proceed from the ſame cauſe as that of ſeveral fountains, by the boiling of which water ſalt is produced: for ſince the bottom of the Sea is of ſuch vaſt extent, it is reaſonable to think that there are large mines of ſalt in many places of it, which being diluted, ſpread throughout the Sea. And there is ſomething even in the river-water which helps to increaſe this ſaltneſs; for the rivers carry down with them an incredible multitude of ſaline particles, which they waſh off their banks as they run along. Theſe particles are not, indeed, ſo conſiderable as to ſalt their particular ſtreams; but when they all meet together, and ſettle in one bottom, they may well be allowed to change the taſte of the water ſufficiently.

Hence we may likewiſe be ſatisfied why the ſaltneſs of the Sea is neither augmented or diminiſhed, at leaſt in a ſenſible manner. It is not augmented by the influence of ſalt particles. 1. Becauſe a world of ſaline particles are continually thrown off upon the ſhore, where they putrify, and come no more into the water. 2. Becauſe people make ſalt upon the Sea-coaſt for common uſes. 3. Water can be impregnated with ſalt only to a certain degree, at which it ſtands, and rejects the overplus. 4. In the laſt place, the ſaltneſs of the Sea is not diminiſhed, becauſe as much is imported or diluted from its own mines, as is got out of it.

To help us in finding out the reaſon why the water of the Sea is not augmented, let us ſee whether there be not a way for its daily diminution, as well as increaſe. It is ſufficiently plain that there is a vaſt quantity of vapours in the air, from the abundance of ſnow and rain, which are formed of condenſed vapours: but how to eſtimate the quantity

quantity of the evaporations of water by ſome certain rule, is the material point; which the learned Dr. Halley has happily attempted in the following manner:

He took a pan of water about four inches deep, and about eight inches diameter, ſalted to the ſame degree as is the common Sea water, by the ſolution of about a fortieth part of ſalt, in which he placed a thermometer, and, by means of a pan of coals, he brought the water to the ſame degree of heat, which is obſerved to be that of our air in the hotteſt ſummer, the thermometer nicely ſhewing it. This done, he affixed the pan of water, with the thermometer in it, to one end of the beam of a pair of ſcales, and exactly counterpoiſed it with weights in the other ſcale; and, by the application or removal of the pan of coals, he found it very eaſy to maintain the water in the ſame degree of heat preciſely. During this, he found the weight of the water ſenſibly to decreaſe; and, at the end of two hours, he obſerved that there wanted near half an ounce Troy, or 233 grains of water, which, in that time, had gone off in vapour, though he could hardly perceive it ſmoke, and the water not ſenſibly warm. This quantity, in ſo ſhort a time, ſeemed very conſiderable, being little leſs than ſix ounces in 24 hours, from ſo ſmall a ſurface as a circle of eight inches diameter.

To reduce this experiment to an exact calculus, and determine the thickneſs of the ſkin of water that had ſo evaporated, he aſſumes the experiment alledged by Dr. Bernard to have been made in the Oxford Society, that the cube foot of Engliſh water weighs exactly 76 pounds Troy; this divided by 1728, the number of inches in a cube foot, will give 253 one-eighth grains, or half ounce, 13 one-third grains for the weight of a cube inch of water; wherefore the weight of 233 grains is about 35 parts of 38 of a cube inch of water, and ſhows that the thickneſs of the water evaporated was the 53d part of an inch; but we will ſuppoſe it only the 50th part, for the facility of calculation.

If, therefore, water, as warm as the air in ſummer, exhales the thickneſs of a 50th part of an inch in two hours from its whole ſurface, in 12 hours it will exhale the one-tenth of an inch; which quantity will be found abundantly ſufficient to ſerve for all the rains, ſprings, and dews; and account for the Caſpian Sea being always at a ſtand, neither waſting nor overflowing; as likewiſe for the current ſaid to ſet always in at the Straits of Gibraltar, though thoſe Mediterranean Seas receive ſo many and ſuch conſiderable rivers.

To eſtimate the quantity of water ariſing in vapours our of the Sea, he thinks he ought to conſider it only for the time the ſun is up, for that the dews all night return as much, if not more, of the vapours than are exhaled; and in ſummer the days being longer than 12 hours, this exceſs is balanced by the weaker action of the ſun, eſpecially when riſing before the water be warmed: ſo that if we allow one-tenth of an inch of the ſurface of the Sea to be raiſed every day in vapour, it may not be an improbable conjecture.

Upon this ſuppoſition, every 10 ſquare inches of the ſurface of the water yields in vapour daily a cube inch of water; and each ſquare foot half a wine pint; every ſpace of four feet ſquare a gallon; a mile ſquare 6914 tons; and a ſquare degree, ſuppoſe of 69 Engliſh miles, will evaporate 33 millions of tons.

And if the Mediterranean be eſtimated at 40 degrees long and four broad, allowances being made for the inequalities, there will be 160 ſquare degrees of Sea; and, conſequently, the whole Mediterranean muſt loſe in vapour, in a ſummer's day, at leaſt 5280 millions of tons. And this quantity of vapour, though very great, is as little as can be concluded from the experiment produced. And yet there remains another cauſe, which cannot be reduced to rule, namely the Winds, whereby the ſurface of the water is ſkimmed off ſometimes faſter than by the heat of the ſun.

OF WINDS.

IT is well known that Wind is nothing elſe but the ſtream of the air, together with ſuch vapours as the air carries along with it. But there are a great many properties of Winds, the reaſons and grounds of which are not eaſily diſcovered. However, we will firſt conſider the Winds in general, as they are conſtant and variable. Secondly, we will particularly examine their various appearances; and Laſtly, ſay ſomething of their origin.

The Winds may be divided into conſtant and variable: the former are always, at certain times of the year, and in certain parts of the world; but the latter vary ſo much, that they cannot be reduced to any rule. Now ſince it is eaſier to find out the cauſe of one regular effect, than of many irregular, let us, in the firſt place, treat of conſtant Winds. And here we muſt take notice, that the Winds are conſtant and periodical only in the open ſeas. Now the univerſal Ocean may moſt properly be divided into three parts. 1. The Atlantic and Ethiopic Oceans. 2. The Indian Ocean. 3. The great South-Sea, or Pacific Ocean; and though theſe ſeas do all communicate by the ſouth, yet as to our preſent purpoſe of the periodical Winds, they are ſufficiently ſeparated by the interpoſition of great tracks of land; the firſt lying between Africa and America; the ſecond between Africa and India; and the laſt between China and Japan, and the coaſt of America.

In the Atlantic and Ethiopic Seas, between the Tropics, there is a general eaſterly Wind all the year, excepting that it is ſubject to vary and deflect ſome few points towards the north or ſouth, according to the poſition of the place. The obſervations which have been made of theſe deflections are as follow: that near the coaſt of Africa, as ſoon as you paſs the Canary Iſles, you are ſure to meet a freſh gale of north-eaſt Wind, about the latitude of 28 degrees north, which ſeldom comes to the eaſtward of eaſt-north-eaſt, or paſſes the north-north-eaſt. This wind accompanies thoſe bound to the ſouthward, to the latitude of ten north, and about 100 leagues from the Guinea-Coaſt, where, till the fourth degree of north latitude, they fall into calms and tornadoes.

Thoſe who are bound to the Caribbee Iſles find, as they approach the American ſide, that the aforeſaid north-eaſt Wind becomes ſtill more and more eaſterly, ſo as ſometimes to be eaſt, ſometimes eaſt by ſouth, but yet moſt commonly to the northward of the eaſt, a point or two, not more. It is likewiſe obſerved, that the ſtrength of theſe Winds gradually decreaſes as you ſail weſtward.

The limits of the conſtant and variable Winds in this ocean, are farther extended on the American ſide than the African: for whereas you meet not with this certain Wind till you have paſſed the latitude of 28 degrees on this ſide, on the American ſide it commonly holds to 30, 31, or 32, degrees of latitude; and this is verified likewiſe to the ſouthward of the Equator; for, near the Cape of Good Hope, the limits of the Trade Winds are three or four degrees nearer the line, than on the coaſt of Braſil.

From the latitude of four degrees north, to the aforeſaid limits on the ſouth of the Equator, the Winds are perpetually between the ſouth and eaſt, and moſt commonly between the ſouth-eaſt and eaſt; obſerving always this rule, that, on the African ſide, they are more ſoutherly, on the Braſilian more eaſterly, ſo as to become almoſt due eaſt, the little deflection they have being ſtill the ſouth. In this part of the ocean the Wind has been nicely obſerved, for a full year together, to keep conſtantly about the ſouth-eaſt, the moſt uſual point ſouth-eaſt by eaſt. When it is eaſterly it generally blows hard, with gloomy, dark, and ſometimes rainy weather.

The ſeaſon of the year has ſome ſmall effect on theſe conſtant winds; for when the ſun is to the north of the Equator, the ſouth-eaſt Winds, eſpecially between Braſil and the Coaſt of Guinea, vary a point or two to the ſouth,

ſouth, and the north-eaſt become more eaſterly; and on the contrary, when the Sun is towards the Tropic of Capricorn, the South-eaſterly Winds become more eaſterly, and the north-eaſterly Winds, on this ſide the Line, vere more northward.

As there is no rule without ſome exception, ſo there is in this ocean a track of ſea, wherein the ſoutherly and ſouth-weſt Winds are perpetual, and that is all along the coaſt of Guinea, for above 500 leagues together, from Sierra Leona to the Iſle of St. Thomas; for the ſouth-eaſt Trade Wind having paſſed the Line, and approaching the coaſt of Guinea within 80 or 100 leagues, inclines towards the ſhore, and becomes ſouth-ſouth-eaſt; and by degrees, as you come nearer, it veres about to ſouth, ſouth-ſouth weſt, and in with the land ſouth-weſt, and ſometimes weſt-ſouth-weſt, as is ſeen in the Map of the Trade Winds.

To the northward of the Line, between four and ten degrees of Latitude, and between the Meridians of Cape Verd, and of the eaſternmoſt iſlands that bear that name, there is a track of ſea wherein it were improper to ſay there is any Trade Wind, or yet any variable; for it ſeems condemned to perpetual calms, attended with terrible thunder and lightning, and rains ſo frequent, that our navigators from thence call this part of the ſea *The Rains:* the little Winds that are, conſiſt only of ſome ſudden uncertain guſts, of very little continuance, and leſs extent.

All who uſe the Weſt-India trade, even thoſe bound to Virginia, count it their beſt courſe to get as ſoon as they can to the ſouth-ward, that they may be ſure of a fair freſh gale to run before it to the weſtward; and for the ſame reaſon, thoſe homeward bound from America, endeavour to gain the latitude of 30 degrees as ſoon as poſſible, where they firſt find the Winds to be variable; though the moſt ordinary Winds in the north part of the Atlantic Ocean come from between the ſouth and weſt.

What is here ſaid is to be underſtood of the Sea Winds at ſome diſtance from land; for upon and near ſhore, the land and ſea breezes are almoſt every where ſenſible; and the great variety which happens in their periods, force, and direction, from the ſituation of the mountains, valleys, and woods, and from the various texture of the ſoil, more or leſs capable of retaining and reflecting heat, and of exhaling or condenſing vapours, is ſuch, that it were endleſs to endeavour to account for them,

In the Indian Ocean the Winds are partly general, as in the Ethiopic Ocean partly periodical; that is, half the year they blow, and the other half near upon the oppoſite points; and theſe points, and times of ſhifting, are different in different parts of this ocean. The limits of each track of ſea, ſubject to the ſame change, or monſoon, (as the natives call it,) are certainly very hard to determine; but the diligence I have uſed (ſays Dr. Halley) to be rightly informed, and the care I have taken therein, has, in a great meaſure, ſurmounted that difficulty. I am perſuaded that the following particulars may be relied on:

That between the latitudes of 10 and 30 degrees ſouth, between Madagaſcar and New-Holland, the general Trade Wind about the ſouth-eaſt-by-eaſt is found to blow all the year long, to all intents and purpoſes, after the ſame manner as in the ſame latitudes in the Ethiopic Ocean.

The aforeſaid ſouth-eaſt Winds extend within two degrees of the Equator, during the months of June, July, and to November; at which time, between the ſouth latitude of three and 10 degrees, being near the Meridian of the north end of Madagaſcar, and between two and 12 ſouth latitude, being near Sumatra and Java, the contrary winds from the north-weſt, or between the north and weſt, ſet in and blow for half the year; that is, from the beginning of December till May; and this monſoon is obſerved as far as the Molucca Iſles.

To the northward of three degrees ſouth latitude, over the whole Arabian or Indian Sea, and Gulph of Bengal, from Sumatra to the coaſt of Africa, there is another monſoon blowing from October to April upon the north-eaſt points; but in the other half year, from April to October, upon the oppoſite points of ſouth-weſt and weſt-ſouth-weſt, and that with rather more force than the other, accompanied with dark rainy weather; whereas the north-eaſt blows clear. And the Winds are not ſo conſtant, either in ſtrength or point, in the Gulph of Bengal, as they are in the Indian Sea, where a certain and ſteady gale ſcarce ever fails. It is alſo remarkable, that the ſouth-weſt Winds in theſe ſeas are generally more ſoutherly on the African ſide, and more weſterly on the Indian.

To the eaſtward of Sumatra and Malacca, to the northward of the Line, and along the coaſt of Cambaya and China, the monſoons blow north and ſouth; that is to ſay, the north-eaſt Winds are much northerly, and the ſouth-weſt much ſoutherly. This conſtitution reaches to the eaſtward of the Philippine Iſles, and as far north as Japan; the northern monſoon ſetting in here in October or November, and the ſouthern in May, blowing all the ſummer months. The points of the compaſs, from whence the Wind comes in theſe parts of the world, are not ſo fixed as in thoſe lately deſcribed; for the ſoutherly will often paſs a point or two to the eaſtward of the ſouth, and the northerly as much to the weſtward of the north, which ſeems occaſioned by the great quantity of land which is interſperſed in theſe ſeas.

In the ſame Meridians, but ſouthward of the Equator, being that track lying between Sumatra and Java to the weſt, and New-Guinea to the eaſt, the ſame northerly monſoons are obſerved; but with this difference, that the inclination of the northerly is towards the north-weſt, and of the ſoutherly towards the ſouth-eaſt.

Theſe contrary Winds do not ſhift all at once, but in ſome places the time of the change is attended with calms, in others with variable Winds; and it is particularly remarkable, that the end of the weſterly monſoon, on the coaſt of Coromandel, and the two laſt months of the ſoutherly monſoon in the ſeas of China, are very ſubject to be tempeſtuous: the violence of theſe ſtorms is ſuch, that they ſeem to be of the nature of the Weſt-Indian hurricanes, and render the navigation of theſe parts very unſafe about that time of the year. Theſe tempeſts are by our ſeamen uſually termed, *The breaking up of the Monſoons.*

By reaſon of the ſhifting of theſe Winds, all thoſe that ſail in theſe ſeas are obliged to obſerve the ſeaſons proper for their voyages; and by ſo doing, they ſail not of a fair Wind, and ſpeedy paſſage; but if they chance to outſtay their time till the contrary monſoon ſets in, as it frequently happens, they are forced to give over hopes of accompliſhing their intended voyage, and put into ſome other harbour, and there to remain till the Winds come favourable.

The third Ocean, called the Great Pacific, whoſe extent is equal to that of the other two, (it being from the weſt coaſt of America to the Philippine Iſlands, not leſs than 150 degrees of longitude,) is that which is leaſt known to all nations. The chief navigation is by the Spaniards, who go yearly from New-Spain to the Manillas by one beaten track; ſo that we cannot be particular here, as in the other two. What the Spaniſh authors ſay of the Winds they find in their courſes, and what is confirmed by the old accounts of Drake and Cavendiſh, and ſince by Schouten, is, that there is a great conformity between the Winds of this ſea, and thoſe of the Atlantic and Ethiopic; that to the northward of the Equator the predominant Wind is between the eaſt and north-eaſt; and to the ſouthward thereof there is a conſtant ſteady gale between the eaſt and ſouth-eaſt, and that on both ſides the line with ſo much conſtancy, that they ſcarce ever need to attend the ſails; and ſo much ſtrength, that it is rare to fail of croſſing this vaſt Ocean in 10 weeks time, which is about 150 Britiſh miles a day.

This

This is to be underſtood of the Pacific Sea at a great diſtance from land; for about the ſhores are various Winds: and when the ſouth-eaſt or ſouth-weſt blows, this ſea is rough and dangerous; for the leaſt Wind raiſes it very high; but when the wind ceaſes, though it blowed very ſtrong juſt before, there is an immediate calm, as if there had been no Wind for a long time; whereas, on the contrary, the Atlantic Sea rolls for ſeveral days after the wind is laid, and is generally ſmooth on the coaſt, and tempeſtuous out on the main.

The limits alſo of theſe general Winds are much the ſame as in the Atlantic Sea, that is, about the thirtieth degree of latitude on both ſides; for the Spaniards, home-bound from Manilla, always take the advantage of the ſouth-monſoon, blowing there in the ſummer-months, and run up to the north of that latitude as high as Japan, before they meet with variable Winds to ſhape their courſe eaſtward. Alſo Schouten, and others, who have gone by the Magellan Straits, have found the limits of the ſouth-eaſt Winds much about the ſame latitude to the ſouthward: and a farther analogy between the Winds of this Ocean and the Ethiopic, appears in that upon the coaſt of Peru they are always much ſoutherly, as they are near the ſhores of Angola.

As for the variable Winds, they are felt moſt by land, and in ſuch parts of the ſea as are without the limits of the conſtant Winds to the north and ſouth; that is, in the colder parts of the Ocean, and all over its outmoſt bays, the principal of which are the Mediterranean and Baltic: ſome are common to all countries; others are more peculiar to ſome particular parts. Of this latter ſort the moſt famous are the hurricanes, which chiefly infeſt the Caribbees, but are not anniverſary, nor equally frequent. Their fury is ſo great, that they throw down all before them, tear up trees, overturn houſes, toſs ſhips prodigiouſly, and blow about things of vaſt weight. They are not even, but blow in guſts, which ſuddenly come and go; neither do they extend very wide, but are ſometimes confined to a narrow compaſs, and at other times take a large ſcope. As for their duration, it is but for a few days, and ſometimes only a few hours. They are mor common in America than any where, though Europe and Aſia are not altogether without them.

It may be obſerved of all Winds, whether conſtant or variable, that ſome are drying, others are moiſt; ſome gather clouds, others diſperſe them; ſome are warm, others cold. But their influence is not one and the ſame in all places; for ſuch Winds as are cold and dry in one country, are warm and wet in another.

Theſe are the principal obſervations concerning Winds; for to examine every thing belonging to this ſubject would be the work of a large volume, as no reaſons can be given for ſeveral things, before the truth of them is better aſcertained. Wherefore we ſhall, at preſent, confine ourſelves to account for the cauſes of conſtant Winds.

Wind is moſt properly defined to be the ſtream, or current of the air; and where ſuch a current is perpetual, and fixed in its courſe, it is neceſſary that it proceeds from a permanent, unintermitting cauſe. Wherefore ſome have been inclined to propoſe the diurnal rotation of the earth, upon the axis, by which, as the Globe turns eaſt, the looſe and fluid particles of the air, being ſo exceeding light, are left behind; ſo that in reſpect to the earth's ſurface, they move weſtward, and become a conſtant eaſterly Wind. This opinion ſeems confirmed, for that theſe winds are found only near the Equinoctial, in thoſe parallels of latitude where the diurnal motion is ſwifteſt. And we ſhould readily aſſent to it, if the conſtant calms in the Atlantic Sea near the Equator, the weſterly Winds near the coaſt of Guinea, and the periodical weſterly monſoons under the Equator in the Indian Seas, did not declare the inſufficiency of that hypotheſis. Beſides, the air being kept to the earth by the principle of gravity, would require the ſame degree of velocity that the ſurface of the earth moves with, as well in reſpect of the diurnal rotation, as of the annual about the ſun, which is 30 times ſwifter.

It remains therefore to find ſome other cauſe, capable of producing a like conſtant effect, agreeable to the known properties of the elements of air and water, and the laws of the motion of fluid bodies. Such a one is, we conceive, the action of the ſun-beams upon the air and water, as he paſſes every day over the oceans, conſidered together with the nature of the ſoil, and ſituation of the adjoining continents: wherefore Firſt, according to the laws of ſtatics, the air which is leſs rarified, or expanded by heat, and conſequently more ponderous, muſt have a motion towards thoſe parts thereof, which are more rarified and leſs ponderous, to bring it to an equilibrium: and Secondly, the preſence of the ſun continually ſhifting to the weſtward, that part toward which the air tends, by reaſon of the rarefaction made by his great meridian heat, is with him carried weſtward, and conſequently the tendency of the whole body of the lower air is that way. Thus a general eaſterly wind is formed, which being impreſſed upon all the air of a vaſt Ocean, the parts impel one another, and ſo keep moving till the next return of the ſun, whereby ſo much of the motion as was loſt is again reſtored; and thus the weſterly Wind is made perpetual.

From the ſame principle it follows, that the eaſterly Wind ſhould, on the north ſide of the Equator, be to the northward of the eaſt, and, in ſouth latitudes, to the ſouthward thereof; for near the Line the air is much more rarified than at a greater diſtance from it, becauſe of the ſun being twice in a year vertical, and at no time diſtant above 23 degrees and a half; at which diſtance the heat, being as the fine of the angle of incidence, is but little ſhort of that of the perpendicular ray. Whereas under the Tropics, though the ſun continues long vertical, yet he is as long 47 degrees off; which is a kind of winter, wherein the air ſo cools, as that the ſummer heat cannot warm it to the ſame degree with that under the Equator: wherefore the air to the northward and ſouthward being leſs rarified than that in the middle, it follows, that from both ſides it ought to tend toward the Equator: this motion compounded with the former eaſterly Wind, anſwers all the phænomena of the general Trade Winds; which, if the whole were ſea, would undoubtedly blow all round the world, as they are found to do in the Atlantic and Ethiopic Oceans.

But ſeeing that ſo great continents do interpoſe and break the continuity of the oceans, regard muſt be had to the nature of the ſoil, and the poſition of the high mountains, which may be ſuppoſed the two principal cauſes of the ſeveral variations of the Winds from the former general rule: for if a country lying near the ſun proves to be flat, ſandy, low land, ſuch as the deſarts of Lybia are uſually reported to be, the heat occaſioned by the reflexion of the ſun-beams, and the retention thereof in the ſand, is incredible to thoſe who have not felt it; whereby the air being exceedingly rarified, it is neceſſary that the cooler and more denſe air ſhould run thitherwards to reſtore the equilibrium: this is moſt likely to be the cauſe why, near the coaſt of Guinea, the Wind always ſets in upon the land, blowing weſterly inſtead of eaſterly.

There is ſufficient reaſon to believe that the inland parts of Africa are prodigious hot, ſince the northern borders thereof were ſo intemperate, as to give the ancients cauſe to conclude, that all beyond the Tropics was uninhabitable by exceſs of heat. From the ſame cauſe it happens, that there are ſuch conſtant calms in that part of the Ocean called the Rains: for this track being placed in the middle, between the weſterly Winds blowing on the coaſt of Guinea, and the eaſterly Trade Winds blowing to the weſt thereof, the tendency of the air here is indifferent to either, and ſo ſtands in equilibrio between both; and the weight of the incumbent atmoſphere being diminiſhed by the continual contrary Winds blowing from hence, is the reaſon that the air here holds not the copious vapour it receives, but lets it fall into frequent rains.

But

But as the cool and denſe air, by reaſon of its greater gravity, preſſes upon the hot and rarified, it is demonſtrative that this latter muſt aſcend in a continued ſtream as faſt as it rarifies; and that, being aſcended, it muſt diſperſe itſelf to preſerve the equilibrium; that is, the upper air muſt move by a contrary current from thoſe parts where the greateſt heat is: ſo, by a kind of circulation, the north-eaſt Trade Wind below will be attended with a ſouth-weſterly above, and the ſouth-eaſterly with a north-weſt Wind above. That this is more than a bare conjecture, the almoſt inſtantaneous change of the Wind to the oppoſite point, which is frequently found in paſſing the limits of the Trade Winds, ſeems to aſſure us; but that which above all confirms this hypotheſis, is the phænomenon of the monſoons, by this means moſt eaſily ſolved, and without it hardly explicable.

If the cauſes of tempeſts and hurricanes be demanded, they are hardly to be accounted for in all particulars. However, it may in the firſt place be noted, that the ratio of all liquids is much the ſame, and therefore an extraordinary motion may be excited in the air, by the ſame way as it is in the water. Now if water falls from a high place, or if there be a confluence of ſeveral ſtreams together, this gives it a violent motion, and cauſes many whirlings and eddies in it: this is apparent in torrents falling down from rocks, and confluences of rivers. If, therefore, ſomething analagous to this may happen in the air, there muſt needs be furious tempeſts of Wind raiſed in it. And ſuch a thing may happen, if an extraordinary quantity of vapours be driven by the Wind upon a certain place, which they cannot eaſily get over by reaſon of mountains or contrary Winds, that oppoſe them. For example, ſuppoſe a Wind from ſome point between north and eaſt carries a vaſt collection of vapours out of Africa to the Caribbees, this wind lights upon the continent of America; now it is poſſible that not only the mountains and woods of Panama may reſiſt the current of this Wind, and croud the vapours together, but a contrary Wind, from a point between the ſouth and weſt, may blow at the ſame time on the weſtern ſhore of America, which ſhall force the vapours back again. When ſuch a rencounter happens, there muſt be a wild uproar in the air about the Caribbee Iſles, and in all that track between South and North-America; and the vapours in this circular motion muſt be furious on all ſides, juſt as it is in the water. For we ſee at the confluence of two rivers, if their currents be rapid at the place where they fall in, they cauſe violent eddies which whirl about things that are caſt into them, ſwallowing them for a time, and then throwing them up again.

This ſhews us the reaſon why heavy bodies are often toſſed in the air by the whirling of hurricanes, and then daſhed to the ground again. For the air being in a circular motion, is with great fury toſſed backwards and forwards between the ground and the clouds. And as the waters of the rolling ſea do not run to the ſhores in an even ſtream, but in ſuch waves as daſh by fits and turns, ſo the courſe of a violent Wind is broken into diſtinct blaſts.

To come now to the common phænomena of Winds, the dry ones are ſuch as carry few vapours along with them, and therefore draw off the moiſt particles from bodies over which they paſs. Thus in Holland the north and eaſt Winds, with the intermediate points, are drying, becauſe the cold northern ſea yields but few vapours, in compariſon of thoſe which come from warmer parts of the Ocean; and from thence towards the eaſt are vaſt tracks of land, where the heat at Midſummer is but very ſmall. But the other Winds, eſpecially the weſterly, are moiſt, becauſe they iſſue from the warm and vaporous parts. The Weſtern Ocean ſeldom fails to ſend us rainy Winds: however, this property varies according to the various ſituation of countries.

Such Winds gather clouds as blow from the quarters where the vapours ariſe, which, in conjunction with the vapours of our own region, fill the air. On the other ſide thoſe Winds make fair weather, which bring little vapour along with them, and bear away that which hangs over us.

Winds are warm or cold, as the countries are from whence they blow; and, therefore, when a briſk Wind blows from a cold quarter, it allays the ſummer heat, which is very tireſome in ſtill weather. Thus a quick blaſt of a pair of bellows will put out a flame, which a gentle blowing increaſes; for the quick blaſt drives all the flame to one ſide, where it is ſtifled by the force of the incumbent air, except it meet with more fuel on that ſide; but a gentle Wind augments the motion of the flame every way, and makes it ſeize on more parts of the fuel.

Now, becauſe all the heat or cold of Winds proceeds from the heat or cold of the country whence it blows, therefore the ſame Winds are hot and cold every where. Beyond the line they are juſt the reverſe of what they are with us; for their cold Winds are from the ſouth, as ours are from the north; and as our ſouth Winds are warm, for no other reaſon but becauſe they bring us an air heated by the ſun, for the very ſame reaſon the north Winds are warm to our Antipodes.

From what has been ſaid it is ſufficiently manifeſt, that the ſun is the principal cauſe of Wind, and motion the cauſe of Vapours. But if we except thoſe conſtant and periodical Winds which blow in ſome ſeas, the limits of the reſt cannot be determined, nor can we ſay when they will begin, or when they will end. For inſtance, we cannot give a reaſon why an eaſt Wind ſhall generally blow one ſummer, and a weſt Wind another. Poſſibly it might be diſcovered, if, for ſeveral years together, a nice obſervation was made of the Winds, and their ſhiftings in ſeveral countries; for that which ſeems inconſtant and irregular to us, might, perhaps, be found to follow certain courſes; at leaſt we ſhould know how far a raiſed Wind would continue its blaſt; but, till ſuch experiments are made we muſt be ſatisfied with what knowledge we have.

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